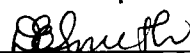


To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Sheila C. Barrett entitled " Self-esteem and academic performance: of students attending traditional and non-traditional highs schools in Jamaica." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science with a major in Human Ecology.

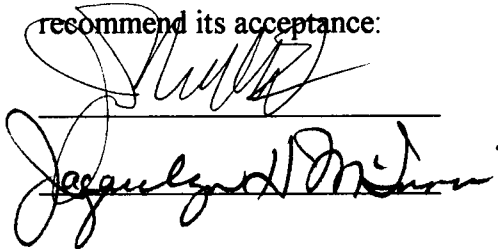


Delores E. Smith,

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We have read this thesis and

recommend its acceptance:



Accepted for the Council:



Associate Vice-Chancellor and

Dean of the Graduate School.

SELF-ESTEEM AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE:
OF
STUDENTS ATTENDING
TRADITIONAL AND NON-TRADITIONAL
HIGH SCHOOLS IN JAMAICA.

A Thesis
presented for the
Master of Science
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Sheila C. Barrett
August, 1996.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my son

Beynaldo Mikhail Ferguson

who so bravely endured the separation between us during my studies.
Here's hoping two years of separation have not adversely
affected your self-esteem and academic ability.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I want to thank the members of my committee; Dr. Delores Smith (Chair), Dr. Jacquelyn McInnis, and Dr. Jim Moran for their guidance and patience in the preparation of this thesis. Special thanks to Dr. Smith who provided me with endless guidance and assistance throughout the process. I appreciate your efforts and tolerance with my repeated trials and many frustrations in preparing this thesis. Your invaluable comments and continuous feedback in the preparation of this manuscript are appreciated.

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ABSTRACT

The study examined the relationships among self-esteem, academic performance, school location, gender, and schooltype of 493 Jamaican adolescents attending two types of high schools (traditional and non-traditional) in Jamaica. The Offer Self Image Questionnaire-Revised was used to measure students' self-esteem. Students' academic performance was determined by examining scores on internally administered examinations in the schools under investigation.

It was hypothesised that there would be significant relationships among students' self-esteem and academic performance as a function of the type of school students attend, place of residence, gender, and "passing" or "not passing" the national high school entrance examination; the Common Entrance Examination (CEE). Analyses indicated significant gender and location effects on self-esteem and academic performance of CEE scholars attending traditional and non-traditional high schools. However, schooltype was not significant for these groups.

Overall, gender differences were noted on the self-esteem dimensions of sexuality, social functioning, ethical values, and vocational attitudes of CEE students. Males scored significantly higher than females on the first three dimensions whereas, females scored higher than males on vocational attitudes. Data indicated that rural CEE students scored significantly higher than their urban counterparts on academic performance and self-esteem, which might lead to the conclusion that rural students are more motivated to succeed than their urban peers because of the fierce competition they face in accessing the limited high school places in these regions. Urban students have

access to more high school places.

Significant differences for self-esteem, academic performance, gender, location, and examination were noted for the CEE and non-CEE students who attended the non-traditional high schools. CEE students in non-traditional high schools scored significantly higher than non-CEE students on academic performance ($p < .001$), and on the self-esteem dimensions of impulse control, emotional tone, social functioning, ethical values, self-confidence, vocational attitudes, self-reliance, and total self-esteem. Exam was also highly significant for this group ($p < .01$) which indicated that passing the CEE (national examination) had an impact on students' academic performance and self-esteem.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Jamaica is the third largest island in the Caribbean and boasts a population of approximately 2.5 million people. The island shares a similar history of settlement with the rest of the Caribbean and North America, relative to Christopher Columbus' arrival on its shores in 1494 and the experiences with slavery. The island became a British colony in 1655 and remained under British rule until 1962 when it gained full independence from Britain. Under British rule Jamaica became the world's largest producer of sugar thereby necessitating the importation of African slaves to supply the labor force for the sugar plantations. With the abolition of slavery in 1834, the labor force was fed by immigrant laborers from India and China, and from Europe and North America. Also, from the Middle East came merchants and people of other professions (Chen, 1984). The rich ethnic heritage of Jamaica is indicated by the composition of people of the following descent; 76.3% Africans; 15.1% Afro-Europeans; 0.8% Europeans; 1.2% Chinese and Afro-Chinese; 3.4% East Indians & Afro-East Indians; Others 3.2% (J.I.S. publication, 1994).

Like the social and political aspects of development the Jamaican educational system continues to be imbedded in its British colonial past (King, 1979). The island's educational history is tied to the plantation system and slavery which it endured under British rule for over three hundred years. The British Plantocracy denied access to high schools to the slaves (later ex-slaves), and other ethnic groups of the labor force. However, despite its independence from Britain in 1962, the island's educational system

still holds on to the vestiges of the past; an older English system which has largely disappeared in Britain (Smith, 1993).

Jamaica's Educational History

To understand the Jamaican educational system, one has to understand its history. In the latter part of the seventeenth century academic High schools were formed for the white minority overseers (British expatriates) of the slave plantations. The schools were established for those overseers who could not afford to send their children back to England to study (King, 1979; Miller, 1988). In these early years, only Whites and a few "light-skinned" people had access to High schools. Slaves then, were not privy to education, therefore, secondary education was only for the Whites and a few light-skinned people. These High schools followed the English academic orientation and were fed by private preparatory schools and the elementary school system by way of scholarships and free places.

The British Parliament's Act to abolish slavery, included a clause which provided for the moral and religious education of the freed blacks. In 1835, the British Government gave a grant of 7500 Pounds to Jamaica to implement this act. This grant was referred to as the "Negro Education Grant." However, education to the freed blacks was still limited as this grant was aimed at teaching moral and religious education, not academics (Neita, 1996). The annual grant was terminated in 1841, and the responsibility for financing education was taken over by the Churches and the Jamaican government. Many of the prestigious High schools were established during this period by various

religious denominations. By 1865 the government assumed responsibility for these schools, but it was not until 1892, that the Jamaican government built its first secondary school. In that same year, laws were passed mandating that up to 25% of High school places be made available to other ethnic groups, other than Whites (Miller, 1988).

This trend continued up to the 1960's when the island gained full independence from Britain and the local leaders began instituting changes in the system. Elementary schools became known as Primary schools, and Senior schools were built to provide access to more students at the secondary level. These Senior schools however, differed from the High schools in that they accommodated those students who "failed" to gain a High school place via the Common Entrance Examination (CEE). Senior schools later became Junior Secondary which, like its predecessor accommodated the students who were basically less "academically able" and unable to gain entry to High schools. Therefore, changes were in name only, not in function. In 1974 another name change occurred and these schools became New Secondary schools. Like its predecessors, the New Secondary curriculum kept its non-academic orientation and remained heavily biased towards skills training (UNESCO Report, 1983). However, in the New Secondary schools students attended for an extra two years thereby leaving school at age 17 rather than 15. The latter age limit was instituted to keep students out of the job market for two more years since it was assumed that at age 15 students were not sufficiently mature and ready for the formal labor market. In 1988, the government began a new system of changes; New Secondary schools are currently being upgraded to High schools presumably to allow more students access to High school education.

Currently, there are basically five types of public secondary schools in the island; the Traditional High (academically focussed and replica of the English Grammar Schools), Technical High, Comprehensive High (offer a combination of academic and vocational training), New Secondary, and All Age. The All Age schools are a special type because in actuality they are extensions of the Primary school system. They cater to students between six and fifteen years old. The upper three grades (seven to nine) of these schools are considered secondary grades. Students attending these schools have either not had the opportunity to take, or have failed the national high school entry examination (CEE) or do not live in close proximity to a New Secondary school. All Age schools are considered less prestigious than other forms of secondary schools as they accommodate older children who attend school alongside the primary school children. These schools also have far less resources than other types of schools. According to the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (1983) these schools offer limited life chances to their students.

The Traditional High schools are accorded the highest status while the New Secondary and All Age schools are accorded the lowest status; based on the program offerings and the fact that they accommodate those students perceived to be of a lower academic calibre. The High, (and to a lesser extent) Technical and Comprehensive schools afford students advancement into further studies, while the New Secondary supply workers for the unskilled labor force (Smith, 1993). Therefore, attendance at the former three schools lead to better employment opportunities and an assured place in the middle or upper socioeconomic class (Phillips, 1973). Similar sentiments were expressed

by UNESCO in their 1983 report on the secondary education system in Jamaica. The report contended that entrance to High schools has been a sure way of escaping poverty and climbing the social ladder and is still seen as the greatest hope for success in life among Jamaican youths. However, as previously stated only 20% of the nation's children get the opportunity to attend this type of school (see appendix C for enrollment in secondary schools).

Based on the high status accorded the High schools, there is a general feeling among the public that the other forms of secondary schools are sub-standard. However, these beliefs may be warranted. Students who attend these non-traditional schools receive differential treatment in several areas. The UNESCO Report (1983) alluded to the fact that secondary schools in Jamaica differ in terms of admission, curriculum, and prospect for further education and general life chances. The report pointed out that the curriculum in the High schools continues to have an academic bias and prepares students for post-secondary education, whereas in the other schools, orientation leans towards basic life skills needed for the world of unskilled work. Therefore, graduates of the latter institutions have very little chance of continuing to tertiary education since the curriculum offers little challenge to students.

The High School Selection Process

Entry to the prestigious Traditional High schools is based on a national entrance examination, the Common Entrance Examination (CEE). The dynamics of the selection process has been criticized by many educators and social scientists. For example, Smith

(1993) contended that the system of selection is organized in such a way that it "weeds out" and stifles many students with high intellectual potential since the children are tracked by the CEE even before they reach adolescence. The CEE was implemented in 1957 as a way of opening up the process so that the populace could have equal access to High schools. However, this is arguably not the case. The CEE is a written examination taken between age 10 to 12 (usually at the end of the Primary school). It tests knowledge and competence in Mathematics, English Language, and Mental Ability. Unfortunately, the opportunity to take this examination is not available to all students. Smith (1993), contended that the selection process is quite arbitrary with regard to whether children are allowed to take the extremely competitive examination (CEE) in the first place. She posited that the local teacher is the first obstacle children encounter in their quest for a coveted place in these highly academically oriented High schools. Teachers select only those students whom they estimate to show the greatest potential for success on the CEE, to take the examination. Therefore, the class-teacher makes the selection based on his or her subjective appraisal of potential students (Smith, 1990). In other words, teachers subjectively select students whom they think have the best chance of being successful in the CEE. Further, whether children "pass" the examination is every bit as arbitrary, since the passing "cut off" points varies across the island based on the number of places available in a particular area (Smith, 1990; Barrett & Downie, 1996). To support this argument, Sangster (1995), in a recent article in the local newspaper, pointed out that the CEE is not a "pass/fail" examination, but rather a selection test for the best performers at

a particular time. Sangster further stated that the selection process uses cut-off scores which vary from year to year, parish to parish, and are higher for girls than for boys, (see appendix K for CEE passes by parish, and gender). In regards to gender differences and opportunities to access High school education, Thompson (1994) stated that the trend has been for more girls than boys to "pass" (be selected by) the CEE, a matter related to degree of maturity among boys and girls at that stage of development (girls mature earlier than boys). This led the government to institute higher cut off scores for girls than for boys. Therefore, it is easier for boys than girls to gain access to High schools. This is because the number of places in the High schools is inadequate to meet the needs of the growing population. Therefore these factors determine the numbers of students who actually gain access. For example, in 1995, a total of 55,022 students took the CEE with only 14,920 being offered High school places. This represents about 27% of the total population of children who took this examination. Of the remaining 73% many had high scores but did not gain access.

Another barrier (for those who navigate the first hurdle) is that scholarships are offered based on the number of high school places available and not necessarily the students' ability or their performance on the examination. Therefore, students who fail to gain a place are not necessarily less brilliant but end up suffering at the mercy of the inadequacies of this system of selection (Thompson, 1994). A third problematic area relates to students' selection on the basis of place of residency; students residing in urban areas where there are more High schools, are more likely to be selected than those in the

rural areas (Barrett & Downie, 1996). Therefore, based on the way the CEE is structured, it is possible for students in the urban areas with lower scores on the examination to be selected than those in the rural areas with higher scores. Hence, it is easier for students in the urban areas, where there is a higher concentration of High schools, to gain entry with lower scores than those in the rural areas where there are fewer High schools (see appendix J for number of awards and entries by schooltype, parish, and sex). The chances of rural children gaining access to High school education is further compounded by the fact that some primary schools are located in deep rural Jamaica, hence some teachers and parents believe children are better off doing practical work. Therefore, they do not gear those children for the CEE and the opportunity to attend High school (Thompson, 1994). Boys especially, are held back in primary schools to help their parents with farm work. The number of scholarships offered each year is therefore related to location, gender and number of places available.

Statement of the Problem

The system of selection to High schools (based on success in the CEE) along with its attendant problems, such as its possible emotional effect on children, have become a major issue among academicians. As a result the government has begun to attempt to increase the numbers of High school places so that more students may have access to quality secondary education. This is being done by "upgrading" New secondary schools to High school status. As mentioned earlier, before conversion the New Secondary

schools accommodated those students who "failed" the CEE and were considered less brilliant. The schools themselves enjoyed low status because of the perceived calibre of students they accommodated. Since 1988 fifty-two New Secondary schools have been converted to High and Comprehensive high schools (See appendix A for list of schools converted in 1988). Therefore, the number of High school places and the number of students "passing" the CEE have dramatically increased. A comparison of past versus more recent times illustrates this trend. For example, in 1987, 47,227 students took the CEE with only 10,020 being awarded High school places. Whereas, in 1995, 55,022 students took the examination with 14,920 being awarded high school places; an increase of over 4,000 places over previous years (Sangster, 1996). (See appendix B for a comparison of CEE passes for the period 1987-1995).

Despite the increase in the numbers of students being offered High school places, problems continue to plague the secondary school system in Jamaica. Perhaps the most salient issue relates to the perceptions the general public continue to hold of the upgraded schools. The perception is that the "upgraded" schools are High schools in name only; not the level of education the children receive. Although no scientific research has been done specifically on parents' perceptions of the non-traditional high schools, speculations concerning parents' perceptions are reflected in a UNESCO's Report (1983), which states that, "... by contrast, New Secondary schools enjoy noticeably lower esteem than High schools on the part of pupils/parents which is reflected in a declining tendency of enrollments and transition rates" (UNESCO Report 1983, p. 3). Recent reports show that

the public holds the upgraded schools in the same low esteem as their predecessors, the New Secondary school. It is clear that parents' discontent over the upgraded secondary schools is deeply rooted in the perceptions they had of the non-traditional high schools. The upgraded schools now accommodate those students who were not selected by the CEE as well as those selected by the CEE.

Although there is general satisfaction that more places have been created and more children are now "passing" the CEE, there is still discontent among CEE scholars who are placed in the upgraded schools (Thompson, 1994). This is despite the fact that distinctions are made with regard to curriculum structure for the CEE and non-CEE scholars. Specifically, CEE scholars are streamlined to specific classes and have a more rigorous curriculum. However, the High schools still only accommodate those students who were selected by the CEE. Therefore they continue to enjoy elite status while the new upgraded "high" schools continue to be perceived in a negative light. Hence, students who "pass" the CEE and their parents still perceive the High schools to be of a higher standard. Parents whose children now gain what was formerly a coveted High school place by way of the CEE, resent their children being educated with those who "failed" the CEE (Thompson, 1994). Because of the public's doubtful view of these "new" schools, in recent times, members of Parliament have attempted to allay the fears of parents that their children will not receive the same level of education in the upgraded schools as they would in High school (Personal correspondence).

From the foregoing it is clear that research is needed to examine the self-

perception of CEE students who attend the newly upgraded schools and those who attend the academic High Schools. One might anticipate that students' perceptions of themselves may be related to the type of school they attend. It may also be useful to examine the academic performance of students who attend both kinds of school, since both groups have "passed" the CEE and the upgraded schools offer the same courses as the High schools. Students' attendance at these schools may affect their performance and how they perceive themselves.

Purpose of the Study

Research relevant to the Jamaican system of secondary education and the manner in which children are made to feel about themselves when they fail to gain a High school place are needed. According to Thompson (1993), students' sense of inferiority when placed in the New Secondary schools caused them to acquire a mental image which derailed the psyche to perform. Research on the relationship of school type on self-esteem and academic performance of the children who attend upgraded schools is lacking. The present educational system seems to foster the development of positive self-esteem for those students who attend the High schools. On the other hand, it may contribute to promoting an atmosphere conducive to the development of negative self-esteem in those students who attend the other forms of secondary schools (Smith, 1993). In support of this argument, Smith compared self-esteem of students in three types of secondary schools in the island. Results showed a higher self-esteem in those students

who attended the traditional High schools compared to those in the other types of secondary schools. However, that study pre-dated the restructuring of the New Secondary schools. Also, the Smith study failed to differentiate between those students who passed the CEE and those who did not. It may be that students attending the upgraded schools lack the motivation to succeed which in turn may lead to development of low self-esteem.

The purpose of the present study is to examine the self-esteem of students in two types of secondary schools; Traditional and Non-traditional high (upgraded) schools in Jamaica. The study is primarily concerned with three groups of students; (1) students who have "passed" the CEE and currently attend High school, (2) students who passed the CEE and attend the newly upgraded schools, and (3) those students who failed the CEE but attend school alongside CEE scholars in the upgraded schools. The study will also examine the academic achievement and self-esteem of all three groups under investigation. Research findings will further the understanding of Jamaican adolescents' self-esteem and provide information concerning the type of school they attend and whether schooltype affect students' perceptions of self and academic performance.

Assumptions

The study is conducted on the assumption that;

1. the sample chosen is a true representation of the population under investigation.

2. the subjects share similar characteristics on all variables.
3. the responses given are a true reflection of the self-perception of the subject under investigation.
4. the level of difficulty of examinations used to determine students' academic performance is similar across all schools under investigation

Limitations of the Study

The researcher tried to select variables directly linked to the study. However, the study may be limited in some areas. Schools could not be randomly selected in all cases, for example in selecting schools to satisfy rural and urban locations, random selection was not possible as there are not enough traditional high schools from which to choose in the rural areas. Therefore, the researcher had to choose only those schools that are available. However, schools in the urban areas were randomly selected as there are more to choose from. This might affect internal validity as randomization could not be guaranteed for all schools.

Subjects in non-traditional high schools were selected by stratified sampling as not all students are CEE scholars which may affect internal validity of the study. Measurement of academic performance based on students' performance in internally administered examinations may not be the most reliable method of determining differences in academic performance, as there is no guarantee that these examinations are done at the same level of difficulty across all schools under investigation. Using an

externally administered examination such as the Caribbean Examination Council (CXC), might have been a more reliable method, but not all of the newly converted schools have students taking this examination due to the newness of these schools. The CXC is administered at the end of five years in high schools, the level of difficulty is the same across all schools and students work from a common curriculum in preparation for this examination. Some of the newly converted schools have not been in existence for five years, therefore students who attend these schools have not yet taken the external examination. Selecting only those non-traditional high schools which have been in existence for over five years, would not have provided a wide enough selection of rural versus urban high schools since many of these newly converted schools are located in urban areas. It was important to select schools from both rural and urban areas as school location is a variable in this study.

Due to the time limit in conducting this research, it was not possible to study these groups over an extended period of time to examine how self-esteem and academic performance may change over time among the same subjects. As a result, this was a one time study which looked only at existing conditions. Research has shown that self-esteem varies at different periods in ones' lifetime (Franzen, 1988). Other limitations of the study include the researcher's inability to control for extraneous variables such as teacher quality, physical facilities in schools, attendance, students' motivational factors towards achievement, and students' study habits. Statistical errors were controlled for by selecting a .05 probability level in computing results.

Definition of Terms

1. **Academic Achievement:** refers to students' performance in internal examinations administered by the individual schools. An average of the mid-year and end-of-year examinations determined the academic performance for this group.
2. **Common Entrance Examination (CEE):** a standardized examination taken at the final year in the primary school and which is used to select students for High schools. Formerly used to select students for the traditional High schools only, it is now used to select for the newly upgraded schools as well.
3. **Non-traditional High Schools:** The term refers to the newly converted high schools in this study.
4. **Self-esteem:** Refers to the perception of self-worth. Self-esteem is an umbrella term for those characteristics people believe about themselves. They may be positive or negative. In this context, self-esteem is measured across 11 domains of the psychosocial adjustment. It is assumed that individuals perform at varying levels in different aspects of their functioning.
6. **Traditional High Schools:** The term refers to academically oriented high schools patterned after the British Colonial system of education. These schools cater to students 10-17 years old. They enjoy noticeably higher prestige than all other forms of secondary schools on the island.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter presents a brief history of high schooling in Jamaica to help the reader understand the structure of the Jamaican educational system and to understand its possible impact on the formation of self-esteem and academic performance of Jamaican students. There is also a review of related literature regarding self-esteem, its development in relationship to academic achievement and the implications for the Jamaican educational system

History of High Schooling in Jamaica

Academic high schools were formed in Jamaica in the early seventeenth century for the children of the British overseers of the sugar plantations. The trend had been for plantation overseers to send their children to England to study. However, because most of these overseers could not afford to send their children back to England, they needed local schools to educate them. These schools were either owned and operated by the churches or were trust schools (Miller, 1988). Trust schools were operated through endowment funds from benefactors. Miller (1990) traced the development of secondary education in Jamaica between 1879 to 1911, and contended that it was in this period of Jamaican history that many of the High schools were established. These High schools were established through legislation by the British Privy Council which gave the Jamaica Schools Commission (Corporate body established in 1879) the responsibility for

secondary education on the island.

Miller (1986) further contended that the Jamaican educational structure in the post-emancipation period (1834 - 1865) reflected the pluralism of the Jamaican society at that time. Hence the segregation of the ethnic groups in the society at large was also reflected in the institutional practices of the education system. Although slavery had already been abolished during that period, only elementary education was offered freely to the Blacks (secondary education had to be paid for). Higher education was offered along ethnic lines through endowed and religious denominational groups; Whites and other light-skinned people attended the Endowed schools while the Blacks attended the religious denominational schools for which they paid fees. Interestingly, both types of High schools (endowed and denominational), offered the same type of education (Miller, 1986).

The first premier government High school in the island was the Jamaica High School in St. Andrew which offered the highest level of education available locally. Other secondary schools were operated by the churches and through endowments. During this period only whites and a few light-skinned children were allowed access to these schools. By 1865, many of the academic high schools which were operated by the churches or by trusts from benefactors were taken over by the government and the Commission given responsibility for them. According to Miller (1990) during the period 1879 to 1911, free education became an integral part of secondary education as the endowed schools were required by law to admit at least 20% of their enrollments as

"foundationers". Foundationers were students who received secondary education free of charge. By 1890, all endowed schools were converted to High schools with the State assuming responsibility for all recurrent expenses of elementary education. In 1892 the government passed the Secondary Education Law which provided for the establishment of secondary schools in any important center of population declared by the Governor in Privy Council (Miller, 1990). The State also introduced free elementary education, abolished school fees, and introduced an education tax. These dynamics effectively rendered elementary education accessible to groups other than Whites, but high school education continued to be out of reach of those groups. By the early 1900's the government made primary school education compulsory for children 6 to 12 years old. However, with the Government controlling the establishment of secondary schools, some parishes were underserved. Rural parishes such as St. Ann, St. Mary, Trelawny and St. Thomas had no government or endowed schools. Therefore, residents in these parishes were left with an inadequate number of High schools, a trend which continues up to the present time. With fewer High schools in the rural areas, the competition to gain entry to High school continues to be greater than in the urban areas where there are a greater number of secondary schools.

As previously stated, High school education was accessible to some non-whites by the early nineteenth century because endowed schools were required by law to admit up to 20% of their enrollments as foundationers. However, the majority of poor children (and in effect the majority of the population) were unable to access high school

education. First, there was a limited number of places available and secondly, the populace could not afford the price of such education. In 1957, the Common Entrance Examination (CEE) was introduced to select students for High schools. In the early years after the institution of the CEE, students were offered full or half scholarships via the examination. A "half" scholarship meant that the parents were required to pay half the costs of the tuition at the particular school, while a full scholarship meant that students did not pay tuition. The CEE is attributed with opening up opportunities for many poor children to gain entry to High schools. According to Phillips (1973) and Smith (1993), it successfully helped to reduce social and class barriers in accessing High school education since selection is made on students' performance on the examination and not on their economic or ethnic backgrounds. However, despite its positive contributions to the educational system, the CEE has been, and continues to be plagued with many problems since as already noted in chapter one, not all children are allowed to take this examination.

The Jamaican Dynamics

Several studies have examined the routes children take to access high school education in Jamaica. According to Hamilton (1979) during the early period of the establishment of the Common Entrance Examination (CEE), it became evident that candidates from private preparatory schools, which represent the upper and middle echelons in the society, had a significantly better chance of securing a High school place

than did those students from the government primary schools. Nunes (1976) reported that in 1961, 84,000 candidates from the public primary schools, and 4,000 candidates from the preparatory schools took the CEE. At that time a total of 2,133 scholarships were awarded; 978 (46%) to the primary schools and 1,155 (54%) to the preparatory schools. Currently, more children attend the government primary schools than private preparatory schools; 98% attend primary, compared to 2% who attend the preparatory schools (Thompson, 1994). Preparatory schools are fee-paying private schools which cater to the middle and upper social classes and perpetuate social distinctions in the Jamaican educational system and children's access to quality education (Hamilton, 1979). Hamilton (1979) pointed out that despite the stated purpose of the CEE, there is a direct relationship between social class and success in the CEE. Miller (1971) in addressing the concept of "status-schooling" in Jamaica, further supported this premise and pointed to distinct social strata in contemporary Jamaican society and maintained that there is a high correlation between the educational structure and social stratification. According to Miller, High schools cater to the higher social strata and other secondary schools to the lower. These dynamics apparently add to the pressure on children to gain access to High schools. This is because, as previously stated, attendance at these prestigious High schools ensures a way of escaping poverty and climbing the social ladder (UNESCO, 1983).

Further support on the problems of the CEE and High schooling comes from Mair-Fisher (1983) who examined the effectiveness of the CEE over a thirty year period

and reported that prior to the implementation of the CEE, the student body of single-sex schools comprised mainly upper and middle class children. In 1962, (five years after the implementation of the CEE), the middle class group increased in attendance, but it was not until the introduction of the 70/30 policy in 1972 that more students from the lower social class were admitted. The 70/30 policy mandated that 70% of the high school places be awarded to the candidates from the primary schools and 30% to those from the preparatory schools. The 70/30 policy was implemented to address the problem of inequality of numbers of children attending high schools based on type of school from which they came, that is, public primary and private preparatory schools. As previously noted, the trend had been for more students from the private preparatory schools to gain more high school places than those from the primary schools. Fisher (1983) noted that in 1952, 85% of the high schools comprised of upper and middle class children, whereas, in 1982, these socio-economic groups accounted for only 40% of the students. This would suggest that the 70/30 policy effectively rendered more High school places available to the lower social class. However, Nunes (1976) contended that this 70/30 policy reflected social justice rather than educational merit. He bemoaned the fact that this policy allowed the government to effectively reallocate the scholarships rather than increase the number of scholarships. In this way more poor children would benefit from the scholarship system. However, this policy was abandoned in 1974 when it was discovered that entrants from the primary schools were securing more than 70% of the available high school places (Leo-Rhynie, 1987).

Thirty-eight years after its implementation the CEE continues to be plagued by problems. As stated earlier, success in the CEE and eventually High school usually means moving up the social ladder. Therefore, teachers go to great lengths to prepare students that they select for this examination. "Cram" classes are held before and after school and during holidays (Campbell, 1995). The preparation is so intense that one recent newspaper article described it as "gruelling" (Jobes, 1996). The pressure to gain entry to a High school is so fierce that students not selected through the CEE perceive themselves as failures. Many psychologists and educators contend that students who enter the other forms of secondary schools are apt to suffer from low self-esteem because of the stigma attached to those schools (UNESCO Report, 1983; Smith, 1993). As previously noted, children at a very early age begin to realize the importance of being selected to attend High school. As early as the primary grades children in preparation for this examination, are drilled, bribed, threatened and corporally punished by teachers, parents, and guardians (Nemhard, 1994). Children get feedback quite early that those who do not pass the CEE (and attend High school) will not amount to much. However, research has shown that threat usually has the opposite effect from that which is desired. A threatened child is a frightened child and a frightened child stops learning because fear reduces the capacity to learn (Bills, 1967). Therefore, children may end up defending themselves against this fear. Bills (1967) indicated that children in fearful situations mobilize all their energies into defending the self.

Pressure to succeed in the CEE might also create emotional problems for

Jamaican children. Not only do students who "fail" this examination suffer at the expense of the system that fails to provide sufficient High school places (or to provide a better system of education to those who enter the other forms of secondary schools), but they suffer much emotional and verbal abuse from parents and other family members. In fact, there have been reported incidences of suicide and attempted suicide by students who failed to gain high school places via this examination. According to Nemhard (1994) Jamaican children perceive that their parents' love for them depends on their success in the CEE.

The problems of accessing High school education becomes more compounded with the current "upgrading" of some secondary schools. The CEE which once placed students in the prestigious High schools is now placing them in less prestigious schools, even when children are successful in the national examination. Therefore, the dynamics of the system might affect the self-esteem of those CEE scholars who are placed in the newly upgraded schools. These schools are still held in low esteem by the public.

Development of Self-esteem

The "self" generally refers to the initiating center of organization within one's personality. Self-esteem is the evaluative component (and probably the most important aspect) of the self-concept. The self-concept is a collection of beliefs about one's own nature, unique qualities, and typical behavior, while self-esteem refers specifically to one's self-evaluations- that is, one's judgements about one's own worth. Therefore, self-

esteem refers to the positive or negative attitudes one has towards the self and contributes to the individual's overall assessment of worth as a person (Verkuyten, 1988; Dusek, 1977).

The self-esteem develops in part from being able to perceive oneself as competent. Perceived competence reflects individuals' beliefs about their abilities to succeed at particular tasks (Marshall, 1989). According to White (1959) feelings of competence result from being able to act effectively and master one's environment. White further states that when one's capacities are stretched to new heights, one feels competent. Further, a positive self-esteem implies that a person accepts and respects the self in spite of being aware of shortcomings. A negative self-esteem on the other hand, means that the individual has difficulties coping with stress and life's difficulties (Isberg et al., 1988).

It is theorized that individuals have an enduring set of psychological tendencies which are revealed in the course of their interactions with various social environments (Berryman, 1992). These interactions play a major role in helping the individual develop a sense of self-worth and competence. Mead (1925, p. 268), stated that "we appear as selves in our conduct in so far as we ourselves take the attitude that others take toward us." Therefore, individuals internalize the ideas and attitudes expressed by key figures in their lives. In other words, individuals observe the actions, and attitudes of significant others and express them as their own. More specifically, Mead noted that individuals respond to the self and develop self-attitudes consistent with those expressed by the

significant others in their world. By internalizing the attitudes of significant others toward the self, individuals regard and demean the self to the extent that those important people in their lives reject, ignore, or demean them. They gradually become social beings in their own experiences and act towards the self in a manner analogous to that in which they act towards others (Mead, 1925). Given that the opinion of significant others also has a major impact on self-esteem, one may ask who those significant others might be.

Mead's formulation of the self-esteem also supports the social construct of self development. Mead contended that the sense of self is largely derived from the reflected appraisal of others. Consequently, if individuals place a high value on themselves, it follows that there have been key persons in their lives who treated them with concern and respect. If they perceive the self as incompetent and worthless, then significant others have treated them as inferior. Therefore, the attitude of peers and adults toward children can raise or lower children's self-esteem. Similar sentiments were expressed by Rosenberg (1979), who also linked the formation of the self-esteem to one's self evaluation and the evaluation of others, especially those close to the individual. Further, Hamacheck (1971) contended that the social environment influences individuals' feeling of worthiness or unworthiness, approval or disapproval.

Other theorists such as Harry Sullivan (1970), Karen Horney (1945, 1950), and Alfred Adler (1927), have agreed that self-esteem is a social construction but have viewed the concept from different angles. For example, Sullivan accepted Mead's interpretation of the social origins of personality but proceeded to explain the

interpersonal processes involved. Sullivan argued that in an effort to protect the self-esteem, individuals continually guard the self against its loss, it is the loss which produces feelings of distress such as anxiety. Anxiety occurs when the individual expects to be or is rejected by one's own self or others. Therefore, it is assumed that persons with low self-esteem have had negative experiences with significant others and perceive derogation in their present circumstances. Because self-esteem is so important to the individual, Sullivan contended that individuals learn to diminish or thwart threats to their self-esteem.

Horney (1945, 1950) supported the theory of individuals warding off self-demeaning feelings. However, she noted a wide range of adverse factors that are likely to produce feelings of helplessness, isolation, and anxiety which are all associated with low self-esteem. She argued that factors such as indifference, lack of respect, lack of admiration, and lack of warmth produced low self-esteem. Horney concluded that the common antecedent of all these conditions is a disturbance in the relationship between parent and child.

William James (1890), posited that human values and aspirations determine whether individuals value themselves. Therefore, if achievement approaches or meets aspirations in a valued area of functioning, the result is high self-esteem. If there is wide divergence, individuals regard themselves poorly. As a result, success in areas judged unimportant to the individual would have little impact on the self-esteem. For example, if an individual values and achieves popularity that construct would determine how much

the individual likes himself/herself as a person. On the contrary, if high achievement is valued but not reached, the result is low self-esteem.

Other, social learning theorists have also shown the significance of social environments on the development of children's personality (Bandura, 1977; Rotter, 1982). Theoretical work dating back to Cooley (1902) emphasized the importance of social acceptance or approbation as determinants of self-concept. Evidence to that position comes from more recent research indicating that support from parents and friends significantly correlates with adolescents' self-esteem and wellbeing (Burke & Weir; 1979; Greenberg et al; 1983; O'Donnell, 1976). Siddique and D'Arcy (1984) analyzed mental health consequences of stress in a sample of 1,038 Canadian adolescents. The study looked at the relationship between perceived stress in family, school, and peer group situations, and four aspects of psychosocial wellbeing (anxiety, depression, social dysfunction and anergia). Results indicated that family stress had the strongest negative impact on adolescents' self-esteem and wellbeing. O'Donnell (1976) and Greenberg et al. (1983) researched the potential importance of social orientations or preferences in the study of self-esteem formation during adolescence. Both studies found a positive correlation between self-esteem and adolescents' feelings of trust in their relations with parents and peers.

Research findings further indicated that adolescents gravitated toward help from peers when that of their parents was not forthcoming or indifferent. This relationship seems to suggest that support from friends become particularly valuable when parental

support is absent, but have less effect when it is present (Iacovetta, 1975; Larson, 1972; Smith, 1976). Lieu (1992), examined general self-esteem in adolescents and concluded that self-definitions are shaped during the course of social interaction under the influences of various responses and sanctions from interpersonal networks. Further support for the importance of self-esteem comes from Elmore (1994) who stated that self-esteem increases when students receive social and emotional support from parents, teachers, and others in their environment.

Social comparison theory proposes that people need to compare themselves with others in order to gain insight into their own behavior (Festinger, 1954; Goethals & Darley, 1977). Festinger suggested that people have a drive to evaluate themselves objectively or, if objective comparisons are unavailable, to evaluate themselves in comparison with others. He further contended that people will actively seek information to evaluate their abilities and opinions. Morse and Gergen (1970) posited that comparing oneself to someone inferior will lead to higher self-esteem, whereas comparing oneself to someone superior will lead to lower self-esteem. Although, these comparisons were done on the basis of physical appearance the results may be generalized to other domains of the self-esteem. From the foregoing arguments it is clear that individuals tend to view themselves the way they think others see them. Therefore, one's self-esteem is incumbent on the feedback the individuals receive from their environment. It appears that the more positive the feedback, the better the self-esteem.

Importance of Self-esteem

The achievement of a favorable attitude toward the self is salient to the psychosocial adjustment and personality of individuals (Rogers, 1951; Murphy, 1954; Adler, 1927). Research findings have indicated that persons with high self-esteem have higher levels of psychosocial adjustment, and hence exhibit a propensity toward responsible behaviors. While persons with low self-esteem tend to exhibit a propensity to antisocial behaviors such as criminal activities, premature sexual involvement, and drug use. Research also indicated that people with unfavorable self-esteem tend to develop more emotional problems than people with high self-esteem (Fitts, 1972; Rosenberg, 1985; & Wylie, 1979). These behavioral manifestations include, delinquency and conduct problems, drug abuse, alcohol abuse, and eating disorders (Harter, 1991; Dukes & Lorch, 1989). Low self-esteem may also lead to higher rates of school dropouts, delinquency and teenage pregnancy (Smith, 1993). For example, Samuels (1977), in a review of the empirical research found that individuals with high self-esteem were happier and more effective in meeting environmental demands than are persons with low self-esteem. Persons with low self-esteem tended to be withdrawn and displayed consistent feelings of distress. Moore & Schultz (1983) also found that adolescents with low self-esteem exhibited higher levels of anxiety, depression, irritability, aggressiveness, feelings of resentment and alienation, unhappiness, insomnia, and psychosomatic symptoms. On the other hand, adolescents who have high self-esteem are likely to be less lonely (Moore & Schultz, 1983), less vulnerable in negative interpersonal

relationships (Rosenberg, 1965), more likely to attribute success in opposite-sex relationships to their own ability and effort (Girodo, Dotzenroth & Stein, 1981), and more willing to take social risks (Moore and Schultz, 1983). Further, individuals with low self-esteem are more at risk to behavioral disorders such as depression, lack of motivation or energy, and suicidal tendencies. Hoffman (1992) mentioned that students with high self-esteem are more motivated to succeed by social ambition and less by fear of rejection. Hoffman investigated the influence of self-esteem on the use of status considerations as determinants of interpersonal acceptance among 722 Israeli students aged 12-13 years, from integrated junior high schools. Results revealed that high self-esteem respondents indicated a preference for targets of higher educational levels. Low self-esteem subjects also expressed preference for high status others, but at a reduced level. The author concluded that high self-esteem individuals were more likely to see themselves as equal to higher status others than were their low self-esteem counterparts.

Other emotional problems which accompany low self-esteem include shyness, social awkwardness and self-consciousness and vulnerability to rejection (Cheek & Buss, 1981; Rosenberg, 1985). Baron (1974) and Wylie (1979) found that people who have negative self-esteem were less likely to like other people. They tended to look for flaws in others and "tear them down". The authors contended that disparaging others allowed low self-esteem individuals to feel better about themselves when they make social comparisons. Therefore, they tended to relate to others in negative ways, thereby courting rejection and compounding their emotional problems.

Research also indicate that people with low self-esteem tend to form relationships with others who help to perpetuate their low self-esteem. Kohn (1994), found that people with low self-esteem prefer or even seek out others with low self-esteem. This he attributed to their desire to want to be able to predict and control the responses of others. He also found that people with low self-esteem tended to withdraw from others who approved of them favorably. Kohn further concluded that people with low self-esteem lack the skills to recognize the kind of feedback that would let them know what they are doing wrong. This, he suggested led to a perpetuation of negative behaviors and corresponding low self-esteem.

Parental Influence on Self-esteem

Parents are the most significant people in the lives of young children. This is because parents are the ones with whom young children spend the majority of their time (Samuels, 1977). Therefore, parents are the first "significant others" in the lives of children. Consequently, parents play the major role in the development of self-esteem in young children. Theory and empirical research have suggested that a child's self-esteem is related to the way children perceive they are viewed by parents. For example, studies have shown an association between parents' views of children and the concept children have of themselves. Wylie (1979) and Reitzes & Mutran (1980) studied the relationships between formulations of self and significant others among 396 college sophomores, juniors, and seniors at a large Midwestern State University and found that perceived

importance of significant others, directly influenced self-esteem. Individuals with higher self-esteem had greater support from significant others compared to individuals with low self-esteem. Research further showed that children imitate their parents' feelings toward them ("modeling theory"). Therefore, children tend to identify with their parents' reactions towards them early in life. The development of the self is thought to be formed within the context of early familial interactions (generally one's parents), and later moving to others outside the family who provide nurturance, strength, and soothing (Kohut, 1977, 1984; Robins & Patton, 1995). However, Harter (1990) noted that as children grow older, there appears to be a developmental shift in the amount of influence parents have on children's self-esteem. For example, during early and middle childhood, children's self-esteem are almost exclusively linked to parental attitudes toward them. However, during adolescence, classmate and peer support become more important to the self-esteem. By the college years, peers surpass parents in their impact on self-esteem. That is one reason why parental support means so much to children and has such an extraordinary effect on children's self-esteem. Sullivan (1970) posited that early familial experiences play an important role in the formation of an individual's self-esteem. He further stated that a healthy relationship between parents and children form the bases of self-esteem.

Self-esteem is enhanced through positive feedback from parents and other family members. The feedback children receive from significant others influences their perceptions of themselves. Parental feedback comes about through approval or

disapproval, much of which children internalize. As children grow older, feedback from a much wider array of people such as peers and teachers becomes significant. The peer group is very influential and friends play an important role in the development of self-esteem (Smollar & Younis, 1985; Harter, 1990). It is the belief of some psychologists that because of increased divorce rates and two-income families, currently peer groups are exercising more influence on children than in the past. Many adolescents are no longer nested in an intact family, so the stresses on them are greater. As a result, they are more at the mercies of their peers than they were say twenty years ago (Youth Problems, 1994). According to Edward Weaver, Director of the American Public Welfare Association, at the present time "parents are caught in a crunch of conflicting values, they value children, but they also value time for themselves, material goods, status and careers." (Youth Problems, 1994, p.6). Given these conflicts, parents may tend to neglect children, which leaves them at the mercy of their peers who tend to dictate what is acceptable behavior.

Street (1988) examined the relationship between self-esteem and the feedback high school seniors received. Students evaluated themselves on ten personal traits. Results indicated a strong relationship between feedback and self-esteem for all traits. Marshall (1989) further showed that parents' expectations may influence children's self-esteem through providing opportunities for children to learn and develop competence. For example, if adults believe that some children can do or learn more than others, they may furnish additional materials for these children. Parents also provide feedback

through subtle cues which children eventually come to perceive by reading environmental cues. Young children generally hold higher expectations of themselves than adults hold of them (Weinstein, Marshall, Botkin & Sharp, 1987). Elmore (1994), further posited that self-esteem increase when students receive social and emotional support from parents, teachers and others in their environment. Therefore the need for parents to foster positive support for children is of utmost importance (Ryan; Van-Tassel & Elmore, 1994).

The idea of children having a positive self-esteem is a modern concept (Katz, 1988). In the past children were not encouraged to develop positive self-esteem for fear of becoming conceited, self-conscious and eager for praise. Although this belief is less pervasive today many adults continue to use child rearing methods which may be deleterious to children's self-esteem. Contemporary research shows that children need positive reinforcements for optimal emotional development (Berryman, 1992; Ryan, Van-Tassel and Elmore, 1994). Franzen (1988), in reviewing empirical research, showed the harmful effects of emotional and verbal derogation on children's self-esteem when parents (sometimes) unknowingly berate their children believing this to be a form of discipline. According to Franzen, parental gratification affects how children feel about themselves. Parental gratification comes about when parents expect their children to be an extension of themselves and to fulfill their goals. Self-esteem is lowered when the child feels he or she is appreciated only when pleasing the parents. Many experts believe this to be the most pervasive and subtle form of emotional abuse, and have a devastating

effect on children's feelings of how competent they are. The child treated in this way is not valued as a person with rights, feelings or interests of his own. Further support on parental influences on children's and adolescents' self-esteem comes from Bachman, (1970); Block, (1985); Coopersmith, (1967); Gecas, (1972); Loeb et al, (1980); Macoby & Martin, (1983) and Rosenberg, (1985). These researchers found that child rearing practices which promote parental acceptance, interest, closeness, warmth and respect have positive influences on children's self-esteem. The research literature further implied that child rearing practices such as showing interest, closeness, warmth, and respect positively influenced children's and adolescents' self-esteem. Coopersmith (1967) examined the relationship between children's reports of self-esteem and their mothers' reports of parenting in 10-11 year olds. He concluded that acceptance of the children by their parents, and respect for individual action were important to children's self-esteem. Further, Rosenberg (1963) found that teenagers recollections of extreme parental indifference during childhood were associated with low self-esteem in adolescence. Bachman (1970) surveyed 2,200 tenth grade boys and found that boys' reports of parental closeness, communication, respect and low punitiveness predicted self-esteem more strongly than any other family or individual background variable.

Other empirical studies have also examined the theoretical models of parents' role in the development of self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1979; Schrauger & Schoeneman, 1979). Rogers' (1951) interpersonal theory stressed that self-image develops out of interaction with the environment: children come to respect and gain assurance in themselves when

parents accept the views and values of the child. From the foregoing literature review and empirical studies, it is obvious that parental feedback greatly influences children's self-esteem. This may also be true in the Jamaican situation wherein parents tend to treat those children who pass the CEE with more regards than those who failed. Those who pass receive the feedback that they are brilliant and have potential for academic success, while those who fail are made to feel inferior to their peers. Therefore, one may infer that parental feedback influences children's self-esteem.

Self-esteem and Academic Achievement

Lecky (1945) was one of the first investigators to study the relationship between self-concept and school achievement. In one study, Lecky noticed that some students made the same number of spelling errors on each page, regardless of the varying difficulties of the words. He concluded that students' responses were based on how they felt they could spell rather than their actual spelling ability. Since then, a wide range of research examining the relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement has been undertaken. For example, Brookover (1964) investigated the relationship between self-concept and Grade Point Average (GPA) in a sample of 1,050 seventh graders. He reported that students who had higher GPA also displayed higher levels of self-esteem. Wiggins (1994) also found positive correlation between self-esteem and Grade Point Average (GPA) of elementary school children in Iowa, USA. The author reported that students with high self-esteem in one year also had significantly higher GPA in the

following year. Similar findings were made by Rosenberg (1989) who also found a link between low self-esteem and low academic achievement in US sample. Other studies between self-esteem and academic achievement have consistently shown a moderate to strong correlation between the two variables (Brookover & Palasqua, 1981; Brookover, Patterson & Thomas, 1992; Skaalvik, 1982). Keltikangas-Jarvinen (1992) measured students' self-esteem and GPA on entering and graduating from high school and found that at graduation high self-esteem correlated with high GPA. Carr (1991) also found higher self-esteem and academic achievement to be characteristic of students who had more positive beliefs about their need to perform. Underachievers, on the other hand, displayed negative images about themselves.

Cross cultural studies have also supported the connection between self-esteem and academic achievement. For example, one study undertaken in Uganda has shown a relationship between Language and Mathematics competency and self-esteem irrespective of gender, ethnic group representation and location (Heynemen, 1979). In addition, Maqsood (1983) studied self-esteem and academic performance in Mathematics and English Language of Botswana students. Results indicated that self-esteem significantly positively correlated to measures of achievement in English and Mathematics. The author concluded that higher self-esteem is significantly related to better performance in Mathematics and English Language and maintained that a change in self-esteem was associated with a similar change in academic performance. Atherly (1990) studied the effects of academic achievement and self-esteem of middle school

children in England and found that higher ability students displayed higher levels of self-esteem, while lower ability students displayed lower levels of self-esteem. The author further concluded that teachers' attitudes may have a significant effect on students' self-esteem. Skaalvik (1983) studied perceived achievement in school in general, and in Mathematics and verbal areas of 352 Norwegian students. He reported that students with low self-esteem tended to be less successful academically. From the preceding studies it is clear there is a positive link between self-esteem and academic performance.

Some researchers have speculated that students might cognitively compensate for feelings of low self-esteem by developing "failure-avoiding" tactics when they have low expectations of success (Jones, 1973; Lecky, 1945). These tactics may motivate them to work harder and to be more successful. Clever (1992) supported this argument by maintaining that students with low ability tended to develop mechanisms to protect their self-worth, therefore it is difficult to determine if there are differences in self-esteem between low ability students and normal students. Clever concluded that problems associated with students low self-esteem also impact on students' ability to perform well in schools.

It would appear that deficiency in self-esteem contribute significantly to academic underachievement in children. The converse appears to be true for positive self-esteem and high academic achievement (Brookover, Erickson & Joiner, 1967; Bruck & Bodwin, 1962; Cole, 1974). What is less clear is the nature of the relationship. Research to date does not allow any firm conclusion about the causal ordering of self-esteem and academic

achievement (Byrne, 1984; 1986). Although it may be argued that academic achievement and self-esteem have reciprocal effects the exact effect is not known. Therefore, the controversy continues, does high self-esteem cause higher academic achievement, or does higher academic achievement result in high self-esteem? Regardless of the effect, many educators view the growth of self-esteem as a desirable goal of education and the achievement of academic competence (Potterbaum, Keith & Eahly, 1986; Scheirer & Kraut, 1979). From the studies reviewed here, it is apparent that self-esteem and academic achievement are related across cultures. Therefore, it is logical to expect the same relationship to be found in a Jamaican sample.

Self-esteem, Academic Achievement, and Gender

The literature on the relationship between gender and self-esteem has produced conflicting results. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) reviewed over 30 comparative studies on gender and self-esteem, and concluded there were no consistent gender differences in self-esteem. While, a substantial number of studies have shown lower self-esteem in females (Alpert-Gillis & Connell, 1989; Cate & Sugawara, 1986; Martinez & Dukes, 1987; Richman, Clarke, & Brown, 1985; F.R. Rosenberg & Simmons, 1982), others have indicated that self-esteem of females is at least as high as that of males (Kohn, Coldiron, Skiffington, Masters & Blust, 1988). However, research studies have overwhelmingly shown males to have higher self-esteem and better academic achievement than females. Evidence also suggested that men have higher evaluations of themselves than do women

on self-related indicators such as feelings of purpose in life (Harlow, Newcomb, & Bentler, 1986; Jenks, Kahane, Bobinski, & Piermarini, Meir & Edwards, 1974). In addition, Lobel (1993) found gender differences relating to self-esteem and academic achievement among Kibbutz children living in Israel. Females tended to display lower self-esteem and academic ability than did the males. Reis (1991) also found that females displayed lower levels of self-esteem and academic achievement. The author attributed this to the pressures of society on the gender roles assigned to them (caregiving roles). While males are socialized to be providers and to be more assertive and driven to success, females are expected to be submissive and attend to the needs of the family and the household chores (duties which are not considered to need much critical thinking). Verkuyten (1986) examined 207 students in Rotterdam, Netherlands using the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and found significant gender differences with lowered self-esteem. Girls had lower self-esteem than boys. Maqsdud (1991) in examining the relationship between self-esteem and academic performance of Botswana students, also found that Mathematics scores for males were significantly higher than for females. Males also scored higher than females on self-esteem.

The issue of gender, self-esteem and academic achievement is relevant to the study because of the unique dynamics relating to gender and schooling in Jamaica. In Jamaican High schools girls consistently outnumber and outperform boys. More girls than boys receive academic awards and recognition at the end of secondary school level (Miller, 1986). This trend continues even into the tertiary level where female enrollment

in degree programs at the local university (The University Of The West Indies, Mona.) is 53.9% compared to 46.1% for males (Miller, 1986). Miller (1986), stated that "Jamaica is one of the few countries in the world where there are more illiterate males than females." (p.5). However, the reason behind these dynamics can be explained. Traditionally, more girls than boys gain scholarships to high schools via the CEE. This led the government to make adjustments to ensure boys received approximately equal numbers of High school places as girls. Therefore, it is assumed that girls must perform higher than boys to gain access (Leo-Rhynie, 1987). This action, it would seem, has led to further lower performance among boys in High school than among girls. Girls in Jamaica have been reported to perform at a higher academic level than boys (Hamilton, 1979; Leo-Rhynie, 1987). The policy of giving boys more access to High school than high performing girls has been criticized by both Miller (1986) and Leo-Rhynie (1987). Miller, in support of this action, proposed that equal numbers of high school places be given to boys and girls each year. This perspective he based on his "Marginalization Theory" in which he claimed that; " the interacting socializing influences of the school, home, and church reinforce each other to increasingly socialize Black boys to accept marginality as a way of life" (Miller, 1986, p 5). Leo-Rhynie on the other hand, expressed strong disagreement with Miller's theory and in defense stated that:

If the number of high school places currently available to girls is reduced, or if additional places are created for boys only, then many girls who are performing at a higher level (and who, it can be assumed, are more qualified than boys to participate in a High school education) will be refused that opportunity
(Leo-Rhynie, 1987. p.80).

Although conventional wisdom might lead one to expect boys to have higher self-esteem

than girls, one might argue that since self-esteem is related to academic performance and vice versa, and since girls in the Jamaican context outperform boys, girls will display higher self-esteem and higher academic scores than boys.

At least one study directly supports this hypothesis. Seaton (1980) examined the relationship of selected motivational variables to "A" level (GCE Advanced level examination taken in the highest level of High school) achievement scores of Jamaican students and reported girls to be significantly more successful than boys. This the author attributed to the fact that Jamaican girls had a wider education base than boys. However, boys specialized earlier in subjects and were more certain of their career goals than girls. Gender differences in academic performance were also reported by Leo-Rhynie (1978) and Edwards (1982). The authors studied career aspirations of Jamaican 6th formers, and found that boys held higher career aspirations than girls, and were more certain of their career goals. However, much of these assertions are based on speculation and theory rather than on empirical research. Therefore, research is needed to empirically test those hypotheses.

Self-esteem, Academic Achievement, and Geographic Location

Based on the early history of the development of High schools in Jamaica, many rural areas are underserved (Miller, 1988). As a result, fewer high school places are available in these areas and rural children stand less chance of getting a high school place than their urban counterparts, even when they display similar or higher academic ability.

Moreover, the passing grade for children in the rural area is different from those in the urban areas. Rural children must gain higher scores to gain entry to High schools. Therefore, this might imply that rural children who gain access to High schools may be more academically brilliant than CEE scholars in the urban areas and have higher achievement scores than their urban peers. It can also be argued that the rural children who access the limited number of high school places may display higher self-esteem levels than those in the urban areas.

If the literature is accurate, those CEE scholars who fail to be selected for high schools should have lower self-esteem than those who pass the CEE. As previously mentioned CEE scholars receive positive reinforcements from the wider society for their success in the examination. This feedback inevitably boosts CEE scholars' self-esteem and improves their academic performance (Smith, 1993). Also, since High schools are held in high regard, children who attend those schools receive the message that they are more academically capable than those who attend the other types of secondary schools (Smith, 1993). The current study will specifically examine the self-esteem of CEE scholars attending two types of secondary schools; the traditional and the newly upgraded high schools, hereafter referred to as non-traditional schools. The research will further investigate the academic performance of students in both types of schools.

Specifically, the research will examine the self-esteem and academic performance of three groups of Jamaican high school students; (1) CEE scholars attending traditional High schools, (2) CEE scholars attending non-traditional high schools and (3) non-CEE

students attending non-traditional high schools. This third group of students is of interest since they attend school alongside those students who passed the CEE. However, CEE students who attend non-traditional schools are streamlined to different classes where they pursue a more challenging curriculum than their Non-CEE counterparts who attend the same school. Therefore, the non-CEE students receive feedback that they are less academically brilliant than fellow students who passed the CEE. The dynamics of these groups are of particular interest to the study since the traditional High enjoys more status than the non-traditional high schools and follows a more rigorous curriculum. It is hypothesized that there will be significant differences in academic achievement and self-esteem of CEE scholars attending traditional and non-traditional high schools in Jamaica. This is because one group pursues an academic curriculum, whereas the other group follows a non-academic track (UNESCO Report, 1983). The specific hypotheses are:

1. There will be significant differences among self-esteem, academic performance, schooltype, and location among CEE scholars. It is expected that CEE scholars attending rural traditional high schools will have higher self-esteem, and perform at a higher academic level than CEE scholars attending urban high schools.
2. There will be significant differences among self-esteem, academic performance, gender, and location among CEE scholars. Specifically, females will have higher self-esteem and perform at a higher academic level than males. Also, rural students will have higher self-esteem and perform at a higher

academic level than urban students.

3. There will be significant differences among self-esteem, academic performance, gender, and schooltype among CEE scholars. Females attending traditional high schools will have higher self-esteem and perform at a higher academic level than males attending traditional high schools, and both males and females in non-traditional high schools.

4. There will be significant differences among self-esteem, academic performance, exam, and location among students attending non-traditional high schools. Specifically, rural CEE students will have higher self-esteem, and perform at a higher academic level than urban non-CEE students attending non-traditional schools.

5. There will be significant differences among self-esteem, academic performance, exam, and gender among students attending non-traditional high schools. Specifically, CEE males and females attending non-traditional high schools will have higher self-esteem and perform at a higher academic level than non-CEE males and females attending the same type of school.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Description of Sample

The final sample consisted of 493 students drawn from among fourteen secondary schools; eight traditional and six non-traditional (upgraded), seven rural and seven urban high and non-traditional high schools in Jamaica (see table 1 for distribution of sample by schooltype, location, gender, and CEE characteristic). Of these 493 students three hundred and fifty-five (355) students had passed the Common Entrance Examination (CEE); of that number 220 attend traditional and 135 attend non-traditional high schools. One hundred and thirty-eight (138) students did not "pass" the CEE and attend the non-traditional high schools.

There were 265 respondents from the rural schools and 228 from the urban schools. There were 140 girls and 84 boys in the rural areas, and 164 girls and 84 boys in urban areas making a total of 304 girls and 184 boys in the sample. Five respondents did not indicate gender. A total of 150 boys passed the CEE and 32 boys failed. Of the 304 girls, 198 girls passed the CEE, and 137 failed this examination. The sample ranged in age from 13 -16 years old, ($M=14.5$, $SD= 0.81$) and were selected from grades equivalent to 8-10 in the United States school system.

TABLE 1: Distribution of Sample by Schooltype, Location,**Gender, and Exam.**

Schooltype	Location				CEE Characteristics			
	Rural		Urban		CEE		Non-CEE	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Traditional	54	65	55	45	109	109	0	0
Non-traditional	46	99	29	95	43	89	32	105
TOTAL	100	164	84	140	152	198	32	105

Data on family income was not ascertained because Smith (1989) maintained that there is a general ignorance of members' income among Jamaican households. However, economic status of the sample may be inferred from the educational levels of parents in this sample and from the general population economic data. The data on the educational level of parents of the current sample indicated that 76.9% of parents had a high school education or lower. This seems to be consistent with those reported for the population in general. For example, Phillips (1973) described the Jamaican social structure as "pyramidic"; the apex consisting of a minute upper class; the middle consisting of a small middle class, and the bottom consisting of the large lower class. A recent document (1 Million Jamaicans, 1994) estimated that of the 2.3 million people in

Jamaica, 1 million live below the poverty level. The same document indicated that 64% of the labor force is unskilled, and 50% are uneducated. Further, Gordon (1989) estimated the working class to be 81.6% of the total population. This would therefore indicate that the majority of the sample would be of lower socio-economic status.

Procedure for Conducting the Research

A list of all traditional and non-traditional high schools in the island was made. Schools were then stratified into rural and urban locations and further divided into traditional and non-traditional categories within each location. A table of random numbers was then used to select the schools. Eight traditional high schools were selected, four from rural and four from urban areas. The same procedure was used for selecting non-traditional high schools; six non-traditional high schools were selected, three in the rural and three in the urban areas. Two hundred and forty questionnaires were distributed to students of the eight traditional high schools. Three hundred and sixty were distributed to the six non-traditional high schools as half of this sample comprised students who were not selected by the CEE, but who attended school alongside the CEE scholars in the non-traditional high schools. The process resulted in an effective sample size of 14 schools and 600 students. However, of the 600 questionnaires distributed, 493 were returned, yielding a response rate of 82.2 %.

Principals of selected schools were contacted by an Education Officer in the Ministry of Education, Jamaica, and asked for permission to have students from their

schools participate in the study. Only administrators of schools who returned signed consent forms expressing their willingness to participate were included. No parental consent was deemed necessary to have students participate, because in Jamaica, like many other countries, the right of consent is vested in the school authorities. Students were informed that their participation was voluntary and only those students who volunteered were allowed to participate. Students were also informed of the purpose of the survey, their protection from identification, and their right to refuse to participate. Questionnaires were distributed in sealed envelopes and students were asked to return the completed questionnaires in the envelopes provided. A contact teacher in each of the selected school administered the questionnaires and returned them to the Education Officer who in turn returned them (by air freight) to the investigator.

Description of Instruments

The self administered Offer Self-Image Questionnaire-Revised (OSIQ-R) was used to measure respondents' self-esteem. This instrument uses the multidimensional conceptualization of the self and measures adolescents' self-esteem and personality adjustment. The OSIQ-R is a revised version of the OSIQ which was designed and first used in 1962 by Daniel Offer to measure the self-esteem of middle-class American youths. Since then, the OSIQ has proven to be a valuable tool for measuring adolescents' self-esteem across groups (Offer & Howard, 1972; Offer et al., 1981). In the past two decades, the OSIQ has been administered to over 20, 000 adolescents in the United

States. It has also been used cross-culturally in countries including Australia, India, Ireland, Israel, China, Jamaica (Offer et al., 1977; Agrawal, 1978; Brennan & O'Loideain, 1980; Offer et al., 1981; Smith, 1992 & 1994). The instrument consists of 130 positively and negatively worded statements related to the subjects' feelings and attitudes about the self, and assesses self-esteem across twelve domains of the personality. Domains are; impulse control, emotional tone, body image, social functioning, ethical values, sexual attitudes, family functioning, self-confidence, vocational attitudes, idealism, mental health, and self-reliance. A summary scale measuring total self-image scale is also included. The OSIQ has been recently revised by renaming some of the scales and by dropping one item from the sexuality scale (Offer et al., 1992). The idealism scale was dropped from the present study, because the scale has been reported to have low reliability level (Offer et al., 1992). The total self-image scale consists of scores of ten sub-scales. The sexuality scale is omitted from the total self-image scale. A description of the eleven component scales used in the present study is given below.

Impulse Control: consists of 9 items and measures the extent to which the adolescent's ego is strong enough to handle various pressures without resorting to unacceptable tension-discharging actions. A low score indicates a poorly organized structure, low frustration tolerance, and impulsivity. Conversely, a high score suggests that the individual has a well developed ego that allows for delayed gratification, and effective coping mechanisms.

Emotional Tone: consists of 10 items and measures the degree of affective harmony

within the psychic structure and the extent to which there is lability of emotions, as opposed to feelings that remain relatively stable. A low score indicates poor affective state or great emotional fluctuation. The adolescent who scores low on this scale tends to be tense, depressed, and views the self and the world from a pessimistic angle. The opposite is true for the high scoring adolescent who is able to experience a wide range of affects. This individual tends to take a positive attitude toward the world, and is usually in a good mood.

Body Image: consists of 9 items that indicates the extent to which the adolescent has adjusted to the changes in his or her body. An individual with a low score on this scale experiences confusion about body boundaries or awkwardness about body changes. The adolescent tends to feel badly about his or her body, feels unattractive, weak, or in some way physically unacceptable. A high score indicates a well structured body-concept with well defined body boundaries. This individual feels attractive, healthy, strong, and confident about his or her body.

Social Functioning: consists of 9 items and assesses patterns of interpersonal relationships and friendships. A low score indicates poor interpersonal relationships; feelings of loneliness and isolation. Adolescents in this category find it difficult to maintain close relationships with individuals of their own age and feel uncomfortable socializing with peers. In contrast, a high score reflects a well developed capacity for empathy and allows for meaningful relationships within the peer group.

Ethical Values: consists of 10 items and measures the extent to which the adolescent has

assimilated the norms and values of the larger culture, and the extent to which the conscience or superego has developed. A low score suggests a poorly developed superego. Low scoring individuals may be viewed by others as egocentric, callous or uncaring. Conversely, a high score signifies a well developed sense of duty, responsibility, and concern for others.

Sexuality: contains 10 items and is concerned with the adolescent's feelings, attitudes, and behavior toward the opposite sex. This scale is somewhat different from the others in that very high or very low scores may suggest poor outcomes. A low score indicates a fearful attitude towards sexuality, whereas, a very high score indicates unusual and potentially troublesome openness.

Family Functioning: is concerned with the adolescent's feelings about, and relationship with parents. This scale which consists of 19 items also examines the emotional atmosphere of the home. A low score indicates that the adolescent perceives a poor relationship with his or her parents, and tension in the home. A high score signifies open communication and a warm, positive, and supportive atmosphere in the home.

Self-Confidence: consists of 10 items and evaluates how well the adolescent adapts to, and feels in control of, his or her immediate environment. A low score indicates an inability to finish tasks and a view of failure of overall ability. Low scoring persons tend to feel that no goal is worth pursuing. A high score is indicative of a well functioning adolescent capable of dealing with frustration, and positively oriented towards achievement.

Vocational Attitudes: consists of 10 items and measures how confident the adolescent feels in learning about, and planning for a vocation. A low score suggests failure on the part of the individual to work well in the school system and to make reasonable plans for the future. A person with a low score on this scale feels alienated from the worlds of work and education, and has not focussed on the traditional routes of achievement through school and career. A high score indicates that the adolescent has worked effectively within the school system, made reasonable plans for the future, and is focussed on traditional routes of success.

Mental Health: consists of 13 items and evaluates emotional health in terms of relative absence of psychopathological thought processes. A low score points to severe psychopathology on a clinical level. A low scoring individual tends to experience a variety of symptoms beyond dysphoria and tension. This adolescent can be paranoid and his or her perceptions may be distorted. A high score indicates a lack of overt symptomatology. An adolescent with a high score does not suffer marked or severe symptoms of a cognitive or perceptual nature.

Self-Reliance: consists of 14 items and examines how well the adolescent copes with the self, others, and the world. A low score signifies that the person lacks adequacy in dealing with his or her environment. Success or achievement to this individual is short-term. A high score indicates a well-functioning coping system, and orientation towards long term goals. Achievement is valued for its own sake and considered worth the sacrifice and hard work.

The OSIQ-R is set on a six point Likert type rating scale with responses ranging from (1) "describes me well" to (6) "does not describe me at all." Subjects are asked to respond to each item by indicating the extent to which they believe each description fits them. Scores are standardized (Mean = 50; SD = 10) with higher scores indicating better psychosocial adjustment. The measure has been shown to have good reliability and validity. The stability (test-retest reliability over 2 years) has been reported at .73 and moderate to excellent internal consistency for the composite subscales have been reported. Cronbach's alpha for the sub-scales range from .58 on ethical values to .90 on total self-image (Offer et al., 1992). Internal consistency scores for the OSIQ-R for this present sample ranged from .32 on ethical values to .90 on total self-esteem.

Academic Achievement Measures

Academic performance was determined by self-reported grades on the two major examinations (mid-year and end-of-year) of the academic year. An average of both examinations was calculated to arrive at an academic performance score. These examinations, which are internally set and administered by individual schools, test students competence on a wide range of academic subjects. As mentioned in the limitations of the study, the fact that these examinations are internally administered and may vary in level of difficulty within each school, may render the test unreliable.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Analysis of Data

Data were analyzed to examine the differences between self-esteem and academic performance of Jamaican high school students who attend traditional and non-traditional high schools. The researcher proposed that students' self-esteem and academic performance would vary as a function of school type (traditional vs. non-traditional), location (rural vs. urban), gender, and examination ("passing" or "not passing" the national entrance examination) (CEE).

Analyses were carried out on data collected from three groups of students; students who passed the CEE and attend traditional high schools, students who passed the CEE and attend non-traditional high schools, and students who "failed" the CEE and attend non-traditional high schools. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was done using the twelve dimensions of self-esteem and academic performance as dependent variables, and school type, CEE exam, location, and gender as independent variables. Tukey (HSD) post-hoc test was used to examine the nature of the relationships. All statistical analyses were done using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS, 1989). Statistical errors were controlled for by selecting a .05 level of significance for all tests. The following five hypotheses were tested;

1. There will be significant differences among self-esteem, academic performance schooltype, and location among CEE scholars. It is expected that CEE scholars attending

rural traditional high schools will have higher self-esteem, and perform at a higher academic level than CEE scholars attending rural non-traditional, and urban high schools.

2. There will be significant differences among self-esteem, academic performance, gender, and location among CEE scholars. Specifically, females will have higher self-esteem and perform at a higher academic level than males. Also, rural students will have higher self-esteem and perform at a higher academic level than urban students.

3. There will be significant differences among self-esteem, academic performance gender, and schooltype among CEE scholars. Females attending traditional high schools will have higher self-esteem and perform at a higher academic level than males attending traditional schools, and both males, and females attending non-traditional schools.

4. There will be significant differences among self-esteem, academic performance, exam, and location among non-traditional high school students. Specifically, rural CEE scholars attending non-traditional high schools will have higher self-esteem and perform at a higher academic level than urban non-CEE students attending the same school.

5. There will be significant differences among self-esteem, academic performance, exam, and gender among non-traditional students. Females and males who passed the CEE and attend non-traditional high schools will have higher self-esteem and perform at a higher academic level than CEE males, and non-CEE males and females attending the same school.

Findings

Hypothesis 1

Data were analyzed to determine the relationship between self-esteem academic performance of CEE scholars attending traditional and non-traditional schools in urban and rural locations. This analysis controlled for exam since only those students who "passed" the CEE were considered. Wilk's Lambda showed significance for the main effects of schooltype ($p < .05$), location ($p < .05$), and for the interaction effect for schooltype and location ($p < .001$). Univariate analyses indicated significant main effects for schooltype on the self-esteem scale of sexuality ($F_{3,293} = 5.11, p < .05$), and for location on academic rate ($F_{3,293} = 12.18, p < .01$), and family functioning ($F_{3,293} = 6.14, p < .01$). The interaction effect of schooltype and location indicated significance on academic performance ($F_{3,293} = 42.89, p < .001$), and on four self-esteem scales; impulse control ($F_{3,293} = 4.32, p < .05$), emotional tone ($F_{3,293} = 3.63, p < .05$), self-reliance ($F_{3,293} = 4.97, p < .05$), and total self-esteem ($F_{3,293} = 3.79, p < .05$). Tukey post-hoc test for multiple comparisons of means indicated that rural traditional students scored significantly higher than their rural non-traditional, urban non-traditional, and urban traditional counterparts on academic performance ($M = 68.89$ versus 61.43, 65.74, and 54.76 respectively), and on seven self-esteem dimensions: impulse control ($M = 53.62$ versus 50.89, 51.83 and 49.37), ethical values ($M = 48.61$ versus 44.86, 45.94, and 45.46), sexuality ($M = 48.39$ versus 43.96, 45.81, and 48.05), self confidence ($M = 48.27$ versus 44.90, 45.81, and 45.46), mental health ($M = 46.77$ versus 42.73, 43.33, and 43.58), self-reliance ($M =$

51.80 versus 48.98, 50.56, and 47.58) and total self-esteem ($M = 50.96$ versus 48.55, 49.21, and 47.64). Means and standard deviations are illustrated in Table 2.

On the academic scale, rural-traditional students scored significantly higher ($M = 68.89$) than their urban traditional ($M = 54.76$), urban non-traditional ($M = 65.74$), and rural non-traditional ($M = 61.43$) peers. Urban non-traditional students scored significantly higher ($M = 65.74$) than rural non-traditional ($M = 58.46$), and urban traditional ($M = 54.76$) students. Also, rural traditional students scored consistently higher than their urban counterparts on eight self-esteem dimensions; impulse control, social functioning, ethical values, sexuality, selfconfidence, self-reliance, mental health, and total self-esteem. In all eight cases, the significant differences were between the rural traditional students and rural non-traditional students. The only exception was on the mental health scale where the rural traditional students scored higher ($M = 46.77$) than their urban non-traditional ($M = 43.33$), and rural non-traditional counterparts ($M = 42.73$).

These analyses supported the hypothesis that rural students, and students attending traditional high schools would perform higher than urban, and non-traditional high school students both on academics and self-esteem measures. Results on the self-esteem dimensions indicated that rural traditional students displayed higher levels of self-esteem than their urban non-traditional peers. In fact, this was so for the eight self-esteem scales on which significance was found.

**Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and F values for Self-esteem
and Academic Performance Scores by Schooltype and Location**

Self Dimension Academic Performance	Mean SD	Traditional		Non-traditional		F _{3,293} Values
		Rural n= 119	Urban n=48	Rural n= 67	Urban n= 60	
Academic Performance	M	68.89	54.76	61.43	65.74	23.28***
	SD	11.07	12.81	10.76	11.64	
Impulse Control	M	53.62	49.37	50.89	51.83	4.27**
	SD	8.13	10.74	10.37	12.65	
Emotional Tone	M	48.42	44.43	46.36	47.29	2.40
	SD	9.24	11.86	10.23	11.79	
Body Image	M	51.02	49.59	49.84	50.40	0.72
	SD	10.49	12.64	10.97	13.29	
Social Functioning	M	47.30	45.89	43.52	45.59	4.25
	SD	9.79	12.76	11.69	12.03	
Ethical Values	M	48.61	45.46	44.86	45.94	9.89***
	SD	10.75	12.10	11.13	12.95	
Sexuality	M	48.39	48.05	43.96	45.81	4.25*
	SD	11.87	12.47	11.15	12.61	
Family Functioning	M	48.76	44.80	48.44	46.28	2.45
	SD	8.32	11.06	9.15	12.74	
Self-Confidence	M	48.27	45.46	44.90	45.81	5.20**
	SD	9.36	11.86	10.07	13.18	
Vocational Attitudes	M	65.05	60.21	65.03	65.11	2.11
	SD	10.42	16.19	12.59	16.55	
Mental Health	M	46.77	43.58	42.73	43.33	3.86*
	SD	10.67	11.12	12.00	14.16	
Self-Reliance	M	51.80	47.58	48.98	50.56	3.77**
	SD	9.12	12.25	9.77	12.41	
Total Self-esteem	M	50.96	47.64	48.55	49.21	5.27**
	SD	6.50	8.72	8.13	10.91	

Note: Higher scores indicate better self-image and higher academic scores.

*P> 05 **p<. 01 ***p<. 001

Hypothesis 2

This analysis tested the hypothesis that there would be significant differences in academic performance and self-esteem as a function of gender and location. The analysis included CEE students in traditional and non-traditional schools. Wilks' Lambda was significant for the main effects of gender ($p < .001$). There were no significant effects for location, or for the interaction of gender and location. Univariate analyses indicated significant gender differences on three self-esteem scales; social functioning ($F_{3,289} = 3.73$, $p < .05$), vocational attitudes ($F_{3,289} = 186.42$, $p < .001$), and sexuality ($F_{3,289} = 40.46$, $p < .001$). Comparison of means indicated that males scored significantly higher than females on social functioning ($M = 47.98$ versus 45.57), and on sexuality ($M = 52.25$ versus 44.20). However, females scored significantly higher ($M = 71.27$) than males ($M = 56.36$) on vocational attitudes (see table 3). No significant difference was indicated for academic performance. The hypothesis stating that females would have higher self-esteem and perform at a higher academic levels than males was rejected. Further, the hypothesis that rural students would perform better than their urban counterparts on self-esteem and academic performance was also rejected.

Table 3: Means, Standard Deviations, and F values For Self-esteem and Academic Performance Scores by Location and Gender

Self Dimension Academic Performance	Mean SD	Rural		Urban		F _{3,289} Values
		Male n= 75	Female n= 110	Male n= 45	Female n= 60	
Academic Performance	M	64.23	67.70	60.97	60.90	1.29
	SD	9.96	12.25	13.18	13.44	
Impulse Control	M	52.56	53.13	51.24	52.77	1.00
	SD	8.90	7.97	8.37	8.97	
Emotional Tone	M	48.47	47.53	47.74	46.86	0.63
	SD	10.32	8.02	9.89	9.31	
Body Image	M	50.91	50.81	50.69	51.93	0.20
	SD	12.55	8.08	10.12	10.44	
Social Functioning	M	47.93	44.99	48.08	46.16	3.73*
	SD	10.92	9.51	8.76	10.85	
Ethical Values	M	49.16	46.36	47.31	46.66	1.77
	SD	11.33	9.88	11.02	9.90	
Sexuality	M	52.37	43.39	52.12	45.01	40.46***
	SD	11.02	9.97	9.93	9.82	
Family Functioning	M	47.94	49.53	45.50	47.84	3.38
	SD	9.24	6.97	9.52	9.82	
Self-confidence	M	48.94	46.16	43.97	49.07	0.98
	SD	9.17	9.13	9.08	10.75	
Vocational Attitudes	M	57.72	70.59	55.00	71.95	186.42***
	SD	7.51	8.55	10.98	9.03	
Mental Health	M	45.65	45.46	45.43	43.96	0.37
	SD	11.62	10.45	9.44	12.11	
Self-reliance	M	52.06	50.34	49.79	51.18	0.02
	SD	10.27	7.62	10.05	8.84	
Total Self-esteem	M	50.13	50.49	48.47	50.84	3.01
	SD	7.41	5.57	5.90	6.52	

Note: Higher scores indicate better academic performance and higher levels of self-esteem.

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

Hypothesis 3

Data were analyzed to examine the relationships among schooltype, gender, academic performance, and self-esteem of CEE scholars attending traditional and non-traditional schools. Wilks' Lambda showed significant main effects for gender ($p < .001$). Univariate analyses indicated significance on the self-esteem dimensions of social functioning ($F_{3,289} = 4.48, p < .05$), sexuality ($F_{3,289} = 39.23, p < .001$), and vocational attitudes ($F_{3,289} = 164.58, p < .001$) (see table 4). Males scored significantly higher ($M = 48.04$) than females ($M = 45.38$) on the social functioning and ($M = 51.84$ versus 43.95) on the sexuality scales. However, on the vocational attitudes, females scored significantly higher ($M = 71.07$) than males ($M = 57.04$).

As there was no interaction between schooltype and gender the hypothesis that CEE students in traditional schools would perform at a higher academic level and have higher self-esteem than CEE scholars in non-traditional high schools was rejected. The results appear to support gender differences but not schooltype. This analysis further caused a rejection of the hypothesis that females would perform higher than boys on academic performance. Results indicated no significant difference between males and females on academic performance. Also, no significance was found for schooltype which indicated that non-traditional students performed comparably to their counterparts in traditional high schools.

Table 4: Means, Standard Deviations, And F Values For Self-Esteem and Academic Performance Scores By Gender and Schooltype

Self Dimension Academic Performance	Mean SD	Traditional		Non-traditional		F _{3,289} Values
		Male n= 80	Female n= 86	Male n= 40	Female n= 84	
Academic Performance	M	62.44	67.36	64.14	63.20	1.71
	SD	11.22	14.31	11.62	11.34	
Impulse Control	M	51.77	53.56	52.66	52.43	0.55
	SD	9.07	7.51	7.97	9.07	
Emotional Tone	M	47.56	47.51	49.47	47.07	1.15
	SD	10.41	8.88	9.52	8.32	
Body Image	M	50.47	51.29	51.54	51.11	0.02
	SD	12.14	8.83	10.75	9.16	
Social Functioning	M	47.82	46.56	48.26	44.21	4.58*
	SD	10.46	9.90	9.54	9.98	
Ethical Values	M	48.18	47.78	49.05	45.12	2.81
	SD	12.21	9.15	9.09	10.41	
Sexuality	M	53.13	44.32	50.56	43.59	39.23***
	SD	10.44	10.85	11.13	8.69	
Family Functioning	M	46.53	49.15	48.01	48.71	2.39
	SD	9.87	7.26	8.35	8.92	
Self-confidence	M	47.54	47.90	46.15	46.46	0.08
	SD	10.41	8.86	7.04	10.69	
Vocational Attitudes	M	56.00	71.50	58.09	70.64	164.68***
	SD	9.89	7.23	6.88	10.05	
Mental Health	M	45.43	46.74	45.84	43.08	0.29
	SD	11.17	9.60	10.18	12.14	
Self-reliance	M	50.77	50.98	52.09	50.29	0.50
	SD	11.23	9.60	10.18	12.14	
Total Self-esteem	M	49.21	51.30	50.19	49.91	1.45
	SD	7.51	4.95	5.52	6.70	

Note: Higher scores indicate better social adjustment and higher academic performance.

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

Hypothesis 4

The analysis in this section compared the academic performance and self-esteem of CEE and non-CEE students attending non-traditional high schools. The analyses tested the hypothesis that CEE students would perform at a higher academic level and have higher self-esteem than their non-CEE counterparts in the same school as a function of exam and location. It was assumed that there would be differences in self-esteem and academic performance because one group of students (the CEE group) was streamlined into different classes and given a more challenging curriculum (UNESCO Report, 1983) than the non-CEE group. Also, traditionally, rural students had to have higher scores than urban children to access the limited high school places in these areas.

Wilks' Lambda indicated a significant main effect for exam ($p < .01$). No significance was detected for location or for the interaction of exam and location. Univariate analysis indicated significance for exam on academic performance ($F_{3,230} = 1.03, p < .001$), ethical values ($F_{3,230} = 16.07, p < .001$), self confidence ($F_{3,230} = 3.81, p < .05$), vocational attitudes ($F_{3,230} = 3.90, p < .05$), and total self-esteem ($F_{3,230} = 5.34, p < .05$). An examination of means using Tukeys' multiple comparison tests indicated that the CEE students scored significantly higher than the non-CEE students on academic performance ($M = 63.58$ versus 56.34), ethical values ($M = 45.40$ versus 39.67), self-confidence ($M = 45.35$ versus 42.69), vocational attitude ($M = 65.07$ versus 61.65), and total self-esteem ($M = 63.58$ versus 56.34).

These results supported the hypothesis that CEE students perform at a higher academic

level and have higher self-esteem than their non-CEE counterparts attending the same school. Both groups (CEE and non-CEE students) had comparable scores on the self-esteem dimensions of impulse control, emotional tone, body image, social functioning, sexuality, family functioning, mental health, and self-reliance (see table 5).

Table 5: Means, Standard Deviations, and F Values For Self-Esteem and Academic Performance Scores by Location and Exam.

Self Dimension Academic Performance	Mean SD	Rural		Urban		F _{3,230} Values
		CEE n= 67	Non-CEE n= 79	CEE n= 60	Non-CEE n= 25	
Academic Performance	M	61.43	55.94	65.74	56.74	1.03***
	SD	10.76	13.06	11.64	11.80	
Impulse Control	M	50.89	48.22	51.83	49.24	3.23
	SD	10.37	8.87	12.65	12.46	
Emotional Tone	M	46.36	44.76	47.29	43.42	2.55
	SD	10.23	10.33	11.79	11.04	
Body Image	M	49.84	48.28	50.40	48.00	1.39
	SD	10.97	8.99	13.29	14.38	
Social Functioning	M	43.52	41.68	45.59	42.86	1.93
	SD	11.69	9.48	12.03	13.45	
Ethical Values	M	44.86	37.47	45.94	41.88	16.07***
	SD	11.13	10.63	12.96	11.78	
Sexuality	M	43.96	43.47	45.81	43.95	0.38
	SD	11.15	9.70	12.61	12.86	
Family Functioning	M	48.44	46.03	46.28	44.92	2.21
	SD	9.15	8.28	12.74	11.69	
Self-confidence	M	44.90	41.55	45.81	43.83	3.81*
	SD	10.07	9.23	13.18	12.01	
Vocational Attitudes	M	65.03	59.02	65.11	64.28	3.90*
	SD	12.59	17.87	16.55	17.09	
Mental Health	M	42.73	42.58	43.33	40.41	0.39
	SD	12.00	10.33	14.16	14.76	
Self-reliance	M	48.98	46.57	50.56	47.19	3.34
	SD	9.77	10.08	12.41	12.93	
Total Self-esteem	M	48.56	45.62	49.21	46.60	5.34*
	SD	8.14	7.23	10.91	11.07	

Note: Higher scores indicate better self-esteem and academic performance.

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

Hypothesis 5

This analysis tested the hypothesis that there would be significant relationships among academic performance, self-esteem, gender, and examination of CEE and Non-CEE students attending non-traditional schools. Exam was considered a factor since it was felt that "passing " or "not passing" the CEE would affect students' self-esteem and academic performance. Wilks' Lambda showed significance for the main effects of exam ($p < .001$), and gender ($p < .001$). However, these main effects are qualified by the significant interaction of exam and gender ($p < .05$). Univariate analyses indicated significant main effects for exam on academic performance ($F_{3,226} = 17.40, p < .001$), and on the self-esteem dimensions of impulse control ($F_{3,226} = 10.81, p < .001$), emotional tone ($F_{3,226} = 5.57, p < .01$), body image ($F_{3,226} = 5.00, p < .05$), social functioning ($F_{3,226} = 5.55, p < .01$), ethical values ($F_{3,226} = 25.62, p < .001$), sexuality ($F_{3,226} = 0.90, p < .01$), family functioning ($F_{3,226} = 5.24, p < .05$), self-confidence ($F_{3,226} = 11.79, p < .001$), vocational attitudes ($F_{3,226} = 19.50, p < .001$), self-reliance ($F_{3,226} = 14.03, p < .01$), and total self-esteem ($F_{3,226} = 19.98, p < .001$). Significant gender effect was indicated on social functioning ($F_{3,226} = 4.35, p < .05$), ethical values ($F_{3,226} = 4.40, p < .05$), and vocational educational goals ($F_{3,226} = 75.08, p < .001$), and total self-esteem ($F_{3,226} = 2.50, p < .001$). A significant interaction effect was indicated only on sexuality ($F_{3,226} = 6.82, p < .01$).

Tukey's post-hoc comparison tests of means indicated that students differed on academic performance and on nine self esteem scales of impulse control, emotional tone, social functioning, ethical values, sexuality, self-confidence, vocational educational

goals, self-reliance, and total self-esteem, (see table 6 for means and standard deviations). Specifically, CEE males and females ($M = 64.14$ versus 63.20) scored significantly higher than non-CEE males, and non-CEE females ($M = 56.26$ versus 56.20) on academic performance. This would suggest that in general, the CEE students scored significantly higher than their non-CEE counterparts in the same school on academic performance which implied that passing the CEE is related to students' academic performance. CEE students also scored higher than non-CEE students on the nine self-esteem scales on which significance was found. Specifically, as a group CEE males and females scored higher than non-CEE males and females on all dimensions except vocational attitudes. On the latter dimension CEE females ($M = 70.64$) scored significantly higher than non-CEE females ($M = 65.65$), CEE males ($M = 58.09$), and non-CEE males ($M = 47.36$). Also non-CEE females scored significantly higher than CEE males and non-CEE males. This result seems to suggest that overall, females were more optimistic, but maybe not realistic about their vocational future than males. The hypothesis that the CEE students would have higher self-esteem and perform at a higher academic level than non-CEE students was supported. However, the results on self-esteem, academic performance, and gender was mixed. Therefore, the hypothesis that females would perform higher than males on self-esteem and academic performance was rejected.

Table 6: Means, Standard Deviations, and F values for Self-esteem and Academic Performance Scores by Exam and Gender.

Self Dimension Academic Performance	Mean SD	CEE scholars		Non-CEE Scholars		F _{3,226} Values
		Male n= 40	Female n= 80	Male n= 27	Female n= 76	
Academic Performance	M	64.14	63.20	56.26	56.20	6.87**
	SD	11.62	11.34	17.14	10.92	
Impulse Control	M	52.67	52.43	47.08	49.57	3.74**
	SD	7.97	9.07	10.84	7.75	
Emotional Tone	M	49.47	47.07	45.56	44.60	2.69*
	SD	9.52	8.32	11.99	8.71	
Body Image	M	51.54	51.11	47.12	49.20	1.70
	SD	10.75	9.16	10.29	9.17	
Social Functioning	M	48.26	44.22	43.83	41.82	3.76**
	SD	9.54	9.98	11.78	9.05	
Ethical Values	M	49.05	45.12	40.65	38.25	11.82***
	SD	9.10	10.41	11.81	9.98	
Sexuality	M	50.56	43.59	40.81	45.09	6.82**
	SD	11.14	8.69	10.16	9.43	
Family Functioning	M	48.01	48.71	44.09	46.94	2.21
	SD	8.35	8.92	9.98	7.23	
Self-confidence	M	46.15	46.46	39.56	43.53	4.38**
	SD	7.04	10.69	9.42	8.90	
Vocational Attitudes	M	58.09	70.64	47.36	65.65	29.29***
	SD	6.88	10.05	9.42	8.90	
Mental Health	M	45.84	43.08	43.23	42.17	0.94
	SD	10.18	12.14	9.50	11.36	
Self-reliance	M	50.10	50.29	44.23	48.19	4.84**
	SD	8.45	8.30	11.20	9.19	
Total Self-esteem	M	50.12	49.91	44.27	46.99	6.94**
	SD	5.52	6.70	8.02	6.59	

Note: Higher scores indicated higher self-esteem and academic performance.

***p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001**

Discussion

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationships among academic performance, self-esteem, schooltype, location, gender, and CEE characteristic of Jamaican adolescents attending traditional, and non-traditional high schools. The researcher assumed that attendance at the traditional high schools, and "passing" or "failing" the national entrance examination, which formerly placed students in the prestigious traditional high schools, would affect students' academic performance and self-esteem. Also, students' academic performance and self-esteem would be related to gender and location since traditionally, more girls than boys passed the CEE, and more urban than rural students have access to traditional high schools.

The results of the study suggested that students' self-esteem and academic performance are indeed related to schooltype, location, gender, and exam depending on the groups examined. As expected, self-esteem, academic performance scores, gender, and school location were significant for the CEE students. Also, significance was indicated for gender, location, and examination (passing/not passing the CEE) for the CEE and non-CEE comparison groups. Rural traditional students scored significantly higher than their urban traditional counterparts and rural non-traditional peers on academic performance and on eight self-esteem dimensions. This result supported the argument that rural students might be more motivated to succeed than their urban counterparts because of the stiffer competition they face in gaining access to the limited High school spaces in rural regions. Because research has shown that high academic

performance is related to higher self-esteem, and vice versa, it is logical to expect that students with higher academic scores would also have higher self-esteem scores.

It is interesting to note that the type of school (traditional and non-traditional) students attend affected neither academic performance nor self-esteem of CEE students. This is an indication that regardless of schooltype, CEE students seemed to perform comparably. However, on the academic construct one has to consider the limitation of the study in that examinations are developed and administered internally. In other words, examination difficulty may vary from school to school. However, all students responded to the same self-esteem measure. Therefore, it appeared that regardless of the type of school CEE students attend they do well academically and psychologically. The fact that CEE students attending non-traditional high schools are streamlined to different classes and follow a curriculum similar to that of the traditional schools might account for them performing comparable to their peers in the traditional schools. This argument also holds true when comparing CEE with non-CEE students in the non-traditional high schools. The CEE students follow a more rigorous curriculum and are deemed to have higher status therefore it is understandable that they would display higher levels of self-esteem and academic performance than their non-CEE counterparts. As previously stated in the introduction, Jamaican parents resent their CEE students being placed in non-traditional schools because of perceived lack of prestige for these schools. However, the results presented here seem to indicate that their concerns regarding placement of CEE scholars in non-traditional schools is unwarranted. Schooltype apparently does not relate to

academic performance or self-esteem (at least with this sample). What seems to be more salient is "passing" or "not passing" the CEE, location, and gender.

The results on gender were also intriguing. Past studies have shown conflicting results on gender differences in self-esteem and academic performance (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Alpert- Gillis & Connell, 1989; & Cate & Sugawara, 1986). However, for the current study gender appeared to be a pervasive factor across schooltype, location and examination on three dimensions of self-esteem. Males consistently scored significantly higher than females on social functioning and sexuality while females scored higher than males on vocational attitudes. Because, in Jamaica the boys are socialized differently from girls, it is not surprising that males scored higher on social functioning and sexuality, dimensions that clearly relate to socialization. The literature on gender differences, socialization, and sexuality of Jamaicans indicated that it is the practice of parents to allow boys more freedom while restricting their girls. According to Phillips (1973) beginning at puberty, the activities of girls outside the home are sharply curtailed. This, he contended, is partly due to the fact that parents are overly concerned about their daughters becoming pregnant. On the other hand, boys are allowed to engage in non-purposive activities outside the confines of the home (Chevannes, 1985). Further, Chevannes contended that there is disparity in the age at which sexual activity is condoned, therefore, boys begin to engage in sexual activities earlier than girls. He maintained that the average age of first sex for Jamaican boys is 14 -15 years whereas first time sexual experience for girls is 16-17 years. Chevannes further pointed out that

early sexual activities among boys is treated with amusement, unlike with the case for the girls. This socialization pattern may be the reason boys expressed more liberal and wholesome views regarding their sexuality. Research has shown that if a particular behavior is sanctioned by the culture it is not likely to cause psychological damage to the particular cultural group (Smith, Johnson, & Findlay, 1994).

Results on vocational attitudes of this sample appear to support earlier findings on this same scale among Jamaican adolescents. The current sample seem to support Smith's (1993) studies as respondents scored above the norm on vocational attitudes. Smith found that subjects scored exceptionally high on that scale. In that study, the author wondered how realistic the respondents were in light of the prevailing economic climate, and the increasing competition and rejection adolescents face as the job market shrinks. What is not clear at this point, however, is how much improvement in the country's economy may have taken place over the years. However, when one closely examines the current sample one finds characteristics that were lacking in Smith's study. The Smith study did not take academic level of the respondents into consideration. It seems logical that this particular group of students would score high on this scale as they were selected from some of the most prestigious High schools in the island with up to two-thirds having passed the national entrance examination (CEE). As previously stated, these schools have been seen as the means to upward mobility and climbing both the career and social ladders. Therefore, it is logical that these respondents would tend to have high aspirations for education and professional goals. Further, the Jamaican high

school system is organized in a way that students begin to specialize in academic subjects in preparation for their careers from as early as 14 years old (on entering fourth form/grade 10). Students are therefore forced at an early age to think about and give serious consideration to their educational future.

Results of this study contradicted earlier findings on career aspirations of Jamaican High school students as a function of gender. Leo-Rhynie (1978) and Edwards (1982) found that boys had higher career aspirations than girls and were more certain of their career goals than girls. The current study found that girls overwhelmingly scored higher than boys on vocational attitudes and appeared to be more optimistic about their professional future. This difference in vocational attitudes may be related to socialization practices of Jamaican parents. Leo-Rhynie related the higher career aspirations of boys to the socialization practices of Jamaican parents, and teachers who tended to prepare boys for professional careers. Girls, until recently, were not expected to pursue higher education or work outside the home. The author further pointed out that girls engaged in general education, while boys specialized much earlier in academic subjects in preparation for their careers.

Higher career aspirations for females in this sample may be related to the current trends in education both at the secondary and tertiary levels. More girls than boys are passing the CEE, and attending high schools. Also, more females than males are enrolled in tertiary institutions (Miller, 1986) which would suggest that females would envision brighter professional future. Also, it appears that a trend has developed since Leo-

Rhynie's study. Much concern is currently being expressed about the status of Jamaican males. For example, Miller (1986) in his book on the "marginilization of the Jamaican male" expressed concern about the down turn in attitudes, values, and general performance (in all areas of life) of the Jamaican male. Based on these present trends it may not be surprising that females expressed higher vocational attitudes.

The CEE students compared favorably among themselves on self-esteem dimensions and academic performance. As previously indicated, significant differences on academic performance and self-esteem were noted for location and gender, but not schooltype for this group. CEE students in non-traditional high schools compared favorably with their traditional counterparts on academic performance and some self-esteem dimensions. Therefore, the public's fear that non-traditional schools offer a mediocre form of education to CEE scholars is unfounded. However, when CEE and non-CEE students attending non-traditional schools were compared a completely different picture emerged. Results indicated that passing the CEE does have an impact on students' self-esteem and academic performance. For example, an examination of self-esteem and academic performance showed that the CEE students scored significantly higher than their non-CEE counterparts on academic performance. As indicated previously, this is not surprising since the CEE students are streamlined to different classes and are given a more rigorous curriculum than their non-CEE peers. Also, it is the tendency of the culture in general and the educational system in particular, to stigmatize those students who fail the CEE. These students are considered less brilliant

than the other students hence, they are prepared for the world of unskilled work rather than for professional occupations (UNESCO Report, 1983). These dynamics may very well account for their lower academic performance and self-esteem. Overall, CEE students scored significantly higher than non-CEE students on academic performance and nine self-esteem dimensions.

Another intriguing but surprising finding related to gender and family functioning. Females scored significantly higher than males on this scale. Overall, scores on family functioning for this sample fell within normal range. These scores would suggest that in general Jamaican girls perceived some level of harmony in the homes. These normal family functioning scores for this sample are contrary to other findings on Jamaican adolescents. For example, Smith (1992) found lower scores on that dimension for her sample. Smith attributed that finding to the harsh discipline techniques of Jamaican parents which translate into poor family relationships between parents and adolescents. Phillips (1973) also suggested that a high level of parent-adolescent-conflict (especially among girls) exists because of the restrictions parents place on girls. However, in a later study, Smith (1993) examined the relationships between educational structure and self-image of Jamaican adolescents and found normal levels for family functioning among the three groups studied; High school students had higher scores than students from other two types of secondary schools. This she attributed to the fact that once children pass the CEE parents tend to view them in a different light and get preferential treatment. Therefore, it could be that this select group of students especially those who have passed

the CEE, are treated more favorably by parents. This might reduce parent-child conflict and raise students' perception of harmony in the home.

Although the findings from this study are meaningful, results cannot strongly confirm that one group of students is more academically able than the other without considering the dynamics of the backgrounds of these two groups of students, and the messages they receive regarding their potential towards academic success. As stated in the introduction, the non-CEE students receive the message that they are less academically able. Students who fail to gain a high school place via the CEE are placed in less prestigious high schools and given a less challenging curriculum than those who pass the examination. Research has shown that individuals live up to the expectations and act on the feedback they receive from their environment (Verkuyten, 1988; Dusek, 1977). It would seem logical that the non-CEE students would internalize the negative feedback from their environment and act accordingly. Conversely, CEE students gain from the positive feedback and live up to that expectation.

Of concern too are those students who appear to be neglected in the scheme of the educational dynamics simply because they failed to gain a High school place by way of the CEE. This study, like many of the speculations regarding these students' abilities, showed a difference in academic performance and self-esteem between CEE and non-CEE students. Perhaps it would be more helpful to address the circumstances of non-CEE students by providing them with stimulating learning environments in the schools. If individuals perceive differential treatment they will invariably live up to expectations.

There is documented evidence indicating that non-CEE students are more likely to be school dropouts (UNESCO report, 1983). Past research in other cultures has shown a strong correlation between depressed self-image and deviant activities such as drug use, school dropout, teenage pregnancy, and other delinquent behaviors (Kaplan, Martin, & Robins, 1986; Padina & Schuele, 1983). Also, there is documented evidence that the non-CEE students lag behind their peers in crucial areas of psychosocial adjustment. For example, Smith (1993) found that students who attended New Secondary schools had lower self-esteem than those attending other secondary schools. This might be one reason that this group of students tend to contribute most to societal problems such as teenage pregnancy, illiteracy, and poverty (Sexual Activities, 1990). In view of the perceived social inequality created by the CEE and the system of selection to high schools it may be useful to select a less discriminating method for advancing students into secondary education. As a matter of fact some social scientists are currently calling for the abolition of the CEE (Thompson, 1994) because of its perceived devastating psychosocial effects on students who fail the examination.

The study serves to stimulate further research on the dynamics of the Jamaican educational system. This study provides an initial frame of reference on students' academic performance and self-esteem issues as changes in secondary education are made in the island. Also the study has implications for other educational systems in the Caribbean which use similar selection processes.

Despite the limitations, the findings of the study have far reaching implications as

a whole. Findings are meaningful in that they may provide the Jamaican government with preliminary data regarding the upgrading of secondary schools. Currently, many parents are concerned about the CEE scholars being placed in the non-traditional high schools which formerly were considered low status because they accommodated those students who failed the CEE. The current study suggests that CEE scholars regardless of their placement seem to have higher academic performance and self-esteem than students who did not pass the CEE. It might be comforting to the general population to know that CEE scholars in non-traditional schools are performing comparably to those attending traditional high schools. This may help to change the negative perceptions that the population seem to have of the non-traditional schools. This study therefore provides information that the government may find helpful in allaying concerns that attendance of CEE scholars at non-traditional high schools is detrimental to their academic progress and psychosocial adjustment. However, one study is not be enough to draw valid conclusion. Future research, perhaps using more stringent methodology needs to be undertaken. For example, using a standardized test for all subjects might be a better measure of academic performance. Also, it may be helpful to longitudinally study students' self-esteem and academic performance before and after they take the CEE to determine the effect of the CEE. The present study cannot ascertain whether the students who gained access to High schools via the CEE had higher self-esteem and perhaps were smarter in the first place. A longitudinal study would examine if a change in self-esteem had indeed occurred.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A**LIST OF UPGRADED SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR THE PERIOD 1988-1994****NAMES OF SCHOOLS****LOCATION****1987-88**

Abutthnott Gallimore Secondary	St. Ann
Albert Town Secondary	Trelawny
Black River Secondary	St. Elizabeth
Frome Secondary	Westmoreland
Guy's Hill Secondary	St. Catherine
Herbert Morrison Comprehensive	St. James
Jonathan Grant Secondary	St. Catherine
Lennon Secondary	Clarendon
Marcus Garvey Secondary	St. Ann
Maggoty Secondary	St. Elizabeth
Mona Secondary	St. Andrew
Ocho Rios Secondary	St. Ann
Old Harbour Secondary	St. Catherine
Seaforth Secondary	St. Thomas
Stokes Hall Secondary	St. Thomas

1989-1990

Anchovy Secondary	St. James
Bellefield Secondary	Manchester
Bridgeport Secondary	St. Catherine
Muschette Secondary	Trelawny
Jose Marti High	St. Catherine
Norman Manley Secondary	St. Andrew
Petersfield Secondary	Westmoreland

1992-1993

Christianna Secondary	Manchester
Claude McKay Secondary	Clarendon
Donald Quarrie Secondary	St. Andrew
Edith Dalton James Secondary	St. Andrew
Green Island Secondary	Hanover
Junction Secondary	St. Elizabeth
Maldon Secondary	St. James
Port Antonio Secondary	Portland
Tacky Secondary	St. Mary
Waterford Secondary	St. Catherine

1994-1995

Brown's Town Secondary	St. Ann
Buff Bay Secondary	Portland
Cambridge Secondary	St. James
Denham Town Secondary	Kingston
Fair Prospect Secondary	Portland
Kemp's Hill Secondary	Clarendon
Lacovia Secondary	St. Elizabeth
McGrath Secondary	St. Catherine
Spanish Town Secondary	St. Catherine
Vauxhall Secondary	Kingston

1995-1996

Cedric Titus Secondary	St. Catherine
Clan Carthy Secondary	Kingston
Denbigh Secondary	Clarendon
Haile Selassie Secondary	Kingston
Holy Trinity Secondary	Kingston
Maud McCleod Secondary	Westmoreland
Morant Bay Junior High	St. Thomas
Newell Secondary	St. Elizabeth
Pembroke Hall Secondary	Kingston
Yallahs Secondary	St. Thomas

Source: Ministry of Education and Culture; Jamaica W.I.

APPENDIX B

**COMMON ENTRANCE RESULTS AND # OF HIGH SCHOOL
PLACES OFFERED BETWEEN 1987-1995**

YEAR Places	# Of Students Who Took	# Of High School
	Exam	Offered
1987-1988	47, 227	10, 020
1988-1989	46, 624	10, 874
1989-1990	46, 380	10, 982
1990-1991	48, 144	10, 966
1991-1992	50, 040	11, 463
1992-1993	52, 460	12, 939
1993-1994	54, 942	13,439
1994-1995	52,022	14,920

♦

Source: Ministry of Education and Culture; Jamaica W. I.

APPENDIX C**ENROLLMENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS: 1992-1993**

SCHOOL TYPE	# OF STUDENTS ENROLLED
Vocational Agricultural High	1, 192
Comprehensive High	17, 714
Traditional High	72, 020
Technical High	14, 425
New Secondary	62, 624
All Age	53, 747

Source: Ministry of Education and Culture; Jamaica W.I.

APPENDIX D**PERSONAL DATA**

1. Date of birth_____ Age at your last birthday_____
2. Gender male () female ()
3. Place a tick () beside the descriptor that best indicates your academic performance.
 1. excellent () 2. good ()
 3. average () 4. poor ()

Write your overall averages for the mid-year and end of year examination for 1995 in the space below;

mid-year.....

end of year.....

4. Indicate the highest educational level completed by your father and your mother by using the following codes:
 1. Elementary
 2. High School
 3. College: Diploma/Associate Degree
 4. College: Bachelors Degree
 5. College: Masters Degree
 6. College: Higher than Masters Degree
 5. Mother_____ 8. Father_____
- Circle the number to indicate your response to the following items:
6. Marital Status of Parents/Guardians
 1. married
 2. separated
 3. divorced
 4. single (never been married)
 5. living together (not legally married)
 7. With whom do you presently live?

1. mother only	4. stepmother and father
2. father only	5. stepfather and mother
3. both mother and father	6. other (please specify)
 8. Occupation of mother_____
 9. Occupation of father_____
 10. Number of people living in your present household _____
 11. What kind of work do you think you will be doing in twenty years from now? _____
 12. Imagine yourself 20 years in the future. On the back of this sheet write a short essay (100 words) about your life and work as you envision it then.

APPENDIX E

SELF-DESCRIPTION

Directions: After carefully reading each of the statements on the following pages, please write in the blank the letter that indicates how well the item describes you. The letter choices correspond with categories that range from "describes me very well" (a) to "doesn't describe me at all" (f). Please enter only one choice for each statement.

There are no right or wrong answers to these following questions.

Choice of answers:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| a. Describes me very well | d. Doesn't quite describe me |
| b. Describes me well | e. Doesn't really describe me |
| c. Describes me fairly well | f. Doesn't describe me at all |

- ___ 1. I carry many grudges.
- ___ 2. When I am with people, I am afraid that someone will make fun of me.
- ___ 3. Most of the time I think that the world is an exciting place to live in.
- ___ 4. I think that I will be a source of pride to my parents in the future.
- ___ 5. I would not hurt someone just for the "heck of it."
- ___ 6. The recent changes in my body have given me some satisfaction.
- ___ 7. I am going to devote my life to helping others.
- ___ 8. I "lose my head" easily.
- ___ 9. My parents are almost always on the side of someone else, e.g. my brother, or sister.
- ___ 10. The opposite sex finds me a bore.
- ___ 11. If I would be separated from all the people I know, I feel that I would not be able to make a go of it.
- ___ 12. I feel tense most of the time.
- ___ 13. I usually feel out of place at picnics and parties.
- ___ 14. I feel that working is too much responsibility for me.
- ___ 15. My parents will be disappointed in me in the future.
- ___ 16. It is very hard for a teenager to know how to handle sex in a right way.
- ___ 17. At times I have fits of crying and/or laughing that I seem unable to control.
- ___ 18. I am going to devote my life to making as much money as I can.
- ___ 19. If I put my mind to it, I can learn almost anything.
- ___ 20. Only stupid people work.
- ___ 21. Very often I feel that my father is no good.
- ___ 22. I am confused most of the time.
- ___ 23. I feel inferior to most people I know.

Choice of answers:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| a. Describes me very well | d. Doesn't quite describe me |
| b. Describes me well | e. Doesn't really describe me |
| c. Describes me fairly well | f. Doesn't describe me at all |

- ___ 24. Understanding my parents is beyond me.
- ___ 25. I do not like to put things in order and make sense of them.
- ___ 26. I can count on my parents most of the time.
- ___ 27. In the past year I have been worried about my health.
- ___ 28. Dirty jokes are funny at times.
- ___ 29. I often blame myself even when I am not at fault.
- ___ 30. I would not stop at anything if I felt I was done wrong.
- ___ 31. The size of my sex organs is normal.
- ___ 32. Most of the time I am happy.
- ___ 33. I am going to devote myself to making the world a better place to live in.
- ___ 34. I can take criticism without resentment.
- ___ 35. My work, in general, is at least as good as the work of the guy next to me.
- ___ 36. Sometimes I feel so ashamed of myself that I just want to hide in a corner and cry.
- ___ 37. I am sure that I will be proud about my future profession.
- ___ 38. My feelings are easily hurt.
- ___ 39. When a tragedy occurs to one of my friends, I feel sad, too.
- ___ 40. I blame others even when I know that I am at fault, too.
- ___ 41. When I want something, I just sit around wishing I could have it.
- ___ 42. The picture I have of myself in the future satisfies me.
- ___ 43. I am a superior student in school.
- ___ 44. I feel relaxed under normal circumstances.
- ___ 45. I feel empty emotionally most of the time.
- ___ 46. I would rather sit around and loaf than work.
- ___ 47. Even if it were dangerous, I would help someone who is in trouble.
- ___ 48. Telling the truth means nothing to me.
- ___ 49. Our society is a competitive one, and I am not afraid of it.
- ___ 50. I get violent if I don't get my way.
- ___ 51. Most of the time my parents get along well with each other.
- ___ 52. I think that other people just do not like me.
- ___ 53. I find it very difficult to establish new friendships.

Choice of answers:

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| a. Describes me very well | d. Doesn't quite describe me |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|

- b. Describes me well e. Doesn't really describe me
c. Describes me fairly well f. Doesn't describe me at all

- ___ 54. I am so very anxious.
- ___ 55. When my parents are strict, I feel that they are right, even if I get angry.
- ___ 56. Working closely with another fellow never gives me pleasure.
- ___ 57. I am proud of my body.
- ___ 58. At times I think about what kind of work I will do in the future.
- ___ 59. Even under pressure I manage to remain calm.
- ___ 60. When I grow up and have a family, it will be in at least a few ways similar to my own.
- ___ 61. I often feel that I would rather die than go on living.
- ___ 62. I find it extremely hard to make friends.
- ___ 63. I would rather be supported for the rest of my life than work.
- ___ 64. I feel that I have a part in making family decisions.
- ___ 65. I do not mind being corrected, since I can learn from it.
- ___ 66. I feel so very lonely.
- ___ 67. I do not care how my actions affect others as long as I gain something.
- ___ 68. I enjoy life.
- ___ 69. I keep an even temper most of the time.
- ___ 70. A job well done gives me pleasure.
- ___ 71. My parents are usually patient with me.
- ___ 72. I seem to be forced to imitate the people I like.
- ___ 73. Very often parents do not understand a person because they had an unhappy childhood.
- ___ 74. For me good sportsmanship in school is as important as winning a game.
- ___ 75. I prefer being alone with kids my age.
- ___ 76. When I decide to do something, I do it.
- ___ 77. I think that the opposite sex finds me attractive.
- ___ 78. Other people are not after me to take advantage of me.
- ___ 79. I feel that there is plenty I can learn from others.
- ___ 80. I do not attend sexy shows.
- ___ 81. I fear something constantly.

Choice of answers:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| a. Describes me very well | d. Doesn't quite describe me |
| b. Describes me well | e. Doesn't really describe me |
| c. Describes me fairly well | f. Doesn't describe me at all |

- ___ 82. Very often I think that I am not at all the person I would like to be.
- ___ 83. I like to help a friend whenever I can.
- ___ 84. If I know that I will have to face a new situation, I will try in advance to find out as much as is possible about it.
- ___ 85. Usually I feel that I am a bother at home.
- ___ 86. If others disapprove of me I get terribly upset.
- ___ 87. I like one of my parents much better than the other.
- ___ 88. Being together with other people gives me a good feeling.
- ___ 89. Whenever I fail in something, I try to find out what I can do in order to avoid another failure.
- ___ 90. I frequently feel ugly and unattractive.
- ___ 91. Sexually, I am way behind.
- ___ 92. If you confide in others you ask for trouble.
- ___ 93. Even though I am continuously on the go, I seem unable to get things done.
- ___ 94. When others look at me they must think that I am poorly developed.
- ___ 95. My parents are ashamed of me.
- ___ 96. I believe I can tell the real from the fantastic.
- ___ 97. Thinking or talking about sex frightens me.
- ___ 98. I am against giving so much money to the poor.
- ___ 99. I feel strong and healthy.
- ___ 100. Even when I am sad I can enjoy a joke.
- ___ 101. There is nothing wrong with putting oneself before others.
- ___ 102. I try to stay away from home most of the time.
- ___ 103. I find life an endless series of problems--without solution in sight.
- ___ 104. At times I feel like a leader and feel that other kids can learn something from me.
- ___ 105. I feel that I am able to make decisions.
- ___ 106. I have been carrying a grudge against my parents for years.
- ___ 107. I am certain that I will not be able to assume responsibilities for myself in the future.
- ___ 108. When I enter a new room I have a strange and funny feeling.
- ___ 109. I feel that I have no talent whatsoever.

Choice of answers:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| a. Describes me very well | d. Doesn't quite describe me |
| b. Describes me well | e. Doesn't really describe me |
| c. Describes me fairly well | f. Doesn't describe me at all |

- ___ 110. I do not rehearse how I might deal with a real coming event.
- ___ 111. When I am with people I am bothered by hearing strange noises.
- ___ 112. Most of the time my parents are satisfied with me.
- ___ 113. I do not have a particularly difficult time in making friends.
- ___ 114. I do not enjoy solving difficult problems.
- ___ 115. School and studying mean very little to me.
- ___ 116. Eye for an eye and tooth for a tooth does not apply for our society.
- ___ 117. Sexual experiences give me pleasure.
- ___ 118. Very often I feel that my mother is no good.
- ___ 119. Having a girlfriend/boyfriend is important to me.
- ___ 120. I would not like to be associated with those kids who "hit below the belt."
- ___ 121. Worrying a little about one's future helps to make it work out better.
- ___ 122. I often think about sex.
- ___ 123. Usually I control myself.
- ___ 124. I enjoy most parties I go to.
- ___ 125. Dealing with new intellectual subjects is a challenge for me.
- ___ 126. I do not have many fears I cannot understand.
- ___ 127. No one can harm me just by not liking me.
- ___ 128. I am fearful of growing up.
- ___ 129. I repeat things continuously to be sure that I am right.
- ___ 130. I frequently feel sad.

APPENDIX F

ANY REPLY OR SUBSEQUENT REFERENCE
TO THIS COMMUNICATION SHOULD BE
ADDRESSED TO THE SECRETARY
GENERAL AND THE FOLLOWING
REFERENCE QUOTED:

NO. _____

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION & CULTURE
2 NATIONAL HEROES CIRCLE
P.O. BOX 498,
KINGSTON, JAMAICA

April 11 1995

Ms. Sheila Barrett
College of Human Ecology,
Room 110, JHB,
University of Tennessee,
Knoxville, TN, 37996 - 1990

Dear Ms. Barrett,

Thanks for your letter dated April 4, 1995 expressing your interest in doing research regarding self-esteem and academic performance of Common Entrance Scholars attending traditional and non-traditional high schools in Jamaica. This is an area in education that has not been given the attention it deserves in light of the government's plan to upgrade more schools.

I do hope your research will provide needed information on the dynamics of self-esteem and academic performance of high school students. I will be happy to personally oversee and coordinate the collection of data at our high schools. I have already contacted three administrators who have expressed an interest in participating.

Should you have any further concerns or questions please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

Cheryl Barrett
Cheryl Barrett (Miss)
Education Officer
Ministry of Education

APPENDIX G

THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE
KNOXVILLE



College of Human Ecology
Department of Child and Family Studies
1215 West Cumberland Avenue, Room 115
Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-1900
(615) 974-5316

October 19, 1995

Dear Administrator:

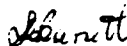
I am a Jamaican graduate student, under the direction of Dr. Delores Smith, conducting research on adolescent development. The purpose of the research is to examine the adolescents' perceptions of themselves and their interactions with their families. The results will help educators to better understand the attitudes and behaviors of adolescents in important areas of their social and emotional development. Our research will be conducted in the United States of America and the Caribbean. Several hundred adolescents will participate in the study.

The researchers are requesting the cooperation of your institution in including your students in the research study. Participation in the study is voluntary. Persons volunteering for participation are requested to complete a questionnaire related to the study. This one-time activity can be completed in approximately one hour. If your institution is willing to participate, we would like to request room space for approximately 45 minutes for the completion of questionnaires. Students will be given a packet containing the research instruments (questionnaires) and will be asked to place the completed instruments in an unsupervised area of their class. Responses will be coded so that participants remain anonymous. Data generated will be group data and cannot be traced back to individual participants or to your institution. No financial cost will result to your institution or to the participants and no additional facilities are needed to execute the project. Also, there are no risks to your institution or to students who participate.

If you are willing to have your institution participate, please sign and forward the release form as soon as possible to Ms. Cheryl Barrett, Planning Unit, Ministry of Education, Kingston 5. Also, please contact Ms. Barrett at 922-1400-9 Extension 4062 with any relevant questions you may have.

Thank you for your cooperation. We look forward to your response.

Sincerely,


Sheila Barrett
Graduate Student


Delores E. Smith, Ph.D.
Student Advisor

APPENDIX H**ADMINISTRATORS' AGREEMENT TO PARTICIPATE
IN THE ADOLESCENCE RESEARCH PROJECT**

Being conducted by
Ms. Sheila Barrett, B.Ed.
Dept. Of Child and Family Studies
University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Name of Institution/Agency: _____

Name of Administrator: _____

Title of Administrator: _____

Address of Institution/Agency: _____

Telephone Number: _____

Please check the appropriate line.

____ Our institution/agency agrees to participate in the Adolescence Research Project.
Assenting subjects whose parents/guardians have given permission for them to
participate will be allowed to complete the survey.

____ Our institution/agency will not participate in the Adolescence Research Project.

Signature of Administrator: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX I

THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE
KNOXVILLE



College of Human Ecology
Department of Child and Family Studies
1215 West Cumberland Avenue, Room 115
Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-1900
(615) 974-5316

October 19, 1995

Dear Participant:

I am a Jamaican graduate student, under the direction of Dr. Delores Smith, doing research on adolescents' attitudes and perceptions of themselves, and their interactions with their families. The research will help educators and others who work with adolescents better understand the feelings, attitudes, and behaviors of young people like you. The research is being conducted in several high schools in Jamaica. You may freely choose to take part or not to take part in this study.

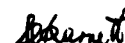
If you choose to take part in this study, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire which will take about one-half hour of your time: some adolescents take considerably less time while others take longer. The items on the questionnaire relate to your feelings and views of yourself and family. The study is planned so that no one else can find out which questionnaire you completed.

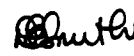
If you agree to participate in the study please be sure to answer each question as truthfully and as seriously as you can. This will give us accurate information. However, if there is an item with which you are absolutely uncomfortable you have the right to skip that item. Since there is no way to identify you with your response we trust that you will respond to all the items. Do NOT put your name or any identifying marks on your questionnaire. After you complete the questionnaire, return it to the envelope, seal the envelope and place it in the box provided by the person in charge of this session.

Thanks for your cooperation. We greatly appreciate your willingness to participate in this study.

If you have any questions or concerns about the project, please feel free to contact Ms. Cheryl Barrett of the Ministry of Education at 922-1400-9, Extension 4062.

Sincerely,


Sheila Barrett
Graduate Student


Delores E. Smith, Ph.D
Faculty Advisor

APPENDIX K

TABLE 4 - 2

TECHNICAL ENTRANCE EXAMINATION FOR ENTRY TO TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOLS
 NUMBER OF ENTRIES AND AWARDS BY PARISH AND SEX
 1992/93

PARISH	ENTRIES			AWARDS			PERCENTAGE
	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	
KINGSTON	420	709	1129	77	106	183	16.2
ST. ANDREW	1172	1726	2898	90	70	160	5.5
ST. THOMAS	78	143	221	8	6	14	6.3
PORTLAND	128	260	388	12	24	36	9.3
ST. MARY	197	339	536	41	27	68	12.7
ST. ANN	424	753	1177	62	61	123	10.5
TRELAWNY	190	324	514	20	14	34	6.6
ST. JAMES	424	651	1075	114	97	211	19.6
HANOVER	88	176	264	7	12	19	7.2
WESTMORELAND	195	367	562	14	7	21	3.7
ST. ELIZABETH	273	658	931	23	37	60	6.4
MANCHESTER	516	921	1437	69	72	141	9.8
CLARENDON	584	1274	1858	12	15	27	1.5
ST. CATHERINE	952	1517	2469	167	148	315	12.8
TOTAL	5641	9818	15459	716	696	1412	9.1

APPENDIX L

DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN JAMAICA
BY SCHOOL TYPE AND PARISH
1973/74

PARISH	INFANT	PRIMARY	ALL AGE	PRIMARY & JUNIOR HIGH	NEW SECONDARY	SECONDARY HIGH	COMPREHENSIVE HIGH	TECHNICAL HIGH	VOCATIONAL AGRIC. HIGH	INDEPENDENT	SPECIAL	COMMUNITY COLLEGES	TEACHERS COLLEGES
KINGSTON	7	18	7	-	6	6	1	2	-	12	-	-	-
ST. ANDREW	-	32	45	2	6	14	5	1	1	74	6	1	3
ST. THOMAS	-	30	10	3	2	2	-	1	-	9	1	-	-
PORTLAND	2	10	23	3	1	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	1
ST. MARY	2	27	30	3	4	2	1	-	1	3	-	-	-
ST. MANN	3	18	40	1	1	5	-	1	-	17	1	1	1
TRELAWNY	1	16	13	2	1	3	1	-	-	-	1	-	-
ST. JAMES	2	13	28	-	2	3	2	1	-	20	1	1	1
HANOVER	1	11	22	1	1	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	-
WESTMORELAND	2	22	33	1	4	1	1	1	-	11	-	-	-
ST. ELIZABETH	-	36	30	1	3	4	1	1	2	11	-	-	1
MANCHESTER	3	10	30	3	3	3	2	1	-	17	-	-	1
CLARENDON	2	30	47	1	6	4	3	1	-	10	1	1	-
ST. CATHERINE	4	40	40	-	6	7	2	2	-	15	-	01	-
TOTAL	20	339	430	21	47	96	23	13	6	100	11	15	9

Source: STATISTICS SECTION
POLICY ANALYSIS & RESEARCH, M.I.O. & STATISTICS
PLANNING & DEVELOPMENT DIVISION
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION & CULTURE

VITA

Sheila Claire Barrett was born in Jamaica, West Indies, on August 24, 1959. She attended Manning's High School in western Jamaica, where she graduated in June, 1977. She pursued post-secondary training at the College of Arts, Science, and Technology (renamed University of Technology, Jamaica, in 1995), Kingston, Jamaica. She obtained a diploma and teacher certification in Home Economics, with a major in Nutrition in 1982, and a Bachelor of Education degree in Home Economics Education, with a major in Nutrition from the same college in 1990.

She taught Nutrition for eight years in the public High schools, then in 1990 she accepted a position of Lecturer of Nutrition at Mico College, Kingston, Jamaica where she trained student-teachers in Nutrition. After four years of service at the post-secondary level, she was awarded the Latin American Scholarship Program of American Universities (LASPAU) Fullbright scholarship in 1994 tenable at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee where she recieved a Master of Science degree in Human Ecology in August, 1996. She resumed her position at Mico College, Kingston, Jamaica, in September, 1996.

Her interest in self-esteem issues and academic performance of students in traditional and non-traditional High schools partly stemmed from the fact that she is a product of both types of schools. She attended both non-traditional and traditional schools in Jamaica, therefore she is aware of the differences associated with both groups of students having been a part of the educational system described in this study.