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THE EFFECTS OF A CLASSROOM SELF-AWARENESS PROGRAM ON SELF-CONCEPT AND MOTIVATION TOWARD SCHOOL

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Education

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Deborah R. Taylor

March 1978

1356893

DEDICATION

TO THOSE SPECIAL PEOPLE

WHO HAVE BEEN THE POSITIVE MOTIVATION FORCES

IN MY LIFE:

GENE, MAMA, DADDY, PAUL, SONNY.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to determine if an affective classroom technique of self-awareness activities could enhance student self-concept as measured by a semantic differential. Secondly, the study explored the effects of these same techniques on student motivation toward school, using as an instrument the Junior Index of Motivation. Both the semantic differential and the Junior Index of Motivation were used as pretests and posttests. The experimental treatment group was exposed to twenty self-awareness sessions, while the placebo treatment group participated in twenty free reading periods. The Mann-Whitney U test was used as a means of statistical analysis, and all null hypotheses were not to be rejected at the .05 level of significance. There was no significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores for either group, and when the experimental group was compared to the placebo experimental group, the posttest scores yielded no significant differences. Thus, the affective program did not enhance either a more positive self-concept or a higher motivation toward school.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. Need for the Study

Educators, in search of more effective means of facilitation learning in the classroom, have become more and more cognizant of the affective domain and how it can be incorporated with the regular curriculum to optimize both teaching and learning. Experts in the field agree on the notion that psycho-social development has a powerful effect on the academic performances of children and adolescents. Thus, it seems logical that schools must place increased emphasis on the emotional, as well as the academic, needs of students (Glasser, 1969; Levine, 1973; Patterson, 1973).

The cognitive domain focuses on the acquisition of skills or the process of learning in terms of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, and synthesis (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, and Krathwohl, 1972). As defined by Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia (1971), the affective domain deals with emotion in terms of valuing, organization and characterization by values, attending or receiving, and responding. In addition to a concern for and the promotion of cognitive growth, schools should incorporate affective strategies in the curriculum in order to facilitate positive changes in feelings, attitudes, values, and

self-concept. The total child consists of both the academic performance he or she demonstrates and the internal feelings that he or she has in regard to self and the environment. If these feelings are positive ones, it is likely that the child will be more receptive to learning and perform at a higher academic level (Levine, 1973). Educators should incorporate humanistic techniques as an inextricable part of the school experience if students are to think and feel in addition to pursuing the route of becoming super-intellectuals and too often only mechanical automatons (Patterson, 1973).

B. Definition of Terms

Self-concept. Self-concept is defined as the score on the semantic differential instrument which measures how the individual views the self as a student, a friend, and a total person. Also it is the total view a person has of himself or herself, based on his or her experiences and interactions with both people and environment (Dinkmeyer, 1965; Felker, 1974). A positive self-concept relates to feeling good about oneself, and a negative self-concept refers to the lack of self-acceptance (Dinkmeyer, 1965).

Motivation. Motivation or motivation toward school is the score of the Junior Index of Motivation, and it is also defined as the need to achieve, which is acquired, not inborn, and it is related to how a student perceives school (Arkava, 1969; Clark, 1970; Frymier, 1970).

Affective education. Affective education is the emphasis of the self-awareness sessions of the present study. The focus of the affective domain is the "human reaction" to learning or the school experience as exemplified in feelings and emotions (Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia, 1971).

Self-awareness. Self-awareness refers to the focus of group and individual experiences that are both verbal and written with an emphasis on identifying positive feelings about oneself and recognizing one's strengths.

Strengths. Strengths, emphasized in the self-awareness sessions, are those personality traits and "unique resources and assets" that can be recognized and released to bring the individual to a state of self-actualization (Otto, 1967).

Group facilitators. Group facilitators is a term that refers to the leaders of the self-awareness activities for the experimental group.

C. Statement of the Problem

The present study investigated to what extent an affective classroom technique can affect self-concept and motivation toward school. Debates exist in the literature related to the extent that classroom approaches in affective education can change self-concept or motivation. Although the present study was not designed to be conclusive or to settle a dispute, it adds to the previously established findings in regard to programs implemented for the enhancing

of both self-concept and motivation toward school.

When compared to previous studies, the present study differs primarily in terms of methods and procedures. Previous studies which used adolescent subjects are minimal. Therefore, the researcher selected adolescents as subjects. Also, related studies used standardized instruments to measure self-concept as opposed to self-reporting, essays, or interviews. Thus, the researcher used the semantic differential as an alternative to standardized self-concept measurement. In relation to the measurement of motivation, other studies on self concept did not use motivation as a variable, though it was mentioned as being related to self-concept. In view of this, the researcher added motivation toward school as a variable, using the Junior Index of Motivation as the instrument by which to measure motivation toward school.

In addition to the target population and instrumentation, the present study has differed in treatment conditions. The specific group activities used by the researcher were different from those of related research in that the combination of activities was not like that of other studies, and each activity focused on individual strengths, which all activities of other studies did not do.

The emphasis of the self-awareness activities was placed on the identification, development, and utilization of potential as defined by positive personality traits and skills that people often do not perceive in themselves,

thus stifling their capabilities. Lying within each person are dormant capacities of which the individual is unaware, and if he or she would identify these strengths and activate them, his or her life experiences would likely be more positive because of the increased awareness of one's strengths and a decreased cognizance of weaknesses (Otto, 1967; Thompson and Poppen, 1972). If one recognizes his positive qualities, he or she has a healthy self-concept, which, as implied by research, may be a prerequisite for adequate achievement in school. On the other hand, constant emphasis on weaknesses seems detrimental, possibly stifling school achievement. Thus, the focus on strengths is established as a strategy of positive self-concept enhancement, emphasizing strength recognition and release.

Usually program implementation has been in the form of short treatment periods that are sporadic (not daily) in nature. In the present study, a short period of treatment was used, but daily activities were used as opposed to activity periods of only two or three times a week.

Deriving serious implication from previous studies, the researcher established a unique study. Alternatives to previously used instruments, target populations, and treatment periouds were devised. The present study is not meant to be conclusive in terms of whether self-concept and motivation toward school can or cannot be taught to adolescents or if treatment can modify either

self-concept or motivation in adolescents, but the researcher has added unique data to the findings that have resulted from other studies.

Basically, the population centered on by most related research has been the elementary school population (Eldridge, Barcikowski, and Witmer, 1973; Kindall, 1975; Payne and Dunn, 1970; McRae, 1972). Also research has focused on the nursery school population (Landry, Schilson, and Pardew, 1974.) However, some researchers moved toward the adolescent years by working with sixth, seventh, and eighth graders (Shulman, Ford and Busk, 1973). Bypassing the high school student, other researchers selected college students for subjects (Little, 1971; Hardwick, 1970). In view of the limited research available on affective education with the adolescent, it seemed advisable to the researcher to focus on adolescents with tenth graders as subjects.

As another source of conflict in related studies, instrumentation has been cited, especially in terms of standardized instruments for self-concept. In the studies by Hardwick (1970) and Little (1971) on college students, the Tennessee Self-concept Scale was seen as unfit to measure change. On the other hand, McRae (1972) used the Tennessee Self-concept Scale successfully on his study of sixth graders who participated in a counseling program. Schulman, Ford, and Busk (1973) also found a self-concept change in sixth, seventh, and eighth graders by using the

How I See Myself Scale, and positive results were also found by Landry, Schilson, and Pardew (1974) with nursery school children's use of the Thomas Self-concept Values Test. Thus, studies have shown both change and a lack of change with standardized instruments. In view of this, the researcher decided to evaluate affective education through the use of a non-standardized measure of self-concept by devising a semantic differential technique.

In addition to instrumentation, treatment schedules have been cited as contributors to conflicting results of related studies. Daily treatment sessions have presented both positive and negative results with standardized instruments. For example, Eldridge, Barcikowski, and Witmer (1973) found almost no significant differences in self-concept of second graders who participated in the Developing Understanding of Self and Others (DUSO) program for five weeks of daily thirty minute sessions. The prestest instrument was the Children's Self-concept Index, and three posttest instruments were used with significant changes only applicable to the DUSO Affectivity Device. No significant differences were revealed by the California Test of Personality or the Piers-Harris Children's Self-concept Scale. The researchers concluded that the length of the program was not adequate to show changes on the instruments used.

Conversely, studies have shown changes in self-concept with treatment conditions and measurement similar to the

aforemention. Payne and Dunn (1970) found higher posttest scores in disadvantaged fourth and fifth graders who had participated in group couseling sessions for fifty minutes a week, using for measurement an instrument somewhat like a semantic differential. Likewise, Kindall (1975) found slight changes in the self-concepts of elementary school pupils who participated in 27 awareness sessions for nine weeks, with three thirty minute sessions being held weekly. The Self-observation Scale and the How I See Myself Form were used for evaluation. Thus, various measurement techniques and treatment conditions result in varying conclusions or findings. Consequently, the researcher saw the basic problems in self-concept research as securing instruments that would be sensitive to change and establishing strategies that are scheduled for affecting change.

Hence, the researcher coupled a non-standardized instrument for self-concept, the semantic differential, with a standardized means of evaluating motivation toward school, the Junior Index of Motivation. Also the treatment and conditions were established with characteristics both similar and different from other programs. Instead of five, nine or eighteen weeks of daily or intermittent sessions, the researcher conducted a four week program of daily self-awareness sessions. The results only add to previous findings; they are not conclusive in terms of which instruments are more sensitive to change or which treatment schedules are more conducive to change or the lack of change.

The aim of the present study was to evaluate a self-awareness technique with adolescent high school students to ascertain if self-concept, as measured by a semantic differential, can be modified in a positive direction. In addition, pretest and posttest scores between two groups on the Junior Index of Motivation were analyzed to test for significant changes in the level of motivation between two groups after treatment by way of a self-awareness program and placebo treatment by way of free reading.

D. Hypotheses

In view of the assertations that affective classroom techniques con positively affect the self-concept and motivation toward school, the following hypotheses were established in the null form, with hypotheses 7, 8, 9, and 12 being the crucial ones and of greater emphasis in the discussion of the results of the statistical analyses.

Hypothesis 1. Students who participated in the twenty self-awareness activities of group A will show no significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores on the concept of "me as a student" as measured by a semantic differential technique.

Hypothesis 2. Students who participated in the twenty self-awareness activities of group A will show no significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores on the concept of "me as a friend" as measured by a semantic differential technique.

Hypothesis 3. Students who participated in the twenty self-awareness activities of group A will show no significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores on the concept of "the total me" as measured by a semantic differential technique.

Hypothesis 4. Students who participated in the twenty free reading sessions of group B will show no significant differences between the pretest and posttest scores on the concept of "me as a student" as measured by a semantic differential technique.

Hypothesis 5. Students who participated in the twenty free reading sessions of group B will show no significant differences between the pretest and posttest scores on the concept of "me as a friend" as measured by a semantic differential technique.

Hypothesis 6. Students who participated in the twenty free reading sessions of group B will show no significant differences between the pretest and posttest scores on the concept of "the total me" as measured by a semantic differential technique.

Hypothesis 7. Posttest scores between subjects in group A, which consisted of students who participated in twenty self-awareness sessions, and subjects in group B, which consisted of students who participated in twenty free reading sessions, will not differ significantly on the concept of "me as a student" as measured by a semantic differential technique.

Hypothesis 8. Posttest scores between subjects in group A, which consisted of students who participated in twenty self-awareness sessions, and subjects in group B, which consisted of students who participated in twenty free reading sessions, will not differ significantly on the concept of "me as a friend" as measured by a semantic differential technique.

Hypothesis 9. Posttest scores between subjects in group A, which consisted of students who participated in twenty self-awareness sessions, and subjects in group B, which consisted of students who participated in twenty free reading sessions, will not differ significantly on the concept of "the total me" as measured by a semantic differential technique.

Hypothesis 10. Students in group A, the self-awareness group, will show no significant differences between the pretest and posttest scores on motivation toward school, as measured by the JIM Scale.

Hypothesis 11. Students in group B, the free reading group, will show no significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores on motivation toward school as measured by the JIM Scale.

Hypothesis 12. Students in groups A and B, the self-awareness group and the free reading group, will show no significant difference between the posttest scores on motivation toward school as measured by the JIM Scale.

Consequently, the hypotheses of the present study are designed to determine if either the experimental self-awareness sessions or the placebo treatment of free reading had a positive effect on motivation and self-concept. The discussion of the results of statistical analyses will focus on the comparison of pretest and posttest scores on the semantic differential measuring the variables, "me as a student," "me as a friend," and "the total me" and the Junior Index of Motivation, which was used to measure motivation toward school.

E. Organization of the Study

The first chapter, an introduction, establishes the need for the study in terms of the impact that affective education may have of the academic and emotional selves of children. Terms related to the study are defined, and the statement of the problem is given, specifying studies that relate to the present study. Null hypothesis are also stated briefly and discussed.

The second chapter reviews the related literature, discussion the theoretical bases of self-concept and motivation and citing specific studies that deal with each of these areas.

The third chapter describes the procedures of the present study. It gives characteristics of the subjects, teacher, group facilitators and school setting, and describes

the instruments used in the study. The chapter also discusses the obtaining of consent, the administration of the pretests, assignment to treatment groups, the activities of each group, and the administration of the posttests.

The fourth chapter discusses the statistical analysis of the present study, describing the Friedman Analysis of Variance Test and the Mann Whitney U Test. The tables of the analyses are presented and explained in realtion to the efficacy of the treatment on self-concept and motivation.

The fifth chapter discusses the results of the study, citing specific conclusions and summarizing the procedures. Recommendations and implications for further study are given.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Theoretical Bases of Self-Concept

Self-concept is seen as a "...dynamic circular force in human lives...." It begins in infancy, where people in the home, school, or community or significant others help an individual form feelings about himself or herself (Felker, 1974; Purkey, 1970). These feelings will affect the way in which a person acts in certain situations and determines expectations. The actions, interpretations, and expectations are said to be consistent with the feelings about the self.

Havighurst, Robinsion, and Dorr (1946) conducted a study that led to the development of an ego ideal or ideal self theory, based on the child's identity with significant others--those he or she loves, admires, fears--as he or she imitates values and attitudes. These significant others are many, but they can be broadly categorized as parents, teachers, peers, other adults, fictional heroes, and others that cannot be classified. The ego ideal is a composite identification with all significant others. As a result, the ideal self guides values, actions, roles, and personality.

The theory of the ego ideal was derived by the data gathered in the study conducted by the aforementioned

researchers. The essay, "The Person I Would Like to Be Like," was written by each subject in the experiment, and this led to an intricate classification system of the significant others.

P - parents, adult relatives of the parent or grandparent ages--this category received a high percentage of references in the essays, most frequently coming from the 6-8 year olds

S - "parent surrogates" such as teachers and parent-aged neighbors--a category seldom indicated by the subjects

G - "glamorous adults" such as actors, actresses, athletes, and so on--received a high percentage of responses by the students with the 8-16 year olds having the most frequent references

H - "heroes" with a substantial degree of fame were seldom referred to as whom students wanted to be like

A - "attractive/successful young adults" within the child's range of observation were frequently mentioned by both 8-10 year olds and adolescents

C - composite or imaginary persons ranked high in responses

M - peers of the same age or a maximum of three years older were frequently mentioned

NC - this category was one given minimal responses and it is not classifiable.

The study obviously indicates the importance of significant others in the development of the self-concept. A variety of people affect self-concept development during adolescent years. Consequently, the Havighurst et. al. study (1946) lends serious implications for research in

education, since teachers are considered significant others.

Since the present study focuses on the adolescent, the theories discussed herein will deal with the development of the self-concept in adolescence. Those who have explored self-concept see the adolescent period of a child's development as the most strenuous.

Adolescence is a period of dramatic changes when compared to childhood because of a complex "psycho-social-biological phenomenon" described by Felker (1974). The catalysts of growth during this period are puberty, society's push for adolescent independence, greater peer influence, and the increase of intellectual activity. There are several characteristics that develop as a result of this phenomenon:

1. a high degree of moodiness
2. high levels of frustration often characterized by tears and screaming in girls and unexpected agressive outbursts in boys
3. a general increase in verbal agression in both males and females
4. development of sexuality
5. high level of anxiety
6. confusion in dealing with new drives, possibly feeling a lack of control
7. ambiguity of being in neither a state of childhood nor a state of adulthood

How an adolescent deals with these changes could possibly be dependent on the self-concept. Morse (1954) theorizes that the self-concept begins to drop at grades 3-5 with a slight recovery at grade 11. Thus, between grades 3 and 11 a negative self-concept could adversely affect how an individual deals with adolescent transitions and pressures. Felker (1974) states that such adolescent changes

as the aforementioned can make it virtually impossible for the individual to be happy but if happiness is to be reached, "...the child who...enters adolescence with a positive self-concept has the best chance of weathering the assaults." It seems logical that a successful adolescent experience is essential to strong mental health.

In relation to mental health, Dinkmeyer, Carlson, and Koveal (1975) theorize that the development of one's mental health is dependent upon the self-concept, and they found a negative correlation between anxiety and self-concept and adjustment and self-concept. The correlations were larger when related to school experiences that provoked a less than favorable self-concept. In view of the theories surrounding self-concept, it can be suggested that teachers must understand students and aid them in understanding themselves. Dinkmeyer et al. (1975) enumerate ways of doing this in the classroom. The physical surroundings must be warm and non-threatening, exemplified by both verbal and non-verbal approaches. There must be open communication and sharing of selves by both teachers and students. A warm atmosphere is more likely to enhance the development of a positive self-concept.

B. Theoretical Bases of Motivation

Motivation, in the broad sense, relates to energy and enthusiasm (Frymier, 1965), but as it specifically relates to school, it deals with the energy and enthusiasm that students have or do not have toward learning. Motivation can be affected by the teacher (Frymier, 1968), and the lack of it equals a lack of academic effort by the student (Wilson, 1975). The whole concept of motivation has its roots in the experiences of individuals (Frymier, 1964).

Freud, in relation to feelings of worth, capitalized on the postulate that man maximizes pleasure and minimizes pain, connecting this to a theory of a hedonistic, tension-reductionistic, or homeostatic perspective of motivation. He focuses on the unconscious motive to seek pleasure and avoid pain as a ongoing process of man. In opposition, the self-actualization view is based on individualistic motivation in which man strives to enhance himself and is not satisfied to remain in a position of equilibrium. When all basic needs are met, the person creatively seeks to be autonomous (Clark, 1970).

Thus, motivation focuses on the <u>why</u> of behavior, and in relation to learning or academic motivation, it goes beyond high level achievement. The internal-external dimension deals with that desire to learn which is within the individual, and this interacts with external or environmental

factors such as people, places, materials, and the like. The dimension of intake-output refers to ways people learn. Intake relates to seeking to know by reading and/or listening. The output refers to learners who are more agressive and talk or write the ideas generated within their minds. Consequently, all of the dimensions interact to form patterns of both "positive" and "negative" motivation (Frymier, 1970b).

Motivation relates to values, environmental stimulation, personality, and the like. All of these things interact, causing the development of either high or low motivation. The values of the student focus on his or her beliefs on what is considered of greater or lesser worth. This value system affects responses to teachers and learning. Also the personality affects whether or not the student is open-minded or close-minded in relation to learning.

Curiosity, as another component of motivation, exists only when the physical and social needs are met. At this point students are ready to solve problems. The degree of motivation is related to types of experiences, feelings, of adequacy or inadequacy, things cherished, and kinds of social interaction (Frymier, 1970b).

C. Related Literature on Self-concept

The self-concept has been directly linked to many phenomena of the intellectual developmental years. Stanwyck (1972) found that the positive self-concept tends to drop between grades seven and eight, suggesting that school may negatively affect the self-concept. Morse (1964) conducted a study that revealed a drop in healthy self-concept between grades four and five in relation to both self-regard and school self-esteem, support the assertion that the successful student sees himself or herself positively, having feelings of worth, competence, and confidence (Gowan, 1960; Brunkan and Sheni, 1966; Farls, 1967; Ringness, 1961; Taylor, 1964). On the other hand, the unsuccessful student has a less positive or a negative self-concept because he or she sees himself or herself as unable to do tasks, he or she is less eager, confidence is minimal, and the student feels less acceptable to others (Goldberg, 1960; Shaw, 1963; Combs, 1963; Durr and Schwartz, 1964; Harding, 1966; Brookover, Erickson, and Joiner 1967). These references to achievement and self-concept studies apparently support theories of the effects of the child's school experiences on his or her self-concept. The school environment and the child's attitudes interact to develop self support.

The findings on school experiences focus on self-concept and achievement: such studies motivated the present study in that previous research indicates that a positive self-concept

is essential for adequate school achievement. Fink (1962) found this to be true specifically with males, with this being supported by Roth and Puri (1967) and Sears (1970), yet sex has not been the only variable used to show the importance of the positive self-concept to learning.

Most achievement studies have compared actual performance, such as the grade point average, with the self-concept. Binder, Jones, and Strowig (1970) found that even with ability measures to predict actual achievement, the self-concept can be used as an aid in predicting school achievement, using as a basis the tenet that health self-concept yields low achievement. Brookover (1964) studied 1,051 seventh grade urban whites who were given a Self-concept of Ability Scale to determine their perceptions of their abilities in general and in specific school subjects. The results of the self-concept scale were compared with IQ test scores and grade point averages in general and in relation to specific subject areas. Thus, how a student views his or her own capabilities in relation to school can affect his or her actual school performance.

Besides research based on overall performance, studies have been conducted that place emphasis on specific subject areas only. Bodwin (1957) examined the perception of self in terms of self-confidence, self-expression, liking self, self-satisfaction, and feelings of being appreciated by others, linking the findings to disabilities in math and reading

with sixth graders; the greater relationship was in the area of reading problems. In support, Cummings (1970) found that students with positive self-concepts score high in reading, and students with negative self-concepts score lower. This research seems to conclude that a definite relationship between the self-concept and achievement in these specific areas is likely, and reading is an area of great focus.

Since self-concept has been linked to the grades of students, it is reasonable to assume that self-concept can also be related to the promotion and demotion of students, defining promotion as moving to the next higher grade and demotion as remaining at the present grade. White and Howard (1973) related self-concept to both success and promotion and failure and demotion. Those students who are promoted receive positive evaluations from the significant others in the school setting such as teachers, counselors, and administrators. On the other hand, those students who are demoted receive negative evaluations from the significant others. The researchers found that sixth graders in both rural and urban schools had higher self-concepts if they had been promoted, and the demoted students scored negatively on self-concept, with their self images decreasing the greater the frequency of demotion. The Tennessee Self-concept Scale was used to measure self-concept, and there was no evidence that either promotion or demotion affected the self-concept of either sex differently. Thus,

the researchers have presented more support for the contention that the school experience can develop either feelings in inadequacy or feelings of adequacy in children. Such results are valuable to the broad areas of achievement and self-concept as separate or related entities of student appraisal.

Besides touching on the areas of intellectual development and achievement, self-concept research has presented inferences related to other significant problems of child and adolescent development. For example, inadequate self-concept is connected with high levels of anxiety in general or that related to tests in school (Coopersmith, 1959; Cowen, Zax, Klein, Izzo and Trost, 1965; Durrett, 1965; Lipsitt, 1958; Pilisuk, 1963; Rosenburg, 1963; Stanwyck and Felker, 1971) and acceptance of body types that deviate from the norm, such as the obese, the handicapped (physically), and so on (Caskey and Felker, 1971; Craig, 1965; Felker and Kay, 1971; Kay, Felker and Varoz, 1972; Richardson and Emerson, 1970; Staffieri, 1967). These findings, as diverse as they are, seem supportive of the theory that self-concept is correlative with other aspects of the child and adolescent experience in terms of the development of the individual.

In addition to studies on student-centered programs and their effects on self-concept, researchers have investigated the teacher's effect on self-concept. Bedrosian, Nathir, and Pearlman (1970) noted significant differences in the self-concepts of students who participated in guidance classes

on self-understanding that were taught by the teacher as opposed to counselors. The subjects were fourth graders in three suburban elementary schools, with one school as a control group, one with a counselor as facilitator, and the other group facilitator was the teacher. The students in their teacher's group showed a significant difference at the .01 level in relation to their self-concepts as measured by a questionnaire designed by Pearlman. As support, Costello (1964) found that teacher praise yields better performance regardless of student ability. These findings provide thought-provoking suggestions for the role of the teacher as a means of promoting the affective in the cognative setting.

D. Related Literature on Motivation

Research in the area of self-concept and motivation toward school is minimal, but it reveals the feelings that students have about their experiences in the school setting. Frymier (1964), using the Junior Index of Motivation (JIM Scale), found that students feel that they have little control over their lives, and he connected self-concept with motivation, implying that social needs as well as academic learning are to be considered by schools.

Frymier (1965), Frymier (1968) and Geisler (1968) imply that one of education's primary functions is to enhance the need to learn. Low motivation, a term used by many researchers

who explore motivation toward school, is defined as a lack of happiness because the student is obsessed with fear and has little or no self-confidence, feeling as though there is a complete lack of self-control; school, for this person, is unpleasant, which parallels to that state of having a negative self-concept.

On the other hand, high motivation is based on feelings of competency and valuing of both the abstract and the general. Girls are found to be more motivated than boys and socioeconomic level has been linked to motivation (Frymier, 1968). Seemingly, most research focuses on motivation and the educational problems that are parallel.

Centi (1965) states the value conflicts involved in how students feel about school. For example, society emphasizes sports, which can have a negative effect on motivation, especially for males. Parents may exert pressure, peer group influence may be heavy, and school practices could be very stiff in regard to placing high value on the athlete as opposed to the scholar. (With Title IX legislation, girls may also feel this pressure.) At present, females are often expected to pursue heterosexual relationships over academic excellence. In either situation, the student's motivation seems likely to be affected by such values.

Not only do societal and personal values affect motivation, the school plays a major role in the forming of either high or low motivation toward school. This relates

to both atmosphere and practice. Bower, Boyer, and Scheirer (1970) cite studies that indicate that verbal praise, written comments on test papers, less dominating teaching practices, and teacher warmth all contribute to strengthening motivation toward school.

Stating philosophical support of the cited studies, Centi (1965) feels that the schools and their practices are causative factors in motivation problems. He is highly critical of the climates, policies, and programs of educational institutions. He sees grading as either too liberal or too severe, stating that low grades do not always improve initiative, and with liberal grading, the desire to excel may lessen. The course loads are seen as heavy and emphasize competition, not learning. Therefore, students push themselves to keep up with the pace. In regard to discipline, it seems that rigid and set policies may hamper growth, frustrate and antagonize the student, or cause him or her to resent school. Seemingly, the value system of the school power structure is indicative of the existing low degrees of student motivation toward school.

Researchers have gone beyond making the assertions on the school's role in motivation and have actually dealt closely with performance level and motivational levels. For example, Arkava (1969) worked with talented underachievers where their records were reviewed before they were counseled individually. At the end of three months, the retested students showed significant differences in academic

achievement. In other work with the underachieving student, Ross (1967) found no serious emotional problems surfacing on projective tests, but there did exist a passive and unresponsive nature compounded by fear of dealing the different situations, which indicates that personality factors influence motivation.

In reference to the personality and feelings toward school, studies referred to by Bower et al. (1970) indicate that anxiety and self-concept are related to motivation, even moreso than intelligence. As a parallel to self-concept decline from grades three to eight, motivation suffers a drop during these same school years. Thus, several variables may interact in comprising the level of motivation toward school.

Educators are faced with the problem of how to motivate students. Many researchers have investigated ways of doing this by some type of program implementation. Geisler (1968) found that the Upward Bound Program was effective in obtaining a significant difference in grade point average, with a strong correlation between self-concept and motivation. Van Derbur (1974) was successful in increasing motivation by using an eight class mini-course on success and failure. Thus, it seems that a high level of motivation can be enhanced by adequate programming.

Examining the extreme effects of negative feelings toward school shows that low motivation is a prerequisite for students who are dropping out of school. The student

becomes so frustrated with failure in the classroom and other negative experiences in school that he or she is unable to cope with being a student. Dropout rates increase, but these dropouts can be rehabilitated and dropout rates stifled by the use of affective programs (Bower, et al., 1970). It seems as though counseling and other affective activities can improve both attitudes and performance in relation to school.

In summary, a review of literature shows that the self-concept and motivation toward school have both been related to the many phases of child and adolescent development and school-related behaviors. Attempts at using the school as a catalyst for change have been made both successfully and unsuccessfully.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

A. Subjects

Out of a total population of 157 tenth graders, an intact group of 32 students in a high school English class was the target of the study. The class met daily from 2:35 p.m. until 3:30 p.m. Subjects were predominately white, having only two Oriental members. There were 11 males and 21 females in the class. All of the students were from similar socio-economic backgrounds, with parents being of a lower middle-class economic status, having 23 non-professional and nine professional careers, according to job titles, with both parents usually working. Based on grades earned in all classes during the current academic year, the academic ability of the class was predominately that of a C average, with only ten students on an above average level (A, B) and with six students performing below the average level (D, F).

B. Teacher

The teacher of the intact group was also the researcher. She was black, aged 25 and had been teaching English for four years. She held a Bachelor of Science degree in English Education and a Master of Science degree in Educational Psychology and Guidance, and she was conducting the present study for her doctoral dissertation.

C. Group Facilitators

The teacher-researcher served alternately with two assistants as facilitators for the experimental group.

The assistants were graduate students in the department of Educational Psychology and Guidance at the Univeristy of Tennessee. They were both white females in their twenties and were pursuing the Master of Science degree.

D. Setting

The school in which the study was conducted was an inner-city junior and senior high school in Knoxville, Tennessee. The approximately 750 students in grades 7-12 were predominately white, as were the faculty members and the administrators. There were only three black and no other non-white teachers.

E. Instruments

The semantic differential (SD) technique was used to measure self-concept in terms of "me as a friend," "me as a student," and "the total me." (Appendix C)

This subjective instrument was devised by the researcher and was based on Osgood's method of measuring the meaning of concepts. The SD can be defined as a point on a continuum, a point between two poles, or a point between the semantic space that shows all possible meanings of one concept. The point marked by the respondent represents the individual's

meaning of the concept. The points on the scale are between bipolar adjective pairs, and a seven point scale is used.

The semantic differential is characterized by three dimensions. The evaluative factor is attitudinal and measures goodness, such as designating a point on the scale between kind and unkind. The potency factor measures strength as in weak and strong, and the activity factor measures motion as shown by slow and fast. Consequently, the researcher used only the evaluative dimension because the intent of the study was to measure the attitude that the students felt toward themselves, and the evaluative factor is seen as a variable of attitude. The subjects are, in essence, evaluating themselves. The lack of empirical research provides no other justification of eliminating the potency and activity dimensions. In addition, the experimenter used reversals of the adjective pairs to guard against a response set (Kerlinger, 1964; Osgood and Suci, 1957; Snider and Osgood, 1969; Wylie, 1974).

The SD was primarily selected because of its sensitivity to change in attitude, though no standardized SD exists for self-concept measurement. The instrument was also used because of its quickness in administering and the minimal expense (Kerlinger, 1964; Grigg, 1959; Yonker, Blixt, and Dinero, 1974).

The second instrument used in the present study was the Junior Index of Motivation (JIM Scale), devised by Jack R. Frymier. (Appendix D) In developing the instrument, Frymier

sought items that facilitated easy responding, lacked ambiguity, and items that would be somewhat projective as the respondent deals with choosing from two alternatives--strong or slight support, or strong or slight opposition. The test can be administered in the natural setting of the classroom, and the classroom teacher can score and interpret the results. It is an adequate tool for use with adolescents because it can be adapted for ages 12-18. The reliability is .83 on a split half correct analysis of the 10-12 grade levels, and it has a test-retest reliability of .70 based on the 7-8 grade levels. Validity was determined by comparing teacher estimations of academic motivation of adolescent students. Those students whose teachers estimated them as highly motivated scored significantly higher on the JIM Scale than students who had been estimated to have low motivation. An E ratio of 181.84 supports the notion that the Jim Scale is a valid measure of motivation (Frymier, 1965; Frymier, 1970).

F. Procedures

The researcher used as subjects the students of an intact group of tenth grade students at a predominately white urban school. In order to participate in the study, the students had to sign consent forms as required by the University of Tennessee Committee on Research Using Human Subjects. The form explained the nature of the study, insured confidentiality, and stated the students' rights for withdrawal of consent and access to results. It was explained

that the study would be for a doctoral dissertation and would be supervised by professors from the Department of Educational Psychology and Guidance at the University of Tennessee. (Appendix A) Since all of the subjects were under 18, the parents also had to sign a similar consent form with information added on the fact that the study would not be detrimental to the child and that it was sanctioned by officials of the Knoxville City Schools. (Appendix B)

Initially four of the 32 students did not give consent for participation and thus were not assigned to treatment groups. No data could legally be collected on these students. Thus, each resulting group was to be an equal size of 14 subjects.

Students, prior to pretesting, were randomly assigned to treatment groups. The 28 names were placed in a container and were randomly drawn and alternately assigned to treatment group A or placebo treatment group B. Of the 14 subjects in group A, six persons dropped out under the provisions of the student consent form. (Appendix A) In group B, two students dropped out under the same provisions. The the resulting groups consisted of eight subjects in group A and 12 subjects in group B. Pretest data is available on the dropouts, since consent was given up to the point of dropping out.

All participants were white, due to the withdrawal of consent of the two Oriental students. In group A there were four males and four females, with two having average overall achievement, three excelling, and three performing below

grade level. Three participants had professional parents, while the other five had parents who were non-professional. In examining the characteristics of students in group B, there were four males and eight females, with six performing at the average level of achievement, four making above average grades, and two at the underachieving level. All levels of academic achievement were based on performance in all classes for the current school year. Four students were from professional backgrounds, and the remaining eight had non-professional parents.

After getting official sanction from school officials and having consent forms submitted, the subjects were given a pretest on self-concept, using the semantic differential. Four weeks later they were given a second self-concept pretest, again using the semantic differential, with the subjects serving as their own controls between the period of the first and second pretests, thus being compared only to themselves in the absence of a control group. Subjects were concomittantly, at the second pretest on self-concept, given the JIM Scale, and pretest on motivation toward school.

Following the pretesting and the signing of contracts on not disclosing activities of either group, the subjects began to participate in the activities of either treatment group A or placebo treatment group B, the groups to which students had been randomly assigned. The duration of the group participation was four weeks on a daily basis, with

20 thirty minute sessions at 2:35 p.mp in the regular classroom setting.

At the end of the treatment period, the subjects were posttested on the semantic differential for self-concept scores and the JIM Scale on motivation toward school for a level of motivation score. Statistical treatment of data provided results which showed the relative efficacy of the treatment conditions on students' attitudes toward "me as a student," "me as a friend," and "the total me."

The subjects in group A were exposed to treatment by way of 20 sessions on self-awareness, where the participants were to focus on identifying themselves by their positive attributes. The sessions were held for four weeks for five days a week, with each session lasting 30 minutes. The sessions were held in a classroom setting with the students sitting in a circle. Students rotated seats during sessions. The facilitators also sat in different areas of the circle during each treatment session.

Group B participated in a placebo treatment of free reading. the same time schedule was followed, but a facilitator was not always present. The teacher-researcher was present on the four days that she did not have to lead a session for group A in the absence of either of the other facilitators.

Each participant signed a contract, agreeing not to discuss the activities of his or her group with members of

the other group. This was to minimize communication that might have affected the posttest data.

After the contracts were signed, the experimental and placebo treatments began. On a daily basis, students in group B read materials brought to the classroom or those available in the classroom: comic books, novels, newspapers, magazines, poems, or plays. The daily reading sessions lasted 30 minutes each.

The students in group A interacted in a group daily for the same 30 minute period, with activities focusing on self-awareness in terms of the identification of strengths. the sessions were conducted in a manner described in the following paragraphs.

Session One. This activity was based on self-posters, an adaptation of self-boxes (Davis, 1974). The focus of the session was on the question, "Who am I?" The group facilitator had, beforehand, prepared a self-poster, which consisted of a poster board covered with magazine pictures and words cut from magazines that described her. She shared the self-poster with the entire group by explaining each picture or word and how it related to her. Then each student made a list of his or her interests, feelings, beliefs, likes, dislikes, personality traits, physical characteristics, and valued possessions. The facilitator instructed the students to make a self-poster at home, using magazine clippings of pictures and words to depict the listed items. The posters were brought to the group the next day.

Session Two. In a large group the students shared their self-posters by explaining how each magazine picture or word related to the characteristics listed in session one. Students were able to ask each other questions, with the person presenting his or her collage or self-poster reserving the right to pass on any given question that could cause discomfort or anxiety.

Session Three. The activity was called "Accentuating the Positive" (Lindber, Bartell, and Estes, 1975). The students first wrote responses to the following items in dyads, later discussion their responses.

1. Physical qualities I like about myself
2. Personality traits I like about myself
3. Talents I possess
4. My two most satisfying experiences
5. I feel most positive about myself when
   a. I'm doing
   b. I'm with
   c. I'm at
6. Create a fantasy of self a best

Session Four. Students made notes on how they felt about a list of quotations that related to the self (Argus Communications, 1976). The responses focused on how the students interpreted the quotations. The activity was done in pairs of students who discussed the notes made on the four quotations that they randomly selected from those written on index cards. A listing of the quotations follows.

I like to do things my way
Today may beautiful things happen to you.
I feel beautiful.
In the midst of winter, I finally learned that
there was in me an invincible summer.

I love what I'm good at.
Familiarity breeds confidence.
Let yourself go!
You're greater than you think you are.
I gotta be me.
Behold the turtle who makes progress only when he sticks his neck out.
It is better to wear out than to rust out.
Bloom where you are planted.
As soon as you trust yourself you will know how to live.
No goal's too high if we climb with care and confidence.
It's good to be petted a little, praised a little, appreciated a little.
A person cannot be a peace with others until he is at peace with himself.

Session Five. Students divided into dyads and wrote and interpreted their own quotations on the self or cited familiar ones not discussed in session four. In the large group, students shared their quotations by reading them and explaining their meanings.

Session Six. Individually, students created "I Gotta Be Me" books (quotations from session four) with one sentence completion item on each page of a booklet composed of pages of construction paper. Under the completed sentence, the students drew symbols or sketches that represented the meaning of the sentences. The sentence completion items, composed by the researcher were:

I am_____
I can_____
I'm good at_____
I'm proud of_____
My life is_____
I am happy when_____
I love_____
My strongest point is_____
In the future I_____
I am loved because_____

Session Seven. This activity was an adaptation of the "Strengths Trade Game" and Strengths Testing" (Thompson and Poppen, 1975). In two small groups of four, each student had a gummed label for group members and one index card. On the labels were the names of each group member, and each student was to write down the strengths of that specific person. These strengths were read aloud and discussed, and each student placed all of his or her labels on the index card, commenting on the strengths he liked best. The cards were to be held for using in the next session, to which students were to also bring a strengths list made by a relative, neighbor, teacher, or any other person.

Session Eight. First, the group facilitator shared a list made by a significat other in her life. Then the lists of the students were compared with those compiled by the peers in the two small groups (Thompson and Poppen, 1972, 1975). In the same session, in the large group, the students did a string activity, where each student made loops around the index finger with a piece of string. While doing so, he or she said a positive thing about himself or herself (one remark per loop). Each student was given a copy of Voice magazine and was instructed to read "How to Be Your Own Best Friend" for the next group session (Newman and Berkowitz, 1976).

Session Nine. Before the session, students had been instructed to read the article named above. The subjects brainstormed ideas that they got from the article, and then

dealtwith specific topics of discussion:

Personal reaction to the article
Agreement or disagreement with main points
Imporving one's own happiness
Citing examples of how people dwell on the unpleasant
Discussing praising self
Brainstorming advice on how to be own best friend

Session Ten. Again using the strengths lists from sessions above (seven and eight), students fantasized on paper about their future lives in terms of visualizing themselves doing something involving one or more of their strengths. Responses were shared in the large group.

Session Eleven. In two small groups of four, the students again examined each other's strengths and discussed what each person could accomplish in five years by using his strengths (Thompson and Poppen, 1972. 1975).

Session Twelve. Each student was given eight sheets of paper, listing on each an accomplishment of his or her life. Then the accomplishments were ranked in the order of importance, after which the accomplishments and rankings were shared in the large group (Thompson and Poppen, 1975).

Session Thirteen. Taking four aspirations they had for the future, the students listed the strengths they have that could be used to make the achievements. These ideas were shared in the large group (Thompson and Poppen, 1975).

Session Fourteen. Each student constructed an autograph book from construction paper and had each group member sign a page. The one stipulation was that the comments had to be positive.

Session Fifteen. Each person created and presented in the large group a classifed ad or TV or radio commercial selling himself or herself (Thompson and Poppen, 1975).

Session Sixteen. Individual students made lists of the following items and then shared them in the large group: "What I Like About Myself" and "Things I Do Well."

Session Seventeen. Each group member made a poster on construction paper used in his or her mack campaign for "Person of the Year." The posters and brief campaign speeches were then shared in the large group.

Session Eighteen. Each student listed on paper positive or desirable characteristics of people in general and popular songs that had lyrics on the positive aspects of people. In pairs, the students planned music to play in the next session and wrote interpretations of the selected songs.

Session Nineteen. Student dyads played the popular music and analyzed the lyrics in terms of their positive messages or comments on humankind.

Session Twenty. The students participated in a strengths auction, an adaptation of the "Values Auction" (Thompson and Poppen, 1975). Each student selected one of his or her strengths that he or she would hypothetically like to sell. Each person acted as his or her own auctioneer and verbally described the strength to the members of the large group, assuming that each person had an unlimited amount of money with which to make a purchase. The auctioneer sold his or her strength to the highest bidder.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

In the analysis of raw scores on the two pretests of the semantic differential on self-concept, the researcher selected the Friedman Two-way Analysis of Variance Test, a nonparametric procedure which was used to determine if the self-concept scores differed when subjects acted as their own controls over a period of inactivity, a period lacking experimental conditions or placebo treatment conditions. The Friedman is recommended in cases where the number of subjects is small and when data is of the ordinal level. There are also no stringent assumptions for the Friedman test in that it does not require normality or homogeneity of variance (Champion, 1970).

Results of this analysis show that no significant difference existed as shown in Tables I, II and III.

TABLE I

FRIEDMAN TWO-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF "ME AS A STUDENT" PRETESTS

Mean Ranks		Chi Square	df	Significance
Pre_1	Pre_2			
1.45	1.55	0.200	1	0.655

TABLE II

FRIEDMAN TWO-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
OF "ME AS A FRIEND" PRETESTS

Mean Ranks Pre_1	Mean Ranks Pre_2	Chi Square	df	Significance
1.32	1.67	2.450	1	0.118

TABLE III

FRIEDMAN TWO-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
OF "THE TOTAL ME" PRETESTS

Mean Ranks Pre_1	Mean Ranks Pre_2	Chi Square	df	Significance
1.40	1.60	0.88	1	0.371

Thus, as shown in Tables I, II, and III, the subjects did not show significant differences of mean scores on any of the self-concept variables in the inactive period between $pretest_1$ and $pretest_2$ of the semantic differential on self-concept. Therefore, the self-concept scores can be seen as true pictures of how each subject saw himself or herself at the time prior to treatment.

In analyzing the raw scores on the second pretest and the posttest of the semantic differential on self-concept

and the Junior Index of Motivation pretest and posttest, the researcher used the Mann-Whitney U test, assuming only ordinal level data and independent and randomly drawn samples. This test is also appropriate for any sample size. If ties occur in ranks, as possible with raw scores, the correction factor, though "somewhat laborious" and only used to easily reject the null hypothesis, can be applied (Champion, 1970).

As will be shown by these analyses, none of the hypotheses were rejected, using the .05 level of significance. Following the treatment and placebo treatment period, neither group showed significantly higher scores in either self-concept or motivation toward school, but practical significance can be shown by Table IV, which gives the mean ranks of the pretests and posttests for each group on each variable.

TABLE IV

MEAN RANKS OF GROUPS A AND B ON PRETESTS AND POSTTESTS

	"Me as a Student"		"Me as a Friend"		"The Total Me"		JIM	
	Pre_2	Post	Pre_2	Post	Pre_2	Post	Pre_2	Post
A	9.13	7.88	9.38	7.63	9.31	7.69	7.94	9.06
B	13.25	11.75	12.46	12.54	11.83	13.17	11.75	13.25

Thus, descriptively, though not resulting in statistical significance, the subjects in group A did have higher ranks on the posttests than did the subjects in group B.

Hypothesis 1 stated that students who participated in the 20 self-awareness activities of group A would show no significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores on the concept of "me as a student" as measured by a semantic differential technique. In view of the results of the Mann-Whitney U analysis on small groups with a number of eight subjects or less, the hypothesis fails to be rejected, according to the exact probablility shown in Table V.

TABLE V

MANN-WHITNEY U ANALYSIS OF GROUP A
PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES ON "ME AS A STUDENT"

Mean Rank		U	Exact P
Pre	Post		
9.13	7.88	27.0	0.645

Thus, the students in group A, the experimental treatment group, did not score significantly higher on the posttest of "me as a student," and the hypothesis fails to be rejected on the basis of the .05 level of significance.

Hypothesis 2 stated that students who participated in the 20 self-awareness activities of group A would show no

significant difference between pretest and posttest scores on the concept of "me as a friend" as measured by a semantic differential technique. Again, the Mann-Whitney U test results in failing to reject the null hypothesis, based on a .05 level of significance, with an exact probability of .505 as shown by Table VI.

TABLE VI

MANN-WHITNEY U ANALYSIS OF GROUP A PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES ON "ME AS A FRIEND"

Mean Rank		U	Exact P
Pre	Post		
9.38	7.63	25.0	0.505

Consequently, the hypothesis cannot be rejected, and it is concluded that group A's posttest scores on "me as a friend" are not statistically different from the pretest scores on the same variable.

The analysis based on hypothesis 3 yields the same results of there being no significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the students who participated in the 20 self-awareness sessions of group A. This analysis relates to the variable, "the total me." As shown in Table VII, the exact probability of 0.505 is not significant, using the .05 level.

TABLE VII

MANN-WHITNEY U ANALYSIS OF GROUP A
PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES ON "THE TOTAL ME"

Mean Rank		U	Exact P
Pre	Post		
9.31	7.69	25.5	0.505

Thus, the hypothesis is supported in that the pretest and posttest scores do not statistically show a significant difference.

Hypothesis 4 stated that the students who participated in the 20 free reading sessions of group B would show no significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores on the concept of "me as a student" as measured by a semantic differential technique.

Since the size of group B is larger than nine, having 12 subjects, rather than using an exact probability, the critical value of .37 is used as a point of comparison to the U calculated by the Mann-Whitney U test. If the calculated value of the U is equal to or small than the critical value, there is a significant difference, and the null hypothesis is to be rejected. Consequently, as Table VIII shows, the calculated U of 63.0 far exceeds the critical value of .37, yielding no significant difference at the .05 level.

TABLE VIII

MANN-WHITNEY U ANALYSIS OF GROUP B
PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES ON "ME AS A STUDENT"

Pretest Mean Rank	Posttest Mean Rank	U
13.25	11.75	63.0

Hence, the hypothesis fails to be rejected because of the lace of significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the subjects in group B on the variable, "me as a student."

In analyzing hypothesis 5, the Mann-Whitney U test also resulted in the hypothesis fails to be refected at the .05 level. The hypothesis stated that students who participated in the 20 free reading sessions will show no significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores on the concept of "me as a friend" as measured by the semantic differential technique. As shown in Table IX, the U of 71.5 does not equal and is not smaller than a .37 critical value, thus yielding no significant difference.

TABLE IX

MANN-WHITNEY U ANALYSIS OF GROUP B
PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES ON "ME AS A FRIEND"

Pretest Mean Rank	Posttest Mean Rank	U
12.46	12.54	71.5

In view of the large value of U, the hypothesis cannot be rejected, and it can be concluded that the subjects in group B did not score significantly higher on the posttest on "me as a friend."

Hypothesis 6 stated that the subjects who participated in the 20 free reading sessions of group B will show no significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores on the concept of "the total me" as measured by a semantic differential technique. Table X shows that the hypothesis is not be be rejected due to a large U of 64.0.

TABLE X

MANN-WHITNEY U ANALYSIS OF PRETEST
AND POSTTEST SCORES ON "THE TOTAL ME"

Pretest Mean Rank	Posttest Mean Rank	U
11.83	13.17	64.0

Accordingly, the hypothesis stated above is supported with there being no significant difference at the .05 level.

Hypothesis 7, a critical hypothesis, stated that post-test scores between subjects in group A, the experimental group, and group B, the placebo experimental group, would not differ significantly on the concept of "me as a student," as measured by a semantic differential technique. As shown in Table XI, the hypothesis fails to be rejected.

TABLE XI

MANN-WHITNEY U ANALYSIS OF POSTTEST SCORES OF GROUP A AND GROUP B ON "ME AS A STUDENT"

Group A Posttest Mean Rank	Group B Posttest Mean Rank	U
11.44	9.88	40.5

In comparing a group of eight (A) to a group of 12 (B), the critical value is .22. Table XI shows that a U of 40.5 is not equal to or smaller than a .22, thus yielding no significant difference and causing the hypothesis to fail to be rejected at the .05 level. Therefore, group A did not score significantly higher than group B. This implies that self-awareness sessions had no impact on this aspect of self-concept.

Another critical hypothesis, hypothesis 8, stated that the posttest scores between the subjects exposed to self-awareness activities (A) and the subjects exposed to free reading (B) would not differ significantly on the concept of "me as a friend" as measured by a semantic differential technique. As shown in Table XII, this hypothesis, too, fails to be rejected because the U of 33.0 is not equal to or less than .22, the critical value.

TABLE XII

MANN-WHITNEY U ANALYSIS OF POSTTEST SCORES OF GROUP A AND GROUP B ON "ME AS A FRIEND"

Group A Posttest Mean Rank	Group B Posttest Mean Rank	U
12.38	9.25	33.0

Supporting the hypothesis, the students in group A did not score significantly higher than students in group B on the posttest for "me as a friend," indicating that the self-concept was not strengthened by self-awareness experiences.

Still another critical hypothesis is that which deals with the posttest scores on the concept of "the total me," hypothesis 9. It stated that the posttest scores of group A and group B would not differ significnatly. The hypothesis

fails to be rejected because of a U of 32.5, which is much larger than a .22 critical value, as indicated in Table XIII.

TABLE XIII

MANN-WHITNEY U ANALYSIS OF POSTTEST SCORES OF GROUP A AND GROUP B ON "THE TOTAL ME"

Group A Posttest Mean Rank	Group B Posttest Mean Rank	U
12.44	9.21	32.5

As a result of the statistical analysis, the null hypothesis is not rejected at the .05 level and it can be implied that the self-awareness program did not enhance a more postive view of "the total me."

Hypothesis 10 is the first hypothesis that deals with the Junior Index of Motivation, the instrument measuring motivation toward school. It stated that students in group A, the self-awareness group, will not show a significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores on the JIM scale. The hypothesis, as proved in Table XIV fails to be rejected.

TABLE XIV

MANN-WHITNEY U ANALYSIS OF GROUP A
PRETEST AND POSTEST SCORES ON THE JIM SCALE

Pretest Mean Rank	Posttest Mean Rank	U	Exact P
7.94	9.06	27.5	.0645

Thus, the hypothesis fails to be rejected because the exacp p of .0645 exceeds .05, and there exists no significant difference.

Hypothesis 11 examines the pretest and posttest scores of group B, stating that there would be no significant difference in these scores on the JIM Sclae. The statistical analysis supports the null hypothesis as indicated by Table XV.

TABLE XV

MANN-WHITNEY U ANALYSIS OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST
SCORES OF GROUP B ON THE JIM SCALE

Group B Pretest Mean Rank	Group B Posttest Mean Rank	U
12.38	13.25	63.0

Consequently, a U of 63.0 exceeds a critical value of .37 rather being equal to or smaller than the critical value. The null hypothesis is supported, and it is established that the subjects in Group B did not show a significant difference between pretest and posttest scores on the JIM Scale.

Hypothesis 12 is a critical one due to its comparison of groups A and B, the experimental and placebo experimental groups. It stated that the subjects who participated in self-awareness sessions would not have significantly different posttest scores on the JIM Scale than the subjects who engaged in free reading. Statistical analysis shows that the hypothesis fails to be rejected as represented by Table XVI.

TABLE XVI

MANN-WHITNEY U ANALYSIS OF POSTTEST SCORES OF GROUPS A AND B ON THE JIM SCALE

Group A Posttest Mean Rank	Group B Posttest Mean Rank	U
12.38	9.25	33.0

Thus, hypothesis 12 is supported, since a U of 33.0 is not significant at the .05 level because it is not equal to or less than a critical value of .22.

In evaluating the hypotheses according to the preceding tables, all null hypotheses fail to be rejected. On all variables neither group had posttest scores that were significantly different from the pretest scores, and the posttest scores between groups showed no statistical difference between the performance of the subjects exposed to self-awareness when compared to the subjects who participated in free reading. It seems important to note here that even though no statistically significant differences were found favoring the self-awareness program, individual scores of students in the group did show changes from pretest to posttest. (Appendix E)

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

A. Discussion of Results

In the present study, affective education was ineffective in accomplishing the stated objectives in the manner and time prescribed. The self-awareness program did not enhance either a positive self-concept or a higher level of motivation toward school in the eight subjects exposed to the activities for a four week treatment period. The posttest scores of the subjects of the experimental group did not show a statistically significant difference from the posttest scores of the subjects in the placebo treatment group. Therefore, the affective technique lacked efficacy in positively modifying self-concept and motivation toward school.

The researcher examined several factors that might contribute to the ineffectiveness of the affective classroom technique. One such factor is the cognitive environment in which the study was conducted. The conditions of the school setting are typically not affective in nature, and it is likely that the subjects were exposed to a number of conditions that were not related to the affective domain. Seemingly, brief exposure to affective approaches did not enhance affective growth. Thus, subjects isolated in a basically

cognitive setting may not benefit from temporary affective programs. Such a conclusion may be a supportive finding for previous research, which yielded conflicting results on programs that were affective in nature.

Another possible contributing factor to the technique's ineffectiveness is the type of activities used in the self-awareness program. They were not school-oriented, which may have impeded the potential for positive changes in self-concept and motivation.

In addition to environmental conditions and program content, the small number of subjects may have affected the efficacy of the self-awareness technique. It should be recognized that there did exist a mortality rate of six subjects from the experimental group and two from the placebo experimental group, and the raw data collected on them can only be reported and cannot be used as a part of the statistical analysis. (Appendix E) Thus, initially small group sizes decreased even more after the onset of the experimental period, and this mortality rate may have contributed to the treatment's inability to accomplish its objectives.

On the other hand, the researcher is cognizant of the fact that slight gains in scores exist between the raw scores of the pretests and posttests. (Appendix E) Whereas the independent variable of affective education did not accomplish its goals, other conditions in the environment alone or in conjunction with the affective program may have

affected the gains in scores merely by chance. On the concept of "me as a student," four students in the self-awareness group (A) and six subjects in the free reading group (B) showed gains in scores from $pretest_2$ to the posttest. Compared on the concept of "me as a friend," four students of group A and six students of group B again gained in scores. On the concept of "the total me," six student in each group showed gains in their raw scores, which means that only two students in the experimental group did not show gains. The same gains in raw scores exist in relation to motivation toward school. Five students in each group gained scores on the JIM Scale posttest, when compared to the pretest scores. The majority of subjects in group A had gains; only three of the eight did not. Even though these gain scores were not statistically significant, they should be acknowledged. Thus, by chance, students in both the experimental treatment group and the placebo treatment group experienced gains in scores between the second pretest and the posttest of the semantic differential on self-concept and between the pretest and posttest scores on the JIM Scale, which measured motivation toward school.

Although the present study yields no statistically significant differences, the researcher is not acknowledging her study as providing conclusive data for research in the affective domain. However, it does strengthen some previously established findings. The instrumentation conflict is

supported by the lack of statistically significant differences by use of a semantic differential, a non-standardized method said to be sensitive to change. It presented no significance, which was cited as a recurring problem of standardized tests. Thus, the instrumentation conflict is heightened by yielding no significant differences in results when using non-standardized instruments. Results such as those of this study serve to further the inconsistency of results when using a variety of measurement techniques.

Another area supported by the present study is that of the length of treatment period and the schedules of activities therein. The researcher's four week program of daily activities was just as ineffective as programs of similar and longer duration and schedules that were intermittent or daily. This adds to the conflict of programs that, in previous studies, have or have not affected change in self-concept. This study's treatment schedule and length supports the inconsistency of results in the area.

B. Summary and Conclusions

The present study was designed to determine what impact an experimental affective education program in self-awareness would have on both self-concept and motivation toward school when compared to a placebo experimental condition of free reading. All hypotheses were stated in the null form and tested at the .05 level of significance. After eight subjects

were exposed to 20 self-awareness activities, and 12 others participated in 20 free reading sessions, all of the null hypotheses failed to be rejected at the .05 level, concluding that the affective self-awareness program was ineffacious in relation to self-concept and motivation toward school.

C. Implications and Recommendations

Reiterating the postion established in the introduction, affective education can be used as an integral part of the school curriculum. Both the affective and cognitive domains are to be advocated by educators if schools are to educate the academic self and the psycho-social self of each child. Research has been wide and varied, but not at all conclusive in terms of how an affective program can enhance psycho-social and academic growth of students. Some programs have been said to be effective, yielding statistically significant differences, while others have provided results to the contrary. Thus, the present study is an addition to the research in the field of affective education, which fails to yield supportive evidence. It has not concluded the effectiveness or lack or effectiveness of an affective program. It has, consequently, provided implications for further research in designing, implementing and evaluating programs for the enhancement of both self-concept and motivation toward school.

The researcher supports the replication of this study with substantial modification as well as the continuation

of similar studies or the designing of totally new ones, taking several factor into consideration. Both previous studies and the present study suggest a number of concerns that must be evaluated when developing a study with the affective domain as its focus.

Future research should continue to explore academic achievement as a concomittant variable to self-concept. Replication of the present study, therefore, would develop a means of measuring the academic performance of each subject as a baseline prior to the treatment and placebo treatment period, and at the end of this period, as done with the posttest on the variables of self-concept and motivation. The grades on the cumulative record would be used for this purpose. This, the null hypotheses would be stated to include the variable of academic achievement, establishing that this concomittant variable would not change significantly after the subjects' exposure to the affective classroom technique. Including this examination of achievement would add to the findings of previous studies that have focused on the self-concept as it is linked with achievement. The replicated study, by adding the achievement variable, could prove to strengthen the research in this area due to its also measuring motivation. Previous studies did not measure self-concept, motivation, and achievement as a combination of variables. Thus, a study of this sort could present new findings.

Since instrumentation was cited as an area of conflict in the related literature, a replication of the present

study should consider using a standardized instrument to measure self-concept along with the non-standardized semantic differential. For example, the use of the Tennessee Self-concept Scale, according to the literature, has resulted in both significant changes in self-concept as well as a lack of change. The use of such an instrument could possibly offer more sensitivity to statistically significant changes. Of changes did occur in the self-concepts of subjects in the present study, the semantic differential, being non-standardized and devised by the researcher, could have been insensitive to even minimal changes, even though it is said to be sensitive to change. Therefore, using a standardized measure of self-concept could strengthen the statistical analysis of the study.

If repeated, the present study would use a larger number of subjects. Though statistical procedures exist for small group sizes, the study may have been strengthened statistically had the number of subjects been larger. The possibility of change may be increased with more subjects.

In addition to the aforemention changes, the researcher would, if replicating her study, reconsider the length of the treatment period, which is another area of conflict in related research. Thus, the replicated study would be subject to an increase in the number of weeks established for the exposure to treatment and placebo treatment conditions. If achievement is to be measured, using a nine

week schedule could be advantageous in that academic achievement is evaluated on this basis. Thus, a longer period of treatment would provide more time to involve students in self-awareness activities, thus increasing the possibility of change. Also the longer period of treatment would coincide with academic evaluation, thus increasing the possibility of change in the cognitive area. Therefore, a longer treatment period could prove to be more conducive to changes in self-concept, motivation, and achievement.

Consequently, affective education did not improve self-concept or motivation toward school. The factors contributing to the lack of efficacy are the instruments used, the length of the treatment, and the small group sizes. It may also be concluded that affective education has no influence on self-concept or motivation. Conductors of subsequent research must be cognizant of these factors.

By and large, research in the affective domain should continue to focus on enhancing positive changes in the psychological development and socialization of children and adolescents. Researchers must be cognizant of any and all factors that can influence this kind of child development. Conclusions cannot be drawn until research yields more consistent results in its analysis of the affective approach and its relevance to, impact on, and importance to education.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

STUDENT CONSENT FORM

Dear Student:

I would like to request your participation in a research study that I am conducting for my doctoral dissertation.

The study is to be submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education. As a researcher I will be supervised by professors in the Department of Educational Psychology and Guidance at The University of Tennessee.

In this study I will examine how students feel about themselves as well as other attitudes and values held by students. First, inventories on these attitudes, feelings, and values will be completed. You will then participate in a series of classroom activities; there will be two groups of students involved in different activities. Both programs will last for four weeks, having one thirty minute session each day. At the end of the four weeks, the inventories will be completed again.

All information collected will be confidential. That which will be printed in the dissertation will not identify anyone by name. Results of the study will be available upon request, and you, as a subject have the right to inquire about procedures.

Deborah R. Taylor

I understand the methods of the study, and I agree to participate. I reserve the right to withdraw my consent at any time.

Signature of student:_____

Date:_____

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

PARENT CONSENT FORM

Dear Parent:

I would like to request your consent to your child's participation in a research study that I am conducting for my doctoral dissertation.

The study is to be submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education. As a researcher I will be supervised by professors in the Department of Educational Psychology and Guidance at The University of Tennessee.

In this study I will examine how students feel about themselves as well as other attitudes and values held by students. First, inventories on these attitudes, feelings and values will be completed. Your child will then participate in a series of classroom activities; there will be two groups of students involved in different activities. Both programs will last for four weeks, having one thirty minute session each day. At the end of the four weeks, the inventories will be completed again.

All information will be confidential. That which will be printed in the dissertation will not identify anyone by name. Results of the study will be available upon request, and you, as a parent of the subject, have the right to inquire about procedures.

Participation in this program will not present any hazards for your child, and the study is being conducted with the knowledge and consent of the appropriate school officials.

Deborah R. Taylor

I understand the methods of the study, and I agree to my child's participation.

I reserve the right to withdraw my consent at any time.

Signature of Parent:_____

Date:_____

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL ON SELF-CONCEPT

The seven point scale is as follows:

bad 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 good

good 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 bad

Students responded in terms of where they see themselves on the scale; they responded to the following adjective pairs on these concepts: "me as a student", "me as a friend", "the total me". The pairs were arranged in reversal to avert a response set.

bad-good

successful-unsuccessful

intelligent-unintelligent

happy-sad

nice-awful

worthless-valuable

important-unimportant

friendly-unfriendly

relaxed-tense

kind-cruel

With 10 adjective pairs on each of the three concepts of self, students could score up to 70 points per concept measured.

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

JIM SCALE STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

+1 slight support, agreement
+2 strong support, agreement
-1 slight opposition, disagreement
-2 strong opposition, disagreement

1. Late afternoon is the best time of day.
2. Many children have often been punished without cause.
3. Students should be made to go to school until they are 18 years old.
4. Being right is more important than being kind.
5. School is more fun when teachers let students do the things they want to.
6. Pupils who try should get good grades even if they make mistakes.
7. Successful people are those who make the most money.
8. The best way to spend a free evening is with a good book.
9. Most young people do not want to do to school.
10. Some new ideas are interesting, but most of them are not.
11. Practical people are usually highly respected.
12. Knowing the answer is more important than knowing where to get the answer.
13. Many young people feel grouchy.
14. The best people refuse to depend on other persons.
15. Some teachers make school more interesting than others.
16. A person's feelings on a topic are not as important as the facts.
17. There are more important things in the world than making money.
18. It does not really help much to study about people from other lands.
19. Life is mostly sorrow with just a little joy.
20. Some students have to study more than others.
21. Many youngsters often want to run away from home.
22. Being a good speaker is just as important as being a good speller.
23. Some teachers seem to enjoy making students suffer.
24. Our whole trouble is that we won't let God help us.
25. Most people worry more before they take a test than during the test.
26. No one seems to understand young people.
27. Learning to cooperate is more important than learning to compete.
28. Most people would like school better if teachers did not give grades.

29. The world we live in is a pretty lonesome place.
30. Social progress can only be achieved by returning to our glorious past.
31. It is very foolish to advocate government support of education.
32. Most people's hardest battles are with themselves.
33. There is nothing new under the sun.
34. Helping other people is the key to happiness.
35. Life seems to be one big struggle after another.
36. Most people just don't give a "darn" for others.
37. The best way to achieve security is for the government to guarantee jobs.
38. Most young people feel uncomfortable around someone of the opposite sex.
39. Some people do not appreciate the value of an education.
40. Many new ideas are not worth the paper they are printed on.
41. Many teachers are not considerate of students' feelings.
42. Teachers are generally underpaid.
43. Being unhealthy is worse than being unhappy.
44. It is better to forget than to forgive.
45. Pupils who copy during an examination should fail the test.
46. Young people should be free to follow their own desires.
47. Listening to a good speaker is the best way to learn.
48. The present is all too often full of unhappiness.
49. Most people just don't know what is good for them.
50. Understanding yourself helps one understand others.
51. People who dream a lot at night are apt to be crazy.
52. Familiarity breeds contempt, so one should never be too friendly.
53. There is a real limit to man's intelligence.
54. People who are insulted generally deserve to be.
55. Experience may be a good teacher, but schools are better.
56. Wasting time is even worse than wasting money.
57. People who are quick thinkers usually jump to conclusions.
58. Most people do not have good ideas until they grow up.
59. When people are unhappy they should talk to someone about it.
60. Looking good is just as important as being good.
61. The best part of education is that which people teach themselves.
62. Famous people usually have a lot of money.
63. Most people cannot learn from the experience of others.
64. The dreamer is a danger to society.
65. Most teachers like to drive students if they have the chance.
66. God helps those who help themselves.
67. One can never desire too much of a good thing.
68. Being a liar is better than being a gossip.
69. Asking questions usually gets you into trouble.
70. Not many people in the world are really kind.

71. The biggest part of being successful is determination.
72. Teachers know more and do less than most other people.
73. Hope is really no better than worry.
74. School is not all that it's cracked up to be.
75. Everything that people do is either right or wrong.
76. Quick thinking is always better than being polite.
77. The gentle person often treats himself severly.
78. Everybody ought to do something worth while everyday.
79. We are never really as happy as we think we are.
80. All those who fail have worked in vain.

APPENDIX E

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RAW SCORES

The semantic differential raw score for each concept on the self ("me as a student", me as a friend", "the total me") is based on the ten adjective pairs, each with a point value ranging from 1 to 7 with 7 being the highest score. The points for each of the ten adjective pairs are added, and this total is the raw score. Thus, a student may score from 0-70, with the increase in number denoting a higher score.

In relation to the Junior Index of Motivation, the higher the score the higher the motivation toward school. Ecah possible response has a point value. The score is based on 50 of the 80 items with the resulting value undergoing a change in the sign and being added to 100 for the total raw score. This process is carried out by using a score key provided with copies of the test.

RAW SCORES OF THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL:
"ME AS A STUDENT"

Student	$Pretest_1$	$Pretest_2$	Posttest
1	45	43	53
2	70	70	70
3	51	48	58
4	61	64	63
5	57	52	56
6	23	35	31
7	62	56	60
8	44	45	41
Group A			
9	56	56	51
10	65	65	66
11	47	53	47
12	55	41	41
13	44	33	36
14	70	65	63
15	58	40	55
16	54	47	66
17	55	45	47
18	53	48	43
19	59	59	61
20	57	58	58
Group B			

RAW SCORES OF THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL:
"ME AS A FRIEND"

Student	$Pretest_1$	$Pretest_2$	Posttest
1	52	51	63
2	66	70	70
3	54	58	58
4	61	67	64
5	54	55	57
6	32	37	50
7	62	52	60
8	45	45	44
Group A			
9	51	49	56
10	63	62	65
11	52	58	47
12	50	58	55
13	43	38	44
14	68	70	70
15	53	62	58
16	53	56	54
17	50	51	55
18	43	54	54
19	57	50	59
20	48	54	57
Group B			

RAW SCORES OF THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL:
"THE TOTAL ME"

Student	$Pretest_1$	$Pretest_2$	Posttest
1	50	48	56
2	68	70	70
3	58	58	66
4	66	68	67
5	52	50	52
6	48	40	41
7	66	50	67
8	45	45	47
Group A			
9	51	45	47
10	65	65	66
11	70	70	42
12	51	58	53
13	38	40	43
14	70	70	70
15	52	63	61
16	41	55	55
17	43	46	50
18	54	50	52
19	66	58	67
20	49	64	57
Group B			

RAW SCORES OF THE JUNIOR INDEX OF MOTIVATION

Student	Pretest	Posttest
1	104	124
2	56	122
3	158	167
4	109	103
5	127	153
6	134	128
7	131	127
8	73	100
Group A		
9	134	113
10	134	138
11	123	116
12	114	108
13	79	75
14	49	126
15	92	101
16	170	151
17	94	118
18	100	98
19	102	77
20	86	108
Group B		

RAW SCORES OF THE DROPOUTS ON THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL: "ME AS A STUDENT"

Student	$Pretest_1$	$Pretest_2$
1	32	42
2	52	43
3	22	15
4	Did not respond	Withdrawal of consent
5	32	45
6	43	44
7	25	Withdrawal of consent
8	45	48

RAW SCORES OF THE DROPOUTS ON THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL: "ME AS A FRIEND"

Student	$Pretest_1$	$Pretest_2$
1	53	48
2	55	65
3	52	61
4	52	Withdrawal of consent
5	55	53
6	65	61
7	62	Withdrawal of consent
8	55	65

RAW SCORES OF THE DROPOUTS ON THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL: "THE TOTAL ME"

Student	$Pretest_1$	$Pretest_2$
1	46	35
2	55	68
3	42	45
4	43	Withdrawal of consent
5	43	44
6	45	55
7	43	Withdrawal of consent
8	47	58

RAW SCORES OF THE DROPOUTS ON THE JUNIOR INDEX OF MOTIVATION

Student	Pretest
1	93
2	96
3	92
4	Withdrawal of consent
5	79
6	79
7	Withdrawal of consent
8	130

VITA

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