

SEX DIFFERENCES IN THE SELF-ESTEEM OF WHITE
EARLY ADOLESCENTS WITH HIGH GRADE POINT AVERAGES
FROM HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC TWO-PARENT FAMILIES

by

Jeanne Kirchner

A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of the
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of
MASTER OF ARTS
In the Graduate College
THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

STATEMENT BY AUTHOR

This thesis has been submitted in partial fulfillment of requirements for an advanced degree at The University of Arizona and is deposited in the University Library to be made available to borrowers under rules of the Library.

Brief quotations from this thesis are allowable without special permission, provided that accurate acknowledgment of source is made. Requests for permission for extended quotation from or reproduction of this manuscript in whole or in part may be granted by the head of the major department or the Dean of the Graduate College when in his or her judgment the proposed use of the material is in the interests of scholarship. In all other instances, however, permission must be obtained from the author.

SIGNED: _____

Jeanne Kirchner

APPROVAL BY THESIS DIRECTOR

This thesis has been approved on the date shown below:

Darrell Sabers

Darrell Sabers
Professor of
Educational Psychology

12/9/92

Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to the following people for their assistance and support during my studies and in the writing of my thesis: Judy Rein, for her analysis of the data and for serving as my unofficial advisor and editor throughout the writing of my thesis. Judy was my tutor, my friend, and a constant source of support to me during my graduate studies; Dr. Darrell Sabers, my advisor, for his availability, assistance, support, and encouragement in the writing of this thesis, and for his careful editing and suggestions offered in its improvement; Dr. Janice Streitmatter and Dr. Randall Jones, for permission to use their data for my thesis; Dr. Janice Streitmatter, for serving on my committee, for helping me find direction when I began writing, and for her time in reading and editing my thesis; Dr. John Bergan, for serving on my committee; Dr. Paul Robinson, for serving on short notice as a substitute on my committee for my thesis defense, for his careful reading of my thesis and for his useful suggestions offered in its final revision. Finally, I would like to thank Jessie Fryer for her assistance in typing the final draft of this thesis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
	LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.....	6
	ABSTRACT.....	7
1.	INTRODUCTION.....	8
	The Self-Concept vs Self-Esteem.....	8
	Problems of Measurement of Self-Concept and Self-Esteem.....	26
	Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory.....	29
	Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale.....	32
2.	REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	36
	Studies Prior to Mid-1975.....	38
	Studies 1975 and After.....	46
3.	METHOD.....	56
	Original Sample.....	56
	Sample.....	57
	Apparatus and Materials.....	57
	Original Instrument.....	57
	Instruments.....	58
	Reliability of Modified Scale.....	59
	Dependent Measures.....	60
	Independent Measures.....	60
	Procedures.....	60
4.	RESULTS.....	62
5.	DISCUSSION.....	66

TABLE OF CONTENTS--Continued

	Page
APPENDIX A: NEW YORK STATE SELF-ESTEEM SCALE INDEX (RSE).....	78
APPENDIX B: COOPERSMITH SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY.....	81
APPENDIX C: ROSENBERG SELF-ESTEEM SCALE MODIFIED AND SHORTENED VERSION..	87
APPENDIX D: JONES/STREITMATTER SELF-ESTEEM SCALE.....	90
REFERENCES.....	92

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure		Page
1	Histogram: Esteem for Females.....	63
2	Histogram: Esteem for Males.....	64

ABSTRACT

This descriptive study investigated sex differences in the self-esteem of early adolescent boys and girls. A modified and shortened version of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Index was administered as part of a larger questionnaire to two classes each of sixth, seventh, and eighth grade students from a primarily white, upper middle-class school district. Forty-one girls and 34 boys were selected out of the initial sample of 150 based on race (white), GPA (4.0), and marital status of parents (married). Results indicate a significant difference in level of self-esteem favoring girls.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

When I began to review the literature for this thesis, I came to realize very quickly that there was some confusion in the field as to the definition of the terms self-concept and self-esteem. Studies in the area were further confused by the variety of instruments used to measure the concepts. It was apparent that the studies reviewed in the literature might not be comparable to my own study or to each other depending upon how each researcher defined the concepts and what instrument was used to measure the construct. Therefore, the introduction to this thesis will review these two problems inherent in the field so that when looking at the literature review, readers might take the problem of definition of terms and differences in measurement into consideration as a basic flaw in the field of self-concept and self-esteem when comparing various studies.

The Self-Concept Versus Self-Esteem

The self-concept has been central to theorists ranging from James, Freud, Jung, Adler, Cooley, Mead, Allport, Cattell, Erikson, and Maslow to the more recent formulations and definitions espoused by Rosenberg (Blyth & Traeger, 1984; Burns, 1979; Rosenberg, 1979, 1989). The variety of definitions and uses of the terms self-concept and self-

esteem in the literature are numerous and encompass other terms such as self-perception, self-image, self-attitude, and self-evaluation. As Rosenberg states (1979) in an extensive review of the definitions of self-concept put forth by various theorists, "the less charitable might characterize the terminology situation as a shambles" (p. 6). The conceptions of the theorists regarding the self-concept are often vague and inconclusive, and the terminology is a mixing, overlapping and interchanging of definitions which is occasionally contradictory (Brook, 1968; Burns, 1979). One consequence of this assortment of terms and the lack of agreement as to each term's meaning is that they become a part of everyday usage which leads to further imprecision. People think that they know what a term implies but meaning is not the same for every theorist (Blyth & Traeger, 1984). It becomes necessary to sort out the multitude of definitions relating to self-concept and self-esteem in order to begin to understand what each theorist or study seems to be investigating. How do some of the theorists differentiate the concepts inferred from the terms self-concept and self-esteem?

James (Burns, 1979), whose work was published in his book the Principles of Psychology in 1890, defined the self-concept as integrative. It involved feelings, evaluation, attitudes, and descriptive categories. James differentiates

two aspects of the self, the "me" and the "I". As explained by Ockerman (1979) the "I" is the identity of the whole and includes the "me". The "I" is pure experience, the self as subject, versus the "me" which is the contents of that experience and the self as object. Neither can exist without the other. Together they make up the self. The "me" is "everything a man can call his" according to James (cited in Coopersmith, 1967, p.30). He continued by saying that this is "not only his body and his psychic powers, but his clothes and his house, his wife and his children, his ancestors and friends, his reputation and words, his lands and horses and yacht and bank account" (p. 30). The "me" is comprised of the spiritual self including the feelings and emotions of self, the material self including one's possessions, the bodily self, and the social self which is one's recognition from others. James classifies these selves in descending order according to their implications for self-esteem. He defined self-esteem as follows (cited in Burns, 1979):

With no attempt, there can be no failure; with no failure no humiliation. So our self-feeling in this world depends entirely on what we back ourselves to be or do. It is determined by the ratio of our activities to our supposed potentialities: a fraction of which are the

denominator and the numerator of our successes

thus, self-esteem = success/ pretensions (p. 9).

Self-evaluation, self-feeling, self-regard, self-esteem, and self-worth are synonymous for James. In his view, our feeling of self-worth is related to how we see ourselves in relation to others whose skill and abilities are similar to our own. It is a function of the discrepancy between our aspirations and achievements (Gecas, 1982).

Wylie (1974), in her review of studies of self-concept and self-esteem, argues that the word self has been dichotomized by the various theorists into "self as agent or process" and "self as object of the person's own knowledge and evaluation" (p. 1). But she does not believe that these two terms adequately classify and characterize the numerous self-referent constructs referred to by theorists. She divides self-concept into three parts. The first part is "the cognitions and evaluations regarding relatively specific aspects of the self" (Wylie, 1979, p. 3). This includes math ability or gender and racial identity. The second part is the "ideal self which refers to the person's ideals about specific self aspects" (p. 3). This refers to having a sense of humor or attaining a certain career status. Finally, there is overall self-regard which is Wylie's generic term "covering 'global' constructs such as self-esteem, self-acceptance, self-favorability, and self-

discrepancies which are presumably determined by some combination of cognitions and evaluations of the many attributes of self" (p. 4). For Wylie, self-esteem is only one aspect of the self-concept. She refers to it as "the general, evaluative attitude toward the self" (p. 4).

Coopersmith (1967) defines the self as "an abstraction that an individual develops about the attributes, capacities, objects, and activities which she/he possesses and pursues. This abstraction is represented by the symbol 'me' which is a person's idea of himself to himself" (p. 20). The object of observation and appraisal is the person which is different from the self. The self consists "of the abstractions formed about that object. The bases for the abstractions are the individual's observations of his own behavior and the way other individual's respond to his attitudes, appearance and performance" (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 20). The concept of self for Coopersmith is multidimensional. The various dimensions reflect "the diversity of experience, attributes, and capacity and different emphases in the process of abstraction" (p. 21).

Coopersmith regards self-esteem as an evaluative attitude toward the self; it is one dimension of the self-concept. Specifically, he defines it as "the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself" (p. 5). This evaluation expresses both

approval and disapproval toward the self and is a personal judgement of one's worthiness. It is a subjective experience conveyed by either verbal reports or other "overt expressive behavior" (Coopersmith, 1967, p.5). There is the self-esteem the individual purports to have, the self-esteem he/she subjectively holds, the self-esteem she/he displays, and the self-esteem behavior that is observed and reported by others. Furthermore, according to Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976), Coopersmith elaborated on three features of his definition of self-esteem: stability, structure, and process. Stability involves the "'relatively enduring estimate of general self-esteem rather than upon more specific and transitory changes in evaluation'" (p. 425). Structure involves general self-esteem "with the acknowledgement that self-esteem may be multifaceted with regard to different areas of experience and according to sex, age, and other role defining conditions" (p. 425). Process focuses on "'a judgmental process in which the individual examines his performance, capabilities and attributes according to his personal standards and values and arrives at a decision (evaluation) of his own worthiness'" (p. 425). Coopersmith poses four major bases for self-esteem: competence or evaluation in terms of how proficient one is at performing tasks and meeting demands for achievement; significance, how loved and accepted one is

by others; virtue, how well one meets ethical or religious standards, and power, one's ability to influence and control others. He notes the possibility for an individual to attain high self-esteem by success in any of these areas or all of them depending on what values are inherently important to the individual. He argues that success has a different meaning for each person. It is interpreted by those things one values and aspires to. It might mean popularity for some, material gain or spiritual satisfaction for others. If an individual values material success and achieves it, it will enhance his/her self-esteem. If material success is not particularly valued, then success in this area will not be relevant to the individual's self-esteem. However, even though individuals assign different values to these things, these are the four areas that are important to success in our society. Success in any one or all of these areas, according to Coopersmith (1967), provides one with an increased sense of self-worth.

Burns (1979) reviews the theories of Cooley, Mead, Goffman, Freud, Jung, Adler, Sullivan, Horney, Allport, Cattell, Erikson, Goldstein, Maslow, Lecky, and Angyal. Although these theorists maintain a variety of theoretical positions on the nature of self-concept, Burns extrapolates several elements pertinent to all their theories regarding the self-concept and self-esteem:

- a. Two basic aspects of a global self can be discriminated:
 1. I or self as knower, process/doer
 2. Me or self as known which can include a variety of subselves, e.g. physical, social, other, ideal;
- b. A person as an entity separate from others and existing over time is experienced;
- c. Both knowledge (self-image) and evaluation (self-esteem) appear as two basic elements of any self-concept;
- d. Self-knowledge and evaluation are learned through experience, essentially that of social interaction with significant others (Burns, 1979, p. 29).

Burns himself regards the self-concept as a "dynamic complex of attitudes" (p. 57) or a "constellation of attitudes towards the self--it is the sum of self-attitudes" (p. 68). He believes that the self-concept derives from several interrelated sources including (a) the physical self and body image, (b) language "which helps facilitate the understanding of feedback from significant others" (Burns, 1979, p. 69) and helps us to differentiate ourselves from others, and finally, (c) significant others. He notes that as we become older our peer group becomes a more important

significant other. Burns theorizes that the self-concept is "an abstraction that all humans develop about the attributes, capacities, objects, and activities that they possess and pursue, around which, derived from social experiences, values cluster" (p. 69). Self-esteem or self-evaluation would be one of the attitudes toward the self comprising the self-concept. He defines self-esteem as follows: "the process by which the individual examines his performance, capacities, and attributes according to his personal standards and values which have been internalized from society and significant others" (p. 68). Positive self-concept is equated with positive self-evaluation and self-esteem and respect for and acceptance of oneself. A negative self-concept is equated with negative self-evaluation, lack of acceptance of oneself, and lack of feelings of personal worthiness, self-hatred, and a feeling of inferiority.

In a lengthy review of the self-concept from a sociological and social psychology perspective, Gecas (1982) considers the self-concept to be made up of identities which focus on the meanings comprising the self as an object, giving structure and content to the self-concept and anchoring the self to social systems. He refers to self-esteem as the evaluative and emotional dimensions of the self-concept. However, he believes that both the content of

our self-conceptions and our self-evaluations are closely intertwined "since self-evaluations are typically based on substantive aspects of self-concept and identities typically have evaluative components" (p. 4). He further divides self-esteem into two dimensions. The first is based on a sense of competence, power, or efficacy and is tied to effective performance. The second is based on a sense of moral worth and is tied to norms and values concerning personal and interpersonal conduct. According to Gecas "our sense of worth may be strongly affected by sense of competence and vice versa" (p. 5).

In a review of the literature, Blyth and Traeger (1984) make a distinction between self-concept and self-esteem. Self-concept is descriptive and non-judgmental. Self-esteem involves those attitudes classified as evaluations of the self or the degree of satisfaction with the self.

In an article which attempts to sort out and clarify the various definitions of self-esteem, Brissett (1972) divides the self-esteem into two categories which he considers distinct social psychology processes: the first is the process of self-evaluation and the second, the process of self-worth. Self-esteem as self-evaluation is "the process of making a conscious judgment regarding the social importance or significance of one's self" (p. 255). Self-esteem in this context comes from one's ability to meet

certain standards and goals. This process includes the idealized image of oneself, the objective social value of one's identity, and the objective evaluation of one's performance in an identity. This evaluation is made on the basis of consensual goals (wealth and prestige), levels of achievement, norms of behavior, and moral precepts. Self-esteem as self-worth is "the feeling of self which does not involve rendering a judgement as to the social acceptability of one's identities or one's performance in an identity nor evaluation of how one is doing with respect to his ideals and aspirations" (p. 259). This involves experiencing oneself as having power over one's activities and over what one does.

Bean, Lipka, and Ludewig (1980) separate self-perception into three dimensions: self-concept, self-esteem, and values. Self-perception is studied within a framework that extrapolates and defines the differences between self-concept and self-esteem. Self-perception is an interaction between the two, and self-esteem decisions are made according to what is important to us--our values.

Bean and Lipka (1980) define self-concept and self-esteem as follows:

Self concept is defined as the perceptions one has of oneself in terms of personal attributes and the various roles which are played or fulfilled by the

individual.... Self-esteem is the valuative assessment one makes regarding personal satisfaction with role(s) and/or the quality of performance (p. 2).

They further divide self-concept and self-esteem into two dimensions: inferred and actual. "Inferred self-esteem depends largely upon conventional assumptions while actual self-esteem depends upon the environmental context, including significant others, within which the individual operates on a voluntary or compulsory basis" (pp. 3-4). Therefore, any "self-concept attributes may be inferred on the basis of conventional assumptions about children's value priorities or viewed actually by the individual as positive, negative, or neutral (or no consequence) depending upon personal or environmental values" (p. 5). The terminology is value related:

Self-concept may consist of any number of personal attributes which may be classified by some criteria as representing presence or absence of some skill or attribute. However, reporting the attribute does not necessarily reveal actual self-esteem. Actual self-esteem can only be determined by eliciting the value or relative priority which the individual attaches to the attribute (p. 5).

Therefore, a child might do very well at school tasks, but since his parents did not have success in school and do not encourage him/her in academics, the child does not value this success, and it does not enhance the actual self-esteem. Or, the child may lack skill in sports, but the family does not emphasize or value skills in this area so the child's self-esteem is not negatively affected.

Shavelson et al. (1976), define the self-concept in broad terms as a person's perception of himself through his experience with his environment and influence by both environmental reinforcement and significant others: "One's perceptions of himself are thought to influence the ways in which he acts, and his acts are thought to influence the ways in which he perceives himself" (p. 411). Shavelson et al. assert that a distinction must be made between self-concept and inferred self-concept: "Self-concept is restricted to a person's report of self. Inferred self-concept is another's attribution of a person's self-concept" (p. 411). They identify seven features critical to the self-concept construct. First, the self-concept is organized around family, friends, and school. Second, it is multifaceted and includes social acceptance, physical attractiveness, and ability. Third, it is hierarchical forming a hierarchy from individual experience in particular situations (such as academics like math or English and non-

academic areas in social, physical, and emotional situations) to a general self-concept. Fourth, the general self-concept is stable but becomes less stable as one descends the self-concept hierarchy, varying with differing situations. The fifth feature is the developmental aspect. Infants tend not to differentiate themselves from the environment until they begin to mature and learn from their experiences. For a young child, the self-concept is still undifferentiated and global. But as the child ages, the self-concept becomes increasingly differentiated, multifaceted, and structured. The sixth feature of the self-concept is its evaluative character. The individual develops a description of him/herself in various situations. According to Shavelson et al. (1976), "Evaluation can be made against absolute standards, such as the 'ideal' and they can be made against relative standards such as 'peers' or perceived evaluations of 'significant others'" (p. 414). Additionally, this evaluative dimension varies in importance for different individuals and across different situations. The seventh and final feature is that the self-concept "is differentiable from the other constructs with which it is theoretically related" (p. 415). It is influenced by experiences in specific areas which may be related. For instance, self-concept in mental ability might be more related to academic achievement than to one's ability in

sports or physical situations. Shavelson, et al. believe that "the more closely self-concept is linked with specific situations, the closer is the relationship between self-concept and behavior in that situation" (p. 415).

Rosenberg (1979), whose self-esteem scale is used in the study of this thesis, first defines what the self-concept is not:

It is not Freud's ego, Horney's 'real self', Mead's 'I', Maslow's 'self actualized person', Fromm's 'impulsive self', Erikson's 'ego identity', nor is it the existential self. Finally, it is not the constellation of an individual's psychological characteristics or 'personality' (pp. 7-8).

For Rosenberg, the self-concept is "the totality of the individual's thoughts and feelings having reference to himself as object" (p. 7). He divides the self-concept into three areas. The first, the extant self, is how the individual sees himself. This includes the social identity elements, dispositions, and physical characteristics of the self, the relationship among these components, and the dimensions of the self-concept (content, direction, intensity, salience, consistency, clarity, accuracy, and verifiability, individuality, and ego extensions such as clothes, house, children, and friends). The second, the

desired self, is how the individual would like to see him/herself. This area includes the idealized self-image (the wish), the committed image (the are), and the moral image (should). The third, and final area of the self-concept as defined by Rosenberg, is the presenting self which fulfills one's personal goals by the use of means and ends. The first objective in the presenting self is to present oneself in a specific way to reach a personal goal such as employment. A second objective is satisfaction of self-consistency and self-esteem. One seeks to establish and protect one's own self-picture to convince both oneself and others of the type of person one is. A third objective of the presenting self is involvement with conformity to social rules and norms. The individual acts in ways that he/she is taught to be appropriate in order to be tactful, to be courteous, to smooth social relations, and to act in ways appropriate to one's status in society (Rosenberg, 1979, 1989). Rosenberg believes the self-concept is made up of reflected appraisal (how others view us), social comparison, self-attributes (observing our own actions and their outcomes), and psychological centrality (whether the self-concept component being considered is central to that individual's feeling of worth or is peripheral and not valued highly by the individual). It is these four

principles which he holds to be accountable for the differences in self-esteem.

Rosenberg speaks of the self-esteem as a motive in the self-concept along with the motive of self-consistency. The self-esteem motive is the wish to think well of oneself while the self-consistency motive is the desire to protect the self-concept against change--the desire to maintain one's self-picture even in the face of contradictory or challenging evidence. He defines self-esteem as "a positive or negative attitude toward a particular object, namely, the self" (Rosenberg, 1989, p. 30). High self-esteem connotes self-respect and a feeling of worth. The individual appreciates his/her own merits while recognizing his/her faults. Low self-esteem signifies a lack of respect for oneself, a feeling of unworthiness and inadequacy, and a feeling that one is deficient in some way. Furthermore, he asserts: "a person's global self-esteem is based not solely on an assessment of constituent qualities but on an assessment of the qualities that count" (Rosenberg, 1979, p. 18). The global attitude is a "complex synthesis of elements which goes on in the individual's phenomenal field. It is not simply the elements per se but their relative weighting and combination that is responsible for the final outcome" (p. 21). He notes that attitudes towards one's specific abilities and toward one's general self-worth which

are measured by global self-esteem are not necessarily transferable to the specific, yet they are interrelated and affect each other.

While theorists use a variety of terms to describe the self-concept and self-esteem, a review of the literature contains similarities in defining these two terms. The self-concept is integrative and multidimensional. It comprises the physical self, the cognitive self, and the emotional and evaluative self. It encompasses one's feelings, evaluations, attitudes, and descriptive categories involving one's experiences, attributes, and capacities. It is descriptive and non-judgemental; it is the whole person. Self-esteem is only one dimension of the self-concept. It is the value one attaches to all of these attributes which make up the self-concept. It is multifaceted (different experiences, sex, age, and roles) and evolves from one's sense of competence, virtue, significance, and power in the world. Self-esteem is attached to all of these in either a positive or negative way. Global self-esteem is one's general attitude toward the self; it is the evaluation of one's worthiness, taking into consideration all aspects of one's self-concept.

Problems of Measurement of Self-Concept and Self-Esteem

The confusion surrounding the terms self-concept and self-esteem makes measurement of these constructs difficult. Indeed, Shavelson et al. (1976) have found 17 different conceptual dimensions on which the self-concept could be classified. They indicate three difficulties in interpreting the measurement of the self-concept. First, there are too many definitions of the term self-concept. The definitions are imprecise and vary from study to study. Second, data are not readily available on the equivalence of the various instruments used to measure the self-concept. Third, "data are not available to test rival counter interpretations" (p. 409). For Shavelson et al., these difficulties lead to ambiguity on the data collected on students' self-concepts and so limits the generalizability of any finding.

Burns (1979) also identifies the problem noting, "the plethora of self-referent constructs entails that studies employing such terms as 'self-concept', 'self-acceptance', 'the self', or 'self-esteem' may or may not be investigating the same phenomenon" (p.72). He indicates that there is not only a considerable amount of variation in measurement procedures used by those investigating the self-concept, but that the investigators differ in their theoretical

orientation and in the meaning they apply to the terms self-concept or self-esteem or the particular construct they are studying. Furthermore, Wylie (1974) points out that there is a "common use of measures having undemonstrated, inadequate or even entirely unexplored construct validity" (p. 30). Other investigators have concurred on this issue. According to Shavelson et al., "self-concept studies lack the focus that would result from an agreed upon definition of self-concept, lack adequate validation of interpretations of self-concept measures, and lack empirical data on the equivalence of the many self-concept measures currently being used" (p. 435). Juhasz (1985) does not believe that self-esteem is synonymous with self-concept. Self-esteem has a valuative component and evaluations of the self "often include aspects of self on which esteem does not rest" (p. 878). Therefore, when studying self-esteem, it is important that what is being assessed and measured is what the individual holds to be valuable rather than what the researcher considers to be of value. Shavelson et al. (1976), in an examination of a number of measures of self-esteem, found the measures unable to determine which characteristics, attributes, skills, and abilities form the basis for an individual's self-esteem. Because we do not actually live inside another's skin, we must infer self-concept and self-esteem by either self-report techniques or

by observation of an individual's behavior. Self-report techniques such as rating scales, Q-sorts, free response methods, projective tests, and interviews and observational techniques like checklists and rating scales have weaknesses and may measure different constructs. Self-report requires the subject to report truthfully and self-concept or self-esteem can only be inferred from observational techniques.

Whether the scale used to measure self-concept or self-esteem is multidimensional or unidimensional is another factor to consider. Is it measuring a global self-concept in which the individual is evaluated as a whole, or is it measuring the many different self-conceptions that an individual possesses, such as the academic, the physical, and the social?

In summary, when reviewing a study on self-concept or self-esteem one must take into consideration a variety of factors regarding the instrument used to measure the construct. The following is a list of some factors to consider:

1. How do the investigators define the terms self-concept and self-esteem?
2. What specifically is the area of self-concept or self-esteem being investigated?

3. What scale is being utilized to measure the construct?
4. What technique (observational, self-report) is employed by the scale?
5. Does the scale purport to measure global or overall self-regard or more specific and limited dimensions of the self-concept?
6. What is the reliability and validity of the scale being used to measure the construct?

A number of scales were used consistently in the measurement of self-esteem in the review of literature to be presented. Among those scales used were the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE), the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI). Additionally, some researchers revised these existing scales to meet their needs or devised scales of their own for their particular study. However, in this review of the literature the two most commonly used scales were the RSE and the SEI; therefore, a brief review of these two scales follows.

Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory

Coopersmith defines self-esteem as "the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself" (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 5). He developed his Self-Esteem Inventory for a research study reported in

his 1967 book, The Antecedents of Self-Esteem. The type of measure used is a 2-point rating scale (like me, not like me) purporting to measure overall or global self-regard. The age range of the scale is 10-16 year olds (Burns, 1979). The full form of the scale contains 58 items although Coopersmith always refers to it as a 50 item scale. The other 8 items are lie scale items. Some of the items which make up the scale were obtained from the Butler Haigh Q-sort but reworded for children. Other items were devised by Coopersmith. The 50 items concerned subject's self-attitudes in four areas: peers, parents, school, and personal interest. Five psychologists agreed upon all the items in the final scale as indicating either high or low self-esteem. Those items felt to be repetitious or ambiguous were eliminated (Wylie, 1974).

Coopersmith, in his 1967 study, applied the test to a sample of 102 5th and 6th grade boys and girls. It had a test-retest reliability of .88 over a 5-week period. The inventory was then retested on 1,748 children attending public school in Connecticut. Coopersmith (1967) indicates that this second group of subjects was more diverse in ability, interests, and social background than the initial group. A sample of 56 children from this population revealed a test-retest reliability of .70 over a 3-year interval. In a 1974 analysis done by Edgar et al. (cited in

Burns, 1979), the four subscales (peer, parents, school and personal interests) were found to be internally consistent. Scales ranged from .58 to .89; for the total scale, coefficient alpha was .87. Shavelson et al. (1976) found similar results and felt the data suggested that a dependable measure could be obtained with total scores. According to Burns (1979), "a factor analysis revealed one dominant factor which suggests that a global self-esteem measure can be obtained quite validly from the inventory" (p. 96). He further indicates that test-retest reliability of the four subscales was high indicating that they "appear justifiable" (p. 96). However, Wylie (1974) does not believe the SEI, as a measure of self-regard, has construct validity since there was no way to tell from Coopersmith's study whether he tested the association between the three types of classifications into which his groups were divided nor is there a way to know "to what extent other variables relevant to the dependent variables were held constant between comparison groups" (p. 173). Furthermore, in a continuing criticism of Coopersmith, Wylie (1974) states:

It is impossible to tell from examining the book how many scores resulted from all these measures, or how many different scores were used in significant tests, although not reported in the book. An enormous, but unreported and

unspecified, number of significant tests were apparently made. All these considerations mean that there is no way of telling how many reached the .05 level, and certainly no way to estimate how many significant ones would be expected to occur by chance alone (p. 173).

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

As previously noted, Rosenberg defines self-esteem as "a positive or negative attitude toward a particular object, namely, the self" (Rosenberg, 1989, p. 30). He designed his self-esteem scale for a research study on adolescent self-image published originally in his 1965 book, Society and the Adolescent Self Image. The type of measure used is a 4-point rating scale (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree) for use in measuring the self-esteem of adolescents. The scale is based on the Guttman model and was Rosenberg's attempt to achieve a unidimensional index of global self-esteem with satisfactory face validity. A Guttman scale encompasses items "drawn from the 'universe of content'" (Wylie, 1974, p. 181). Successive items represent various degrees of strength of the construct being studied. According to Wylie (1974),

the increasing degrees are defined in terms of increasing proportions of subjects who endorse each successive item. In such an idealized scale,

if items are arranged in rank order of percent of subjects who endorse them, one can know from any subject's rank position among subjects which particular items he endorsed because he will have endorsed all items up to a certain one and will have endorsed no item ranking higher than that one (p. 182).

Wylie reports that such idealized outcomes are rare so that subjects not responding to this ideal are "assigned the rank position of the most similar "idealized scale type" (p. 182). The Guttman Scale according to Rosenberg (1979) "insures a unidimensional continuum by establishing a pattern which must be satisfied before the scale can be accepted" (p. 16). Each item's adequacy is determined by "its patterned relationship with all other items on the scale" (p. 16). The Guttman model can ensure that items on the scale belong to the same dimension but it doesn't define the dimension. Therefore, Rosenberg only selected items which "openly dealt with the dimension under consideration" (p. 17). The items picked generally dealt with favorable or unfavorable attitudes toward oneself. Rosenberg stated that although the scale has face validity, this does not ensure its adequacy. There were no criterion groups with which to validate the scale so Rosenberg made the assumption that if the scale measures self-esteem, it would be associated with

other data in a "theoretically meaningful way" (p. 18). He considered its relationship to depression, psychological functioning, interpersonal attitudes, peer group participation and leadership, occupational values and aspirations, and broader social affairs. Rosenberg argues that "to the extent that the relationships reported there appear to be theoretically meaningful and consistent with expectations they would suggest that the scale actually is measuring self-esteem" (p. 29). He believes that his evidence in these areas supports the scale's measure of self-esteem.

Rosenberg used his scale to study over 5,000 American adolescents, male and female, in his investigation of the relationship between self-concept and a number of psychological and sociological variables. An advantage of the scale is that it is short and easy to administer. The scale had a reproducibility index of .92 and an item scalability of .73. A coefficient of reproducibility of .90 or more is the arbitrary minimum for a reliable, unidimensional scale although this is not a sufficient criterion to infer unidimensionality (Wylie, 1974). Therefore, Rosenberg chose items with face validity to add to its reproducibility for inferring that his scale had unidimensionality. But, once again, Wylie maintains that

face validity and reproducibility are not sufficient to produce a unidimensional scale.

Silber and Tippett (cited in Wylie, 1974) obtained a 2-week test-retest reliability coefficient of .85 for 28 college subjects. Additionally, they correlated the RSE against three other measures of self-esteem: the Kelly Repertory Test, the Health Self-Image Questionnaire, and the Interviewer's Ratings on Self-Esteem. The convergent-validity values between the RSE and these other scales were .67, .83, and .56.

Hensley-Roberts did a factorial analysis of the RSE in 1976 (cited in Burns, 1979) and identified 2 factors--⁰⁰the first loaded on positive self-appraisal items, the second on the negative items⁰⁰ (p. 103). Burns believes this indicates a response set which suggests that the scale is actually tridimensional but feels the scale is worthy of high recommendation due to its acceptable reliability coefficients and evidence of its construct validity.

To conclude this introduction, there are two problems inherent in the field of research exploring the self-concept and self-esteem. The first lies in the definition of the terms and the second lies in the area of measurement. Both of these problems must be considered as basic flaws in the field as a whole as one attempts to compare studies in this area.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

When reviewing research in the area of sex differences, it should be noted here that sex differences refer to biological differences between the sexes whereas gender differences refer to social and cultural differences between the sexes imposed by the society in which one is a member. However, the term gender differences cannot be accessed in the ERIC system used to review the literature for this thesis. Therefore, sex differences referred to in the literature review and my own study should be considered as social and cultural differences rather than biological differences between the sexes.

Studies investigating sex differences in self-esteem have had mixed results. Those prior to mid-1975 seemed to indicate no differences in the self-esteem between boys and girls in global self-esteem (Piers & Harris, 1964; Bohan, 1973; Coopersmith, 1967; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Wylie, 1979). Those after 1975 indicated a difference in favor of boys (Skaalvik, 1986a; Skaalvik, 1986b; Robison-Awana, Kehle & Jensen, 1986;). Yet there are studies which do not support these trends on either side of these time periods and show contradictory results when comparing male and female self-esteem. Some prior to mid-1975 show sex

differences in favor of boys (Fein, O'Neill, Frank, & Velit, 1975) while others show sex differences in favor of girls (Bledsoe, 1964) and still others found that boys and girls each had higher levels of self-esteem in different areas of the self-concept measured (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Rosenberg & Simmons, 1975). Those after 1975 showing sex differences in self-esteem also found that boys and girls score higher in different areas measured (Prescott, 1978; Juhasz, 1985, Osborne & LeGette, 1982).

When boys have been favored in self-esteem, it has often been hypothesized that this could be expected due to our society's view of women. In a review of literature by Skaalvik (1986), the following reasons were given for this hypothesis:

women's social and economic dependency,
beliefs in the inferiority of females, derogation
of the female body and sexuality, conflicting role
expectations towards females, male sex-role
stereotypes being more highly valued than female
sex role stereotypes...and the effect of the fore-
going theoretical positions. (p. 167)

However, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) argue that in studies where boy's self-esteem is higher, another reason might be considered. Girls are more willing than boys, generally, to disclose their weaknesses, and boys obtain higher scores on

"lie" scales and "defensiveness" scales. Therefore, it is possible that boys are presenting a more favorable picture of themselves than is actually true. If this is so, then their scores should be lower than those reported, and sex differences might shift in favor of girls having higher levels of self-esteem.

In those studies where no differences are reported between the sexes on measures of self-esteem, reasons hypothesized are that the summing of scores masks the actual differences between the sexes; girls and boys may have similar global self-esteem but exceed each other in different areas measured, and that flaws in methodology and design mask the sex differences. What follows is a review of the literature prior to and after 1975 on sex differences in self-esteem in children and adolescents.

Studies Prior to Mid-1975

Wylie (1979) assessed and summarized 47 studies prior to mid-1975 investigating the relationship between sex and overall self-regard using well-known instruments of self regard most of which have been psychometrically explored for reliability and construct validity. The SEI and the RSE were included among those instruments. Almost all of the studies involved children and adolescents; relatively few involved college students or adults. The studies also

varied in ethnic composition and socioeconomic status (SES). There were no sex differences reported in the overall self-regard between the sexes in any of these studies. However, methodological problems appeared throughout the studies making it difficult to adequately interpret the results. Some of these problems were (a) researchers did not establish that their sex groups were comparable on other variables such as grade point average (GPA) or SES which might affect self-esteem, (b) sex of experimenter was almost never controlled, (c) the confounding of low self-regard scores with unreliable responding of participants, (d) the practice of summing across items to obtain global self-esteem scores making it possible for the score to reflect any number of item combinations and (e) the possibility that any item may not have equal importance to males and females. But as Wylie (1979) states "it is also possible that the recurrent failure to find significant sex differences indicates genuine similarity between the sexes in level of overall self-regard" (p. 272).

Wylie also evaluated 43 studies concerning the relationship between sex and overall self-regard which used idiosyncratic instruments. Only 10 were substantively reviewed. The others all had major methodological flaws. Seven of the studies involved children and adolescents and three used college students or adults. In these 10 studies,

females exceeded males in two of them and in the other eight, null results appear as often as those in which males favor females in overall self-regard. Methodological flaws for these idiosyncratic instruments are similar to those of studies using well-known instruments and include: (a) researchers did not establish that the sex groups were comparable on other variables, (b) sex of experimenter was neither controlled nor reported, (c) there was no reliability or validity information, and (d) researchers used multiple statistical tests or provided no statistical evaluation. Wylie contends that although the results of the studies using both well-known and idiosyncratic instruments do not support a relationship between self-esteem and sex, this might be due to the flaws in methodology, design, and measurement scales.

Wylie's findings support Maccoby and Jacklin's 1974 assessment summarizing 30 studies measuring self-esteem and sex differences. Fifteen of the studies involved children or adolescents 13 years old or younger. Three involved adolescents over the age of 13 but younger than 18. Eight studies were on those 18-21 years old and four were on adults 20 and over. Ethnicity and SES were mixed and a variety of scales used some measure of overall self-regard, self-confidence, projective tests, and teacher ratings to measure self-esteem. Most of the studies used self-ratings

on standardized self-esteem scales. Sex differences were rarely found. In those studies in which they were found, girls as often as boys showed higher scores. Throughout childhood and adolescence, both sexes were very similar in overall self-satisfaction and self-confidence although "girls rate themselves higher in the measurement of social competence; boys more often see themselves as strong, powerful, dominant, 'potent'" (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974, p. 350).

Skaalvik (1986) reanalyzed Maccoby and Jacklin's 1974 and Wylie's 1979 review of the literature prior to 1975 on methodological grounds. He argues that the studies reviewed by Maccoby and Jacklin and Wylie suffered from serious methodological problems. He felt one important problem might be due to the fact that a variety of different instruments were used, possibly measuring different concepts, which made it difficult to compare results from one study to the next. A second problem was the summing of different self-descriptions to measure self-esteem. He believes self-esteem and self-description to be different concepts; self-description overlooks the issue of psychological centrality in measuring self-esteem. He notes that "scores summed across different areas of self-descriptions may cancel out sex differences" (p. 169). Therefore, Skaalvik (1986) argues that self-esteem should be

measured by context free instruments which would leave the individual free to make responses dependent on the areas deemed important to him/her. A context free instrument would take into account psychological centrality. In those studies reviewed where self-esteem is measured as the discrepancy between real self and ideal self, the sex differences in discrepancy scores were dependent on which area of self-conception was measured; here too, psychological centrality was an issue. A third problem was that age groups were lumped together. Skaalvik notes "If sex differences develop as a consequence of perceived sex roles, there is reason not to expect any differences in very young children" (p. 170). However, as the child reaches adolescence, it is possible that sex differences do occur in the area of self-esteem. A fourth problem was that the cultural background and ethnicity of the samples were often mixed, and Skaalvik believes that a relationship between sex and self-esteem "must be conceptualized as a function of cultural norms and values" (Skaalvik, 1986, p. 170). Mixing cultural background and ethnicity might mask sex differences within the various groups. A final problem was that non-representative samples were used and information on sampling procedures were inadequate. Therefore, according to Skaalvik, taking these problems into consideration means that although a large number of studies were reviewed by

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) and Wylie (1979), no firm conclusions can be drawn regarding sex differences and that nonsignificant conclusions should not be interpreted as proof that differences in self-esteem between the sexes do not exist.

Coopersmith, in his 1967 book, The Antecedents of Self-Esteem, analyzed sex differences in the development of his self-esteem inventory. He administered the test to 43 girls and 44 boys in two fifth and sixth grade classes. The difference between the mean scores for boys (81.3, SD = 12.2) and girls (83.3, SD = 16.7) was not significant ($F = .80$, $p < .50$). He later administered his self-esteem inventory to 1,748 children attending public schools in central Connecticut. Although Coopersmith notes that these children were "more diverse in ability, interests, and social background than the initial sample" (p. 10), the scores still did not differ significantly. Girls had a mean score of 72.2, SD = 12.8 and boys had a mean score of 70.1, SD = 13.8. No F or p value was reported to verify non-significance.

A study by Bohan, reported in a 1973 article entitled "Age and Sex Differences in Self-Concept", used the SEI to assess self-esteem on two classes each of fourth, sixth, eighth, and tenth grade pupils from public schools in Rochester, New York. The sample was composed of middle

class, white collar professional families. Sex differences were significant only at the tenth grade with girls showing lower self-concept scores than boys and lower self-concept scores than girls in any other age group. Bohan ascribes the differences to sex roles imposed by society on girls of this age and the inferior status given to women's sex roles. However, the sex differences in self-esteem for fourth, sixth, and eighth grade boys and girls were not significant. No other details of the study were reported including sample size. It is possible that a small sample size would yield non-significant results.

In an article published in 1964, Piers and Harris report developing a wide range self-concept instrument to assess age and other correlates in the self-concept of children. The test was administered to a sample of 90 children from the third, fourth, and sixth grade classes in a small school district. Age differences in self-concept were noted although no consistent sex differences were observed.

Using items from the popularity factor of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and from the SEI, Fein, et al. (1975) investigated the sex differences in early adolescent self-esteem. The sample consisted of 307 urban children in the second through sixth grades, multiethnic, from lower and lower middle class families. Sex differences

in self-esteem were not reported as significant until the onset of adolescence. Even then, between the ages of 7.5 and 13 years, girls self-esteem did not drop, but remained stable. Boys self-esteem rose during this period, and the authors believe this to have produced the sex differences.

Rosenberg and Simmons (1975) used a sample of 2,625 children and adolescents aged 8-15 years old to study sex differences in the self-concept. The sample was taken from 25 schools in Baltimore, 63% of the subjects of whom were black and most of whom were working class. Self-esteem was measured by a 6-item Guttman Scale. In the measure of global self-esteem, 12-14 year old girls were somewhat more likely to have low self-esteem than boys but this was not statistically significant. However, statistically significant sex differences did emerge in other parts of the self-concept. In self-consciousness, sex differences were larger than in global self-esteem. Girls this age were more self-conscious than boys, "more vulnerable to criticism, and more concerned with promoting interpersonal harmony" (p. 147). Also, girls were more people-oriented and boys were more concerned with achievement and competence. Rosenberg and Simmons believe the differences to be due to the definitions of sex roles outlined by society.

In 1964, Bledsoe reported on a study investigating the self-concepts of children and their intelligence,

achievement, interests, and anxiety. He used a self-concept scale modified from Lipsitt's Adaptation of Bill's Index of Adjustment to measure the self-esteem of 271 fourth and sixth grade boys and girls from 4 schools in Clarke County, Georgia. The scale consisted of 30 trait descriptive adjectives. The higher the scores, the higher the level of self-esteem. There were no differences between the self-concept scores of boys in the two grades or girls in the two grades. But girls scored significantly higher at the .01 level than the boys in corresponding grades indicating that girls exceed boys in self-esteem in this study.

To summarize, studies prior to 1975 have mixed results concerning sex differences and self-esteem although the majority found no significant differences. Methodological problems, according to both Wylie (1979) and Skaalvik (1986), may be the reason why no differences were found in these studies. When differences were found, they were not in the area of global self-esteem, but rather, they were generally in different areas of self-esteem for boys and girls.

Studies 1975 and After

In 1986(a), Skaalvik reviewed 29 studies investigating sex differences in self-esteem between 1975-1985. In ten of the studies a context free measure of self-esteem was used for measurement of self-esteem. The RSE was one of those.

Four of the 10 studies used large stratified random samples of the age groups studied. Age groups in eight of the studies were between 12 and 18 years. Only two were conducted with children in the third grade. One study used a national representative sample of high school seniors. In all ten of these studies, boys exceeded girls in self-esteem, and the differences were significant in eight of the studies, all among those with large representative samples of the age groups observed. A problem was that in two of the studies there was insufficient information on ethnicity and in six studies ethnicity was mixed.

The SEI, which measures the sum total of self-descriptions, was used in eight studies. In three of them, males scored higher than females, while females exceeded males in only one study. In two studies, sex differences were only found in some subgroups. In four of the studies, sex differences in self-esteem were non-significant. There was inadequate information on sampling procedures in six of the studies. Ethnic and cultural groups varied between studies (Skaalvik, 1986).

The final eleven studies reviewed by Skaalvik used a variety of self-descriptive instruments. Eight of the studies involved adolescents aged 11 to 18 years, one involved preschool children and one involved adults. One study was excluded as the age range was too wide, and the

ages were treated as a homogenous sample. Males exceeded females on self-esteem in eight samples or subsamples. Again, ethnic groups were mixed and sampling procedures inadequately reported.

To summarize, for studies using self-descriptive instruments, males exceed females in self-esteem in twenty-one studies, females scored higher than males in one study and results were non-significant in seven studies. Using context free instruments, boys exceeded girls in self-esteem in all studies. Skaalvik believes this indicates that context free instruments yield higher self-esteem for males than females aged 12-18 years old and that the studies using self-descriptive instruments also clearly show sex differences in favor of males on self-esteem. He argues that although studies after 1975 contradict the conclusions of Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) and Wylie (1979), it is difficult to compare the studies due to methodological differences in research, confusion of the female role due to the women's liberation movement, and use after 1975 of more context free instruments. Additionally, even if boys do have higher self-esteem than girls, he questions in what areas this is the case after taking into consideration the norms and values expected of each sex by our society. Finally, Skaalvik (1986) claims that most studies do not control for ethnicity or culture nor do they include sex

differences on school dropout (since school may have an effect in creating sex differences in self-esteem).

A 1978 study by Prescott on 442 sixth through eighth graders who were heterogenous on race, geographic location, and type of school attempted to measure sex differences in self-esteem with the use of the Franks-Morolla Semantic Differential Measure of Self-Esteem. This scale measures the outer self-esteem which is derived from the reflected appraisals of others, and the inner self-esteem "derived from the results of one's efficacious actions on the social or inanimate environment" (p. 68). Although the two types of self-esteem are distinct, they are interactive with both being necessary for an individual's mental health and successful adaptation in the world. It was found that there was a significant difference between the sexes in self-esteem with males scoring higher than females on the inner esteem dimension and females scoring higher than males on the outer esteem dimension. From this, it would appear that sex differences found were not due to either sex exceeding the other on overall or global self-esteem, but each sex exceeding the other in different areas measured by self-esteem.

Osborne and LeGette (1982) did a study investigating the differences in self-concept scores of a group of adolescents by sex, race, grade level, and social class of

the participants. The sample was taken from grades seven, nine, and eleven in public schools in a North Carolina city of approximately 40,000. The 374 students consisted of 65 blacks and 309 whites representing five SES levels. The researchers used the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, the SEI, Form A, and the Self-Concept of Ability Scale to measure self-concept. No significant differences in global self-concept were reported between the sexes or indicated by total scores of the participants on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale or the SEI. On the Self-Concept of Ability Scale, mean scores were reported to be similar for males and females. Osborne and LeGette (1982) suggest that using one measure to obtain global self-concept scores is insufficient and can be deceptive. The use of several instruments can detect differences in the subscale scores for sex, age, race, and SES even when total mean scores are similar.

Juhasz (1985) studied self-esteem in early adolescent 12 to 14 year olds from a primarily white, middle class, midwestern, suburban junior high school. Students filled out the "How I see Myself Questionnaire" which roughly equates to Rosenberg's Dimensions of Self-Concept (abilities, traits, social structure, physical body, and social network). Although statistical significance was not established, the results supported the assumption that age

and gender are important factors in self-esteem. The response frequency of males exceeded females in "self characterized by certain abilities and talents" (p.885). Females exceeded males in social network and social structure. Males and females were similar under personality traits and physical and bodily dimensions. Once again, this seems to indicate that males and females exceed each other in different aspects of the self-esteem rather than either sex exceeding the other on total scores.

The SEI, Short Form (25 questions) was used by Robison-Awana, Kehle, and Jensen in their 1986 study investigating self-esteem and sex role perceptions of males and females relative to academic competence. Subjects were 140 seventh grade students from a middle class, large urban area junior high school. A significant but moderate difference was found in self-esteem levels favoring boys. However, with higher academic achievement levels for both sexes, the levels of self-esteem also rose significantly. Both sexes, under opposite sex instructions ratings, in which they were to rate the opposite sex on various dimensions of self-esteem, credited boys with higher self-esteem although academically competent girls were an exception to this. In fact, these girls did not feel themselves unworthy of esteem, and rated themselves significantly higher in self-esteem than boys.

Skaalvik (1986) studied sex differences in global and academic self-esteem of third, sixth, and eighth graders in four Norwegian samples drawn from both rural and urban settings. SES of participants varied. Using a context free instrument, no significant sex differences were found in global self-esteem in the third grade. However, at this grade girls had higher academic self-esteem. There was a significant difference between boys and girls in global self-esteem in grades 6 and 8 favoring boys. Boys also had higher academic self-esteem than girls in these grades. Skaalvik interprets this to mean that girls develop "both lower general self-acceptance and lower confidence in their academic abilities" (p. 116) during puberty. He believes the girl's lower academic self-esteem to be a function of their lower global self-esteem. Finally, "girl's global self-esteem was more dependent on perceiving themselves as good-looking than was the boy's global self-esteem" (p. 117) indicating that self-esteem may be based on different areas for each sex.

A study by Marsh, Parker, and Barnes in 1985 demonstrated the multidimensionality of the self-concept in 901 male (53%) and female (47%) students aged 12-17 years attending a public, coeducational high school in the city of Wollongong in Sydney, Australia. The SDQ11, a multidimensional self-concept instrument, was used to

measure eleven aspects of the self-concept including General Self, Math, Verbal, General School, Physical Abilities, Appearance, Relations with the Same and Opposite Sex, Relationships with Parents, Honesty, and Emotional Stability. The General Self was based on the RSE and its modification by Bachman in 1970. Coefficient alpha for the eleven SDQ11 Scales varied between .78 and .90. Coefficient alphas were also computed separately for each grade level and ranged from .84 to .89. Factor analysis clearly identified each of the eleven scales the SDQ11 was designed to measure. Factor loadings were high on the scale each was designed to measure and low on other scales as shown in the tables presented and discussed by Marsh, et al.

Sex differences were statistically significant for eight of the eleven scales. For five of the scales (General Self, Math, Physical Ability, Physical Appearance, and Emotional Stability), boys exceeded girls in self-concept. Girls exceeded boys on Verbal, Same Sex, and Honesty. For the other three scales, for the sum of the three academic scales and the sum of the eleven scales, sex differences were not statistically significant.

The results support Wylie's review that there are no significant sex differences in overall self esteem. Yet, on specific scales, there were sex differences, some favoring girls and some favoring boys. However, when all the

specific scales are summed, they cancel out the differences. This indicates, once again, that sex differences in self-concept and self-esteem do exist when using a multidimensional scale as opposed to a unidimensional scale.

In summary, after mid-1975, most studies favor boys in the measurement of self-esteem. However, even in these cases, questions arise concerning the instrument used to measure self-esteem and the mixing of cultural and ethnic groups as well as age groups. Four studies reviewed concluded that there are differences but that they are in different areas and that unidimensional scales do not adequately judge the differences in sex on self-esteem. Four studies were non-significant and in only one study did girls exceed boys on self-esteem.

The nature of the data collected for the present study was such that it allowed for the control of race, SES, GPA, and the marital status of the parents. Being able to control these variables was an opportunity to alleviate some of the problems of the studies reviewed concerning the mixing of these variables and the confounding of them with the independent variable. However, it also means that generalizability will be limited. The purpose of the present study was to determine sex differences in the self-esteem of early adolescents aged 11-13 years old using a context free instrument and controlling for race, SES, GPA, and marital

status of the parents. It was hypothesized that there would be no significant differences in self-esteem between the sexes in this group of adolescents.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Original Sample

The sample for this descriptive study was taken from an original sample obtained in the data collected for a research project on middle school children by Dr. Randall Jones of Utah State University and Dr. Janice Streitmatter of the University of Arizona. The data were collected in November, 1990, from an urban, upper middle class, primarily white school district in Tucson, Arizona. The data were comprised of 150 sixth, seventh and eighth grade subjects, 50 per grade level, selected by choosing two classes from each grade level for a total of 75 girls and 75 boys. Of the 150 subjects, 119 were White, 2 were Black, 5 were Oriental, 11 were Hispanic, 2 were Indian, 8 classified themselves as "Other", and 3 did not record their race. From two-parent families, there were 113 children, 31 came from divorced families, 2 had parents who were separated and 2 had fathers who were deceased. One recorded "other" for marital status of parents and one did not record this piece of information. Regarding GPA, 125 students had a GPA of 4.0, 8 had a GPA of 3.0, 4 had a GPA of 2.0, and 13 received grades below 2.0 or failed to report the information.

Sample

Subjects were selected from the original sample who met the following criteria: they were white, from two-parent families, and had GPAs of 4.0. Of the 150 subjects, 75 met this criteria on race, family status, and GPA; 41 girls and 35 boys.

Apparatus and Materials

The apparatus and materials used in this descriptive study consisted of the grade report, those parts of the original inventory sheet consisting of birth date, gender, ethnicity, grade level in school, marital status of parents, and a modified version of the RSE.

Original Instrument

A Personal Opinion Survey (POS) of 181 questions was used to gather information about the subjects and assess different areas of their lives. It included the Rosenthal, Gurney, and Moore Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory developed in 1981 and modified to assess psychosocial maturity in pre and early adolescent samples. The 10 item RSE, also included in the survey and interspersed with the other items included in the inventory, was used to assess subjective evaluations of the self. Some of the questions on the RSE were shortened in length from the original scale. This was likely done to make the questions easier to read for the population being surveyed. Additionally, the scale

was reduced from a 4-point rating scale of "Strongly Agree", "Agree", "Disagree", and "Strongly Disagree" to a 2-point rating scale of "Almost Always" and "Almost Never". Five scales were identified to assess perceptions of friendships, school, teachers, school work, and educational intentions of the subjects. Seven scales were identified to assess perception of family and home environment including parent relations, parent-child relations, mother-child relations, father-child relations, mom-related rules, dad-related rules, and previous trouble. A personal inventory sheet asked information including date of birth, gender, and ethnicity, grade level in school, marital status of parents, number of brothers and sisters older and younger than the subject, parent's occupation, number of years lived in Tucson, elementary school attended, and the sports, clubs, and activities the subject was currently participating in or expected to participate in in that school year. The final portion of the POS consisted of the student's current grade report as reported by the administration (as opposed to self-report).

Instruments

The 10 item RSE used in the original collection of data was modified to a nine item scale. The reason for this was that in the original sample, the Rosenthal, Gurney, and Moore Erikson Psychosocial State Inventory and the RSE items

were interspersed among each other. It was found that two of the items used in the original analysis to count self-esteem were not from the RSE, and one item of the RSE was not included in the count. Therefore, the two which did not correspond to the RSE were deleted and the one not originally included in the count was counted; variables 76 and 77 were excluded and variable 69 was included. These revisions as well as reducing the scale to a 2-point rating from a 4-point rating and the actual shortening of the questions from the original scale made it a modified and shortened version of the RSE.

Reliability of Modified Scale

The modified and shortened version of the RSE consisted of variables 69, 71, 74, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, and 83. The coefficient alpha was .81. When single variables were deleted, coefficient alpha ranged from .76 to .84 depending on the item deleted. This indicates a high degree of reliability for all nine items on the scale. When analyzed for males alone, the coefficient alpha was .87. When analyzed for females alone, the coefficient alpha was .35. Boys show greater reliability on the scale than girls because boys showed more variability in their answers than the girls. Greater variability increases reliability. One male whose answers on every question indicated low self-esteem was subsequently deleted as an extreme outlier. This

reduced the reliability of the scale for males to .69. It reduced reliability of the total scale to .77. Both scales still indicate a high degree of reliability.

Dependent Measures

The dependent measure, level of self-esteem, was calculated by the subject's mean score on a modified and shortened version of the 10 item RSE. Mean score was only calculated for subjects who answered at least 5 out of 9 questions. Only two subjects did not meet this criteria.

Independent Measures

The independent measure, gender, was a categorical variable.

Procedures

A Personal Inventory and the POS were administered to two classes each of sixth, seventh, and eighth grade students by the classroom teacher. Instructions on the Personal Inventory section indicated that students not put their names on the form. They were asked to answer all the questions. The instructions indicated that there were no right or wrong answers. Directions regarding the 181 question POS were as follows:

Each of the following statements reflect personal feelings held by some people in this society. We are interested in how true each statement is for you. Because these items reflect personal feelings and

attitudes, there are no right or wrong answers. The BEST response to each statement is your PERSONAL OPINION. We have tried to cover many points of view. You may find that some statements are true for you, and others are not. Regardless of how you feel, you can be sure that many others feel the same as you do. RESPOND TO EACH STATEMENT ACCORDING TO YOUR PERSONAL FEELINGS BY MARKING THE ANSWER THAT BEST REFLECTS YOUR OPINION.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Using the Examine procedure in SPSS, some basic descriptive statistics were obtained. The mean for boys was 0.86, with a median of 1.0, and standard deviation of 0.24. A skewness of -2.1856 was reported. Kurtosis was 4.8. The interquartile range, in which 50% of the scores lie, was .48. The minimum was 0.0, maximum was 1.0, and the range was 1.0. The mean for girls was .94, with a median of 1.0, and standard deviation of .08. A skewness of -1.1467 was reported. The kurtosis index was -.1907. The interquartile range (.11) was smaller for the girls, with a higher minimum value (.78) and the same maximum value (1.0). Neither the boys' or girls' distribution was normally distributed. Both were negatively skewed which means the scores piled up around high self-esteem scores. Both had some kurtosis with the boys' distribution flatter than the girls'. However, it is difficult to interpret what is happening when the samples were both skewed and kurtotic. The distributions were not normal. For a pictorial representation of the distribution between boys and girls, see Figures 1 and 2.

An independent groups t test compared the mean score between the sexes on a shortened and modified version of the RSE. The mean score for girls (.94) exceeded the mean score

ESTEEM FOR FEMALES

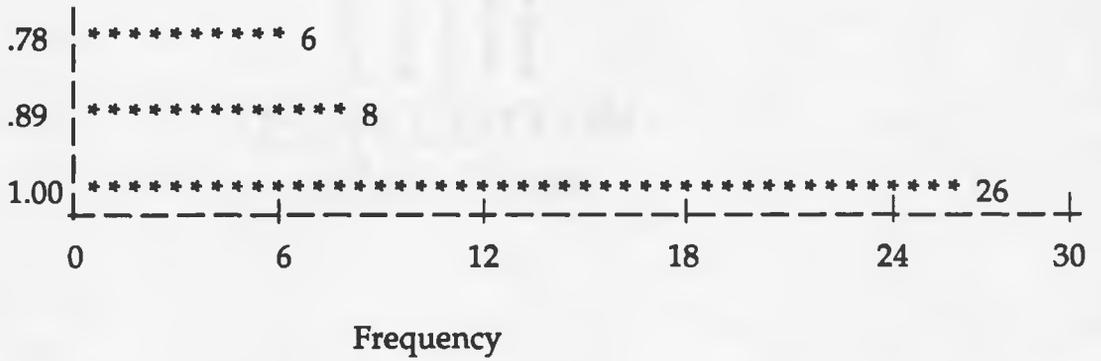


Figure 1. Histogram: Esteem for Females.

ESTEEM FOR MALES

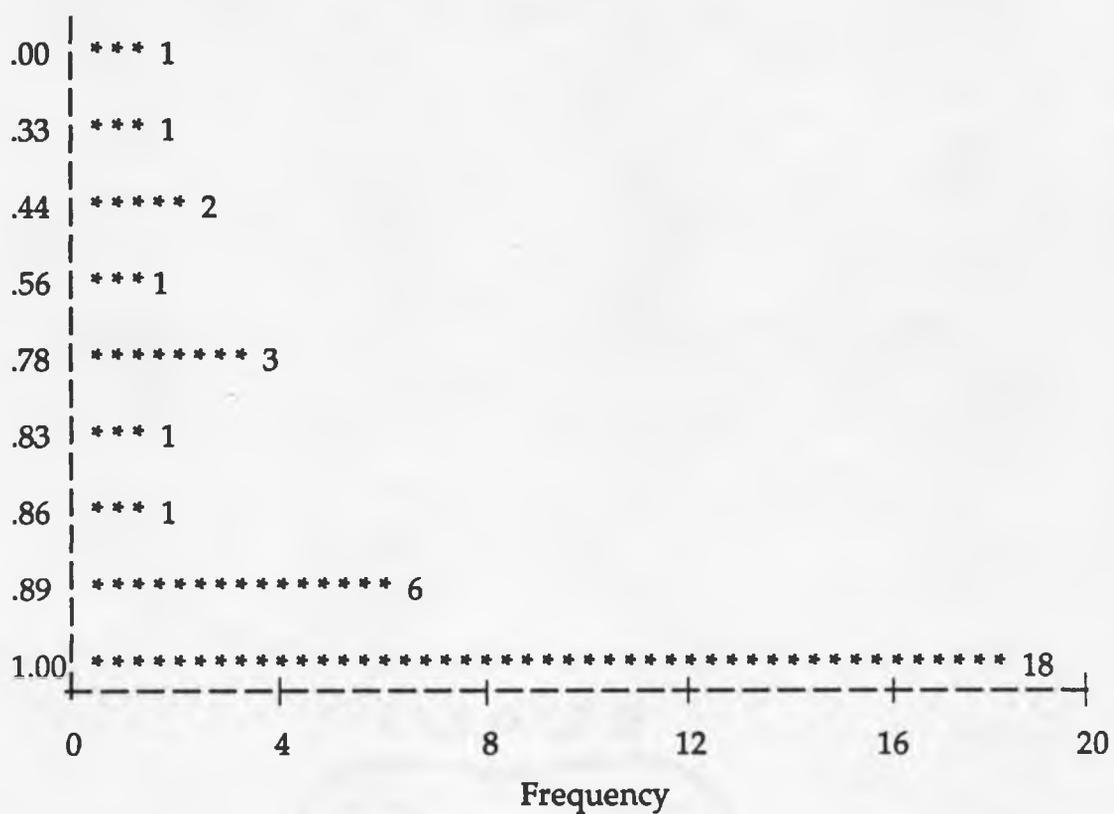


Figure 2. Histogram: Esteem for Males.

for boys (.86). This was found to be statistically significant $t(40.02) = -2.06, p = 0.046$. Alpha was 0.05. When data is analyzed using SPSS, an F test for homogeneity of variance is automatically included. That test for homogeneity of variance was significant, $F = 7.98, p = .000$, two tailed, indicating that the null hypothesis of equal variance in the two groups should be rejected. Therefore, a separate variance estimate was used instead of a pooled variance estimate. This explains why the df on the t test are lower than the expected 72.

The strength of the relationship between sex and self-esteem was medium, as indexed by an η^2 of .06. Cohen (1988), who is an expert in this area and most often the source of this type of information, says that $r = .24$ or r -squared of .06 is a medium effect size. A Pearson r revealed a correlation coefficient of .25, which was significant at the .05 level. This indicates a positive correlation between sex and level of self esteem such that girls tend to have higher self-esteem scores than boys in this study.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The results of this descriptive study indicate that white, early adolescent girls from two-parent families who have high GPAs score significantly higher than boys of the same group in global self-esteem as measured by a modified and shortened version of the RSE, a context free instrument. The results do not support my hypothesis of no significant differences in the self-esteem between the sexes nor do they support most of the literature reviewed which largely reports no significant differences between the sexes in self-esteem or differences in favor of boys. Out of 57 studies reviewed, Wylie (1979) reported only two where girls exceeded boys in global self-esteem or overall self-regard. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) reported that out of the 30 studies they reviewed, in the rare instance when non-significant results were not reported, girls as often as boys scored higher in self-esteem. In only two other studies reviewed in this paper did females score significantly higher than males in global self-esteem (Bledsoe, 1964; Skaalvik, 1986a). However, in those studies, the scales used were neither unidimensional nor context free. In fact, using unidimensional context free instruments, boys exceeded girls in all studies reviewed

(Skaalvik, 1986b). Additionally, ethnicity, SES, age, and marital status of parents were mixed, or the studies controlled for one or more of the variables but not all. Any one or all of these variables might well be a factor in levels of self-esteem between the sexes. Females did score higher than males in specific areas of self-esteem. This occurred when instruments used went beyond global self-esteem in their evaluations by using self-descriptive or multidimensional instruments to measure specific areas where girls and boys might differ in levels of self-esteem (Rosenberg & Simmons, 1975; Prescott, 1978; Juhasz, 1985; Marsh, Parker, & Barnes, 1985; Robison-Awana, Kehle, & Jensen, 1986), although in one study, the results were not significant (Juhasz, 1985). Once again, variables of ethnicity, SES, GPA, age, and marital status of parents were mixed or uncontrolled in these studies. A study by Robison-Awana, et al., did reveal that self-esteem rose significantly for both sexes with higher levels of academic achievement but that girls who were academically competent rated themselves significantly higher in self-esteem than boys. The remainder of the studies reported no significant sex differences in global self-esteem (Piers & Harris, 1963; Bohan, 1973; Coopersmith, 1967; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Wylie, 1979; Osborne & LeGette, 1982; Skaalvik, 1986a), or reported significant sex differences favoring boys in either

global self-esteem or in specific measures of the self-concept (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Fein, O'Neill, Frank & Velit, 1975; Wylie, 1979; Robison-Awana, Kehle, & Jensen, 1986; Skaalvik, 1986a,b), or did not favor either sex in overall self-esteem but rather found differences in specific areas in which each sex exceeded the other (Rosenberg & Simmons, 1975; Prescott, 1978; Marsh, Parker, & Barnes, 1985).

A majority of the subjects in this descriptive study had high self-esteem. The reasons for this are not difficult to surmise. First, all the subjects come from two-parent families. Studies by Parish and Taylor (1979) and Parish and Dostal (1980) found that early adolescents from intact families tended to have higher self-concepts than those from divorced and reconstituted families. Second, these students were all high academic achievers and high academic achievers tend to have higher levels of self-esteem (Demo & Savin-Williams, 1983; Robison-Awana, Kehle, & Jensen, 1986). Their high academic achievement might be due, in part, to their parent's views of education. In speaking with the principal (M. Scheetz, personal communication, June 18, 1992) of the school from which the subjects were chosen, she indicated that there was a strong commitment to education on the part of these parents. While most were middle and upper class, some carried two jobs so

that their children could attend school in this particular district. This brings up the third reason why all these students show such high levels of self-esteem, which is the school itself. Their school district is committed to the middle school concept. This concept views the school as a transition from elementary school to high school. Children in this age group are undergoing major physical, mental, and emotional changes and need a curriculum which addresses this transitional period in their lives (Arth, 1985). The goals of a middle school committed to such a concept should include enhancement of self-perceptions in terms of human development beyond academics and should include direct attempts to enhance self-perceptions (Beane, 1982). Such schools attempt to deal with the enhancement of self-perceptions and self-esteem through advisor-advisee activities, interdisciplinary teaching, cooperative learning, peer tutoring, after school activities, and community projects. Emphasis on these programs is designed to give the early adolescent the continued nurturing and guidance needed in the transition from elementary school to high school. It is believed by many (Bean, 1982; Arth, 1985; Alexander, 1988, Earle, 1989) that the middle school concept and its programs will enhance the self-esteem of students. In the case of these subjects, school atmosphere and the commitment to the middle school concept might have

played a part in the high levels of self-esteem reported for both sexes.

Two reasons can be hypothesized as to why girls scored significantly higher in self-esteem than boys in this study. First, these girls were high achievers and, as noted before in a study by Robison-Awana et al., (1986), academically competent girls rated themselves significantly higher in self-esteem than boys: "Above average, academically competent girls did not consider themselves less worthy of esteem; in fact, they viewed themselves as having substantially greater worth than boys" (p. 182). So, although these boys were also academically high achievers and had high self-esteem, the girls would still rate themselves as having higher self-esteem than the boys. A second reason that girls scored significantly higher in self-esteem than boys might be due to the change in sex roles which have come about since the women's liberation movement and civil rights legislation of the 1960s and 1970s. A study by Bush, Simmons, Hutchinson, and Blyth in 1975 compared the self-esteem of girls relative to boys to a 1968 study to see if the women's liberation movement and feminist ideology might have had an effect on the girl's level of self-esteem. They did not find that girls had any higher self-esteem in 1975 than in 1968 nor did the girls evaluate being female more highly. Still, girls did not

have lower educational aspirations or occupational aspirations than boys. Yet, at that time, these aspirations might have been difficult to translate into reality. However, 17 years later, in 1992, while the sexes have yet to achieve equality in types of employment or parity in terms of income, women are much more visible in the professional world in occupations once only open to or attained by men. It is not uncommon these days to see women in the fields of medicine and law as well as in management positions. There are today women veterinarians, mayors, governors, police officers, and fire fighters. Perhaps levels of self-esteem for girls have increased since 1975 as a result of these role models, at least for those girls who are academically competent and can imagine themselves in such positions. Civil rights legislation has also played a role by extending opportunities in the workforce to all minorities, including women thus giving them the opportunity to realize their aspirations.

There were three advantages in this study. First, the term self-esteem is precisely defined by Rosenberg as "a positive or negative attitude toward a particular object, namely, the self" (Rosenberg, 1989, p. 30). His scale and the modified and shortened version in this study measure this general global self-esteem. Second, the instrument used was context free enabling individuals to make free

responses dependent on those areas important to him/her. As Rosenberg states: "A person's global self-esteem is based not solely on an assessment of constituent qualities but on an assessment of the qualities that count" (Rosenberg, 1979, p. 18). Assessing the "qualities that count" takes into consideration the issue of psychological centrality. Third, this study was context bound and did not suffer in terms of precision since the data set controlled a number of important variables of race, SES, GPA, and marital status of parents. This limited the possibility of confounding those variables with the independent variable and maximized the precision of the study.

There were several limitations to the study as well. First, the data set was not optimal which lowered both generalizability and realism. A disproportionate number of the subjects were white and had GPAs of 4.0. While it is possible for a majority of subjects to be white due to the racial composition of the school district being sampled, it is difficult to believe that 83% had GPAs of 4.0 even given their advantages of high SES and the marital status of their parents; the sample begins to look like the Lake Wobegon Effect. According to Brinberg and McGrath (1985), a researcher tries to maximize generalizability, precision, and realism in the methodological domain. Yet, maximizing any one of the three lowers the levels of the other two.

The precision gained by picking a set of data where so many of the variables were already controlled limits both the "generalizability with respect to the populations to which the information applies" and "realism with respect to the contexts, or concrete behavior systems, to which that information is intended to apply" (Brinberg & McGrath, 1985). In this study, generalizability is limited to segments of the population that are White, high academic achieving, early adolescents from two-parent families.

A second limitation was that Rosenberg's original scale was shortened and modified for this group of subjects. Rosenberg's original scale is unidimensional, measuring a single construct. Because the scale used to measure the subjects in this study was shortened and modified, unidimensionality cannot be assumed without a factor analysis. However, we can say that this scale is not multidimensional. While a unidimensional scale has the advantage of measuring a single construct, it also has the disadvantage of not being able to measure the many different aspects of the self-concept which contribute to self-esteem. Self-esteem may not be adequately measured by an overall global attitude. A number of the studies reviewed in this paper indicate that boys and girls each have high self-esteem but in different areas (Rosenberg & Simmons, 1975; Prescott, 1978; Juhasz, 1985; Marsh, Parker, & Barnes,

1985). A multidimensional scale would thus take into account these specific areas while not disregarding the measurement of overall self-esteem. Another problem was that Rosenberg's original scale was a 4-point rating scale and the modified version was reduced to a 2-point rating scale. This limits the choices for the subject to "Almost Always" and "Almost Never". Many subjects may feel somewhere in the middle of these two extremes. When modified, this 2-point scale might not yield a true indication of global self-esteem.

A third limitation in this study is that the assumptions for the independent groups t test were not strictly met. Jaccard and Becker (1990) present three assumptions for the independent groups t test:

1. The samples are independently and randomly sampled from their respective populations.
2. The scores in each population are normally distributed.
3. The scores in the two populations have equal variances (p. 228).

First, information was not available as to whether subjects for this study were independently and randomly selected. It is only known that two classrooms from each grade level were used. If this assumption was violated, then the sample chosen would not be representative of white early

adolescents with high GPAs from high SES, two-parent families (although it may not be even if it were randomly sampled) and it would be difficult to generalize the results to another similar population. Second, the self-esteem scores for boys and girls were not normally distributed, with the mean tending to be near the high self-esteem scores for both boys and girls. Finally, there was a problem with homogeneity of variance. Sample sizes were unequal and the boys' scores varied more than the girls' scores. The separate variance estimate t test, yielding a lower number of df, was used because of this violation. This study, however, was not a true experiment, but rather a descriptive study. A final limitation of this study was that although reliability of the modified and shortened version of the RSE was high, it was less reliable for the girls than the boys even after deleting an extreme outlier in the boys group. This was because the boys showed more variability in their group than the girls which was evidenced by the fact that on three items, all the girls picked the same answer; there was no variability. This was due to the fact that a very narrow range of subjects was chosen from the original sample, and the more homogenous the subjects the less reliability can be expected. Although controlling variables in a study has the advantage of precision and the ability to generalize to specific a population, it also has the

disadvantage in this study of lower reliability for the girls. However, the fact remains that when the girls scores are combined with the boys scores, the scale shows high reliability and, since significance was found, the precision should not be questioned.

Future studies in the area of self-esteem should first, concentrate on precisely defining the terms self-concept and self-esteem so that there is no confusion as to what is being measured. Second, a multidimensional instrument should be used in the measurement of self-esteem so that more than one area of the self is being measured when trying to assess self-esteem. If males and females value different areas of the self-concept, a multidimensional scale would be able to assess self-esteem in the different areas. A unidimensional context free scale of global self-esteem could be included as one dimension. In addition, other types of measurement which are observational rather than self-report, such as teacher ratings, should be used simultaneously to measure the self-esteem of subjects. Third, the target population must be randomly sampled and the age of the subjects should be extended to the fifth through the ninth grades which are the grades encompassed by the middle school. Finally, future studies should design a factorial analysis capable of assessing subjects of various races, levels of SES, different types of family structures

and adolescents with varying grade averages. This will maximize generalizability and realism without sacrificing precision.

APPENDIX A

ROSENBERG SELF-ESTEEM SCALE INDEX (RSE)

(ROSENBERG SELF-ESTEEM)

The RSE is a 10 item Guttman scale with a Coefficient of Reproducibility of 92 percent and a Coefficient of Scalability of 72 percent. Respondents are asked to strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree with the following items (asterisks represent low self-esteem responses):

1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
 Strongly___ Agree___ *Disagree___ *Strongly___
 Agree Disagree
2. At times, I think I am no good.
 *Strongly___ *Agree___ Disagree___ Strongly___
 Agree Disagree
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
 Strongly___ Agree___ *Disagree___ *Strongly___
 Agree Disagree
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
 Strongly___ Agree___ *Disagree___ *Strongly___
 Agree Disagree
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
 *Strongly___ *Agree___ Disagree___ Strongly___
 Agree Disagree
6. I certainly feel useless at times.
 *Strongly___ *Agree___ Disagree___ Strongly___
 Agree Disagree
7. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on a plane with others.
 Strongly___ Agree___ *Disagree___ *Strongly___
 Agree Disagree
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
 *Strongly___ *Agree___ Disagree___ Strongly___
 Agree Disagree

9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.

*Strongly___ *Agree___ Disagree___ Strongly___
Agree Disagree

10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

Strongly___ Agree___ *Disagree___ *Strongly___
Agree Disagree

(Rosenberg, 1979, p. 291).

APPENDIX B
COOPERSMITH SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY (SEI)

COOPERSMITH SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY (SEI)

Please mark each statement in the following way: If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check in the column, "Like Me". If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check in the column "Unlike Me". There are no right or wrong answers.

1. I spend a lot of time daydreaming.
Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____
2. I'm pretty sure of myself.
Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____
3. I often wish I were someone else.
Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____
4. I'm pretty easy to like.
Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____
5. My parents and I have a lot of fun together.
Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____
6. I never worry about anything.
Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____
7. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.
Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____
8. I wish I were younger.
Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____
9. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.
Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____
10. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.
Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

11. I'm a lot of fun to be with.
Like Me____ Unlike Me____
12. I get upset easily at home.
Like Me____ Unlike Me____
13. I always do the right thing.
Like Me____ Unlike Me____
14. I'm proud of my school work.
Like Me____ Unlike Me____
15. Someone always has to tell me what to do.
Like Me____ Unlike Me____
16. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.
Like Me____ Unlike Me____
17. I'm often sorry for the things I do.
Like Me____ Unlike Me____
18. I'm popular with kids my own age.
Like Me____ Unlike Me____
19. My parents usually consider my feelings.
Like Me____ Unlike Me____
20. I'm never unhappy.
Like Me____ Unlike Me____
21. I'm doing the best work that I can.
Like Me____ Unlike Me____
22. I give in very easily.
Like Me____ Unlike Me____

23. I can usually take care of myself.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

24. I'm pretty happy.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

25. I would rather play with children younger than me.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

26. My parents expect too much of me.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

27. I like everyone I know.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

28. I like to be called on in class.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

29. I understand myself.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

30. It's pretty tough to be me.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

31. Things are all mixed up in my life.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

32. Kids usually follow my ideas.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

33. No one pays much attention to me at home.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

34. I never get scolded.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

35. I'm not doing as well in school as I'd like to.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

36. I can make up my mind and stick to it.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

37. I really don't like being a boy-girl.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

38. I have a low opinion of myself.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

39. I don't like to be with other people.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

40. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

41. I'm never shy.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

42. I often feel upset at school.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

43. I often feel ashamed of myself.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

44. I'm not as nice looking as most people.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

45. If I have something to say, I usually say it.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

46. Kids pick on me very often.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

47. My parents understand me.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

48. I always tell the truth.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

49. My teacher makes me feel I'm not good enough.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

50. I don't care what happens to me.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

51. I'm a failure.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

52. I get upset easily when I'm scolded.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

53. Most people are better liked than I am.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

54. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

55. I always know what to say to people.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

56. I often get discouraged in school.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

57. Things usually don't bother me.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

58. I can't be depended on.

Like Me _____ Unlike Me _____

(Coopersmith, 1967, p. 265-266).

APPENDIX C**ROSENBERG SELF-ESTEEM SCALE
MODIFIED AND SHORTENED VERSION**

ROSENBERG SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

MODIFIED AND SHORTENED VERSION

1. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
Variable #83: I feel that I am a person of worth.

Almost Always Almost Never
2. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
Variable #80: I am a failure

Almost Always Almost Never
3. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
Variable #71: I am able to do things as well as most other people my age.

Almost Always Almost Never
4. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
Variable #82: I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

Almost Always Almost Never
5. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
Variable #79: I feel good about myself.

Almost Always Almost Never
6. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
Variable #69: I am satisfied with myself.

Almost Always Almost Never
7. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
Variable #81: I wish I could like myself more.

Almost Always Almost Never
8. I certainly feel useless at times.
Variable #78: I certainly feel useless at times.

Almost Always Almost Never

9. At times, I think I am no good at all.
Variable #74: I think I am no good at all.

Almost Always

Almost Never

APPENDIX D

JONES/STREITMATTER SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

Jones/Streitmatter Self-Esteem Scale

Variable #71: I am able to do things as well as most other people my age.

Almost Always Almost Never

Variable #74: I think I am no good at all.

Almost Always Almost Never

Variable #76: I am excited about the future.

Almost Always Almost Never

Variable #77: I feel that there's a lot I can do to make this a better world.

Almost Always Almost Never

Variable #78: I certainly feel useless

Almost Always Almost Never

Variable #79: I feel good about myself.

Almost Always Almost Never

Variable #80: I am a failure

Almost Always Almost Never

Variable #81: I wish I could like myself more.

Almost Always Almost Never

Variable #82: I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

Almost Always Almost Never

Variable #83: I feel that I am a person of value.

Almost Always Almost Never

REFERENCES

- Alexander, W. M. (1988). Schools in the middle: Rhetoric and reality. Social Education, 52, 107-109.
- Arth, A. A., Johnston, H., Lounsbury, J. H., & Toepfer, C. R., Jr. (1985). A consumer's guide to middle level education. NASSP, 1-8.
- Beane, J. A. (1982). Self-concept and self-esteem as curriculum issues. Educational Leadership, 3, 504-506.
- Beane, J. A., & Lipka, R. P. (1980). Self-concept and self-esteem: A construct differentiation. Child Study Journal, 10, 1-6.
- Beane, J. A., Lipka, R., & Ludewig, J. W. (1980). Synthesis of research on self-concept. Educational Leadership, 38, 84-89.
- Bledsoe, J. (1964). Self-concepts of children and their intelligence, interests, and anxiety. Journal of Individual Psychology, 20, 55-58.
- Blyth, D. A., & Traeger, C. M. (1984). The Self-concept and self-esteem of early adolescents. Theory Into Practice, 20, 91-97.
- Bohan, J. S. (1973). Age and sex differences in self-concept. Adolescence, 8, 379-384.

- Brinberg, D., & McGrath, J. E. (1985). Validity and the Research Process. Newbury Park, Ca: Sage.
- Brissett, D. (1972). Toward a clarification of self-esteem. Psychiatry, 35, 255-263.
- Brook, R. C. (1968). Self-concept changes as a function of participation in sensitivity training as measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University.
- Burns, R. B. (1979). The self concept. New York: Longman.
- Bush, D. E, Simmons, R. G., Hutchinson, B., & Blyth, D. A. (1977-78). Adolescent perception of sex-roles in 1968 and 1975. Public Opinion Quarterly, 41, 459- 474.
- Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Coopersmith, S. (1967). The antecedents of self-esteem. San Francisco: Freeman.
- Demo D. H., & Savin-Williams, R. C. (1983). Early adolescent self-esteem as a function of social class: Rosenberg and Pearlin revisited. American Journal of Sociology, 88, 763-774.
- Earle, J. (1989). Middle schools: Education's stepchild. NASBE, 9, 1 -6.
- Fein, D., O'Neill, S., Frank, C., & Velit, K. M. (1975). Sex differences in preadolescent self-esteem. The Journal of Psychology, 90, 179-183.

- Gecas, V. (1982). The self-concept. Annual Review of Sociology, 8, 1-33. (1990).
- Jaccard, J. & Becker, M. A. (1990). Statistics for the behavioral Sciences, (2nd ed.). Belmont, California: Wadsworth.
- Juhasz, A. M. (1985). Measuring self-esteem in early adolescents. Adolescence, 22, 877-887.
- Maccoby, E. E. & Jacklin, C. N. (1974). The psychology of sex differences. Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- Marsh, H. W., Parker, J. & Barnes, J. (1985). Multidimensional adolescent self-concepts: their relationship to age, sex, and academic measures. American Educational Research Journal, 22, 422-444.
- Ockerman, J. D. (1979). Self-esteem and social anchorage of adolescent White, Black and Mexican American students. Palo Alto, California: R & E. Research Associates, Inc.
- Osborne, W. L., & LeGette, H. R. (1982). Sex, race, grade level, and social class differences in self-concept. Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, 14, 195-201.
- Parish, T. S., & Dostal, J. W. (1980). Evaluations of self and parent figures by children from intact, divorced and reconstituted families. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 9, 347-351.

- Parish, T. S., & Taylor, J. C. (1979). The impact of divorce and subsequent father absence on children's self-concept. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 8, 427-432.
- Piers, E. V., & Harris, D. B. (1964). Age and other correlates of self-concept in children. Journal of Educational Psychology, 55, 91-95.
- Prescott, P. A. (1978). Sex differences on a measure of self-esteem: theoretical implications. The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 132, 67-85.
- Robison-Awana, P., Kehle, T. J., & Jensen, W. R. (1986). But what about smart girls? Adolescent self-esteem and sex role perceptions as a function of academic achievement. Journal of Educational Psychology, 28, 179-183.
- Rosenberg, F. R., & Simmons, R. G. (1975). Sex differences in the self-concept in adolescence. Sex Roles, 1, 147-159.
- Rosenberg, M. (1979). Conceiving the self. New York: Basic Books.
- Rosenberg, M. (19). Society and the adolescent self-image. (rev. ed.). Connecticut: Wesleyan University Press.
- Shavelson, R. J., Hubner, J. J., & Stanton, G. C. (1976). Self-concept: Validation of construct interpretations. Review of Educational Research, 46, 407-441.

- Skaalvik, E. M. (1986a). Sex differences in global self-esteem. A research review. Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 30, 167-179.
- Skaalvik, E. M. (1986b). Age trends in male and female self-esteem in Norwegian samples. Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 30, 107-119.
- Wylie, R. C. (1974). The self-concept. Volume One: A review of methodological considerations and measuring instruments. (rev. ed.) Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Wylie, R. C. (1979). The self-concept. Volume Two: Theory and research on selected topics. (rev. ed.). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

3 40796 MAIN: TH
30 U/A 03/12/98 5037-