THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SELF CONCEPT IN ADOLESCENTS UNDERGOING A PEER COUNSELLOR TRAINING PROGRAMME

BY

ANN DORRIAN

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DECLARATION

Unless specifically stated to the contrary in the text,
this thesis is the original work of the undersigned.

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ANN DORRIAN

ABSTRACT

The main focus of this research study was to assess changes that occurred in the self concept of female adolescents undergoing an interpersonal skills training course that was incorporated into a peer counselling pre-selection training programme. Secondary aims were formulated, on the basis that the course would form an integral part of the existing peer counselling programme, to increase the effectiveness of the existing programme and improve perceptions of counselling and guidance in the school environment.

A careful investigation was made of various measures of the self concept, and their usage within the South African context. It was decided to use the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS). Use was also made of a questionnaire, consisting of both closed-ended and open-ended questions to substantiate and augment findings established by the TSCS.

The actual programme, which formed the basis of this research, took place during the second school term, after school hours. The setting of the research in the school environment, as part of an existing school programme was seen as being advantageous. Problems attached to sustaining such a programme in a natural setting were carefully assessed and considered. A comparison group was established at a similar school in a neighbouring city, to try to establish levels of validity.

Because an important aspect of this programme was the active involvement of learners in the school environment, learners who were already peer counsellors were involved in the running of the course. The actual programme was based on the concepts established by Rogers and developed by researchers such as Purkey and Novak. Consideration was given to theoretical aspects applicable to adolescents in the study of the self concept.

The results of the TSCS and the questionnaire were analysed and changes to the self concept of the experimental and comparison groups were considered. Positive gains in the self concept of the experimental group were noted. However, caution was expressed in the interpretation of this information due to the difficulties inherent in defining the self concept and in controlling other variables which may have be influential.

An important aspect of this study is the democratic nature inherent to the peer counselling model. This aspect resulted in specific consideration being given to the role of the educator in organising a peer counselling programme. The researcher

considered this of significance in the light of education in an emergent democracy, such as that of South Africa.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1   MOTIVATION FOR THIS STUDY

The researcher developed an interest in this field while running a peer counselling programme with Grade 12 learners in a local Kwazulu Natal high school. The learners participating in the programme run in previous years, seemed to undergo a change in attitude, and they expressed greater satisfaction in both themselves and their school life. Therefore, while the concept of peer counselling could be seen in the long term as one that could play a significant role in the lives of learners and supply a service within the school community, its immediate effect on those learners who became peer counsellors was noticeable.

A further motivating factor was the belief, expressed by Purkey & Novak (1996), and many other researchers, that a poor self concept may be the source of many student problems (Bowman & Myrick, 1980; Lawrence, 1996; Rockwell & Dustin,1979). Researchers reported that by treating this underlying problem many student problems could be actively combatted. This has led to a large body of research over a lengthy period of time which has investigated the effects of changes in the self concept of students. Indeed as far back as 1945, Lecky (in Hamachek, 1989) expressed the belief, based on his own research, that the self perceptions held by students may influence their levels of achievement.

1.2   COUNSELLING AND GUIDANCE IN SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS

In South African schools, counselling and guidance programmes have been of a varied nature, differing from province to province and from school to school. The history of counselling and guidance during the apartheid era, in both black and white schools, was often one of using the programmes to serve the aims of the government of the time (Dovey, 1980, Dovey & Mason, 1984). The suspicion that apartheid policies generated, financial cutbacks and criticism of the general effectiveness of the counselling and guidance programmes, has led to the marginalisation of these programmes in some schools. In other schools, counselling and guidance was merely accorded lip service,

or not provided at all (Dovey, 1980).

1.3   PEER COUNSELLING PROGRAMMES

Peer counselling programmes have grown in number in the United States of America (USA) and Canada. Cowie & Sharp (1996a) also mention that practitioners and researchers in this movement are to be found as far a field as the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, Portugal, Spain and Hungary. For the purposes of this study the researcher has focused on research in the USA and Canada, where the concept originated.

1.3.1   A Brief Overview

The development of peer counselling programmes may be located in the trend which supports participatory problem solving through seeking help from others of a similar age. In 1980 Kiesler (in de Rosenroll & Dey, 1990, p.304) described the self-help movement as "perhaps our most potent source...... and our most untapped resource". Research findings, both internationally and locally, have shown that when experiencing difficulties, adolescents turn firstly to informal support networks of friends. School counsellors are seldom the first source of help sought. The only aspect of counselling where this is not true, is in the area of career choice, where parents and teachers, including counsellors, play a significant role (de Haas, 1991; Haffajee, 1991; Murgatroyd, 1997; Ntshangase, 1995).

The constraints of budgetary restraints, staff cutbacks and the international trend towards self-help programmes which have attempted to meet the growing need for counselling services in many aspects of life, form an important backdrop to this study (de Rosenroll & Dey, 1990). While some tertiary institutions in South Africa have developed peer counselling and youth counselling programmes, few South African schools have looked towards this model as a means of offering a more effective and efficient counselling service (Janks, 1993).

1.3.2   Definitions

The following terms are used in this study. It is necessary to distinguish peer counselling from youth counselling, and to specify the title of the teacher responsible for counselling.

The terms student and learner have very specific meanings. Also the terms counselling and guidance need to be clarified.

1.3.2.1   Peer Counselling

This process uses carefully chosen and interested members of the peer group who are trained to assist other learners in the problems and stressors encountered in the school and home environment. Downe, Altman and Nysetvold (1986) supply a concise definition. They describe peer counselling as "a process in which trained, supervised students are selected to help in the systematic facilitation of affective growth and the development of effective coping skills among other students" (p.355).

1.3.2.2   Youth Counselling

This is the process of helping younger learners with school and home based problems and concerns, by utilising slightly older helpers, who do not have specific qualifications in psychology.

1.3.2.3   School Guidance Counsellor

This is a member of staff who is a qualified teacher and who has training in psychology and school guidance, and takes responsibility for pastoral care within the school environment. These staff members are sometimes called by other titles, for example, guidance teacher, teacher counsellor, guidance counsellor or school counsellor.

1.3.2.4   Learner

This term is used to refer to school goers in the South African educational context, and differentiates them from students attending tertiary education. Where school goers in other countries, primarily the USA, are referred to, the term student is used.

1.3.2.5   Guidance and Counselling

Guidance and counselling are both classified as helping activities. However there are certain important differences between the two. Guidance involves giving direction or advice in such a manner as to encourage the receiver to take responsibility for life

decisions and developing personal potential. Counselling involves open-ended discussion, using non-directive techniques, incorporating special responding and listening skills. The aim of counselling is to encourage the learner/client/helpee to explore possible solutions to problems by gaining greater insight into the self.

1.4   THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SCHOOL-BASED PROGRAMME

The peer counselling programme, which forms the basis of this research study began in 1996 in an attempt to offer a more viable counselling and guidance service to the school population. The school, a large, urban, single-sex secondary school, consists of a female school-going population that come from diverse socio-economic backgrounds, with a wide range of needs. It was evident that changes in the broader society were impacting on the school population, and there was a need for a more comprehensive programme than the school counsellor was able to provide.

Initially the peer counsellors only carried out administrative duties, running the careers information section of the counselling classroom during tea breaks and lunch times. They were trained to source information on specific careers for learners and were selected from Grade 12 learners. Certain rules were established for their selection, prohibiting them from holding any position of authority at the school, for example, they could not be a prefect, nor could they be heavily involved in sport or other extramural activities. It was felt that this added load might become burdensome. The past school history of the individual was not considered in the selection procedure. However, it was emphasised that they would have to be role models for other learners and were therefore expected to be approachable and responsible. No emphasis was placed on academic prowess, but it was suggested that learners who were considering careers in which they would work with people, especially the helping professions, for example nursing, social work or teaching, would enjoy the tasks envisaged. They would also have to be willing to give up free time after school hours.

The process of selection has been identified as a critical issue in peer counselling programmes by a number of researchers (Bowman & Myrick, 1980; Robinson, Morrow, Kigin & Lindeman, 1991; Rockwell & Dustin, 1979). During 1996 the learners were interviewed and consideration was given to their ability to communicate and their natural warmth and sense of responsibility. The staff involved with these learners were asked for their opinions. A cross-section of learners was chosen, some for their ability to

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communicate and some for their ability to work hard, although they were not necessarily gaining high marks. This initial group did not go through any complex screening process and underwent an evolutionary training programme based on the needs they communicated. The counselling classroom was used as a 'drop in centre' where learners could come to discuss problems as well as look up career information. The peer counsellors became useful sources of reference on a variety of school matters. They informed the school counsellor of problems in or concerns of the student body.

Furthermore, peer counsellors were attached to Grade 8 classes to assist learners with the transition to high school. Their portfolio was to be a 'big sister' to new girls who were struggling with their adjustment to the school system. They visited classrooms regularly and assisted in settling disagreements between learners, and helped also with homework or studying.

The role of the peer counsellors was envisaged as that of a bridge between learners and school counsellor. Peer counsellors were carefully briefed as to the limits of their role, and many discussions centred around the process of further referral either to the school counsellor or to outside agencies.

It became obvious that where a peer counsellor was naturally a good communicator and sensitive to the needs of others, she was very successful. Unfortunately others who were very keen and committed to their work as peer counsellors, but had not developed good interpersonal skills, had only limited success. An interesting point was that some peer counsellors who had been criticised by staff and identified as not suitable, were very successful! A need was identified to establish better selection criteria.

Learners' commitment to the programme and enthusiasm had to be assessed. A programme had to be established to develop their helping and communication skills, and a process of selection established, by which the opinions of both staff and learners could be considered. In 1997, peer counsellors were selected after discussions with the outgoing peer counsellors, who also encouraged certain learners to volunteer their services and to put forward their names for selection. These peer counsellors underwent a more formal training programme, which consisted of an initial orientation programme and assistance from the South African National Council for Alcohol and Drug Dependence's local education officer on counselling individuals with drug and alcohol-

related problems. Besides interpersonal helping skills, the programme involved training in sourcing career information, teaching basic study skills and setting up study groups. Discussions were also held on handling classroom conflict as well as on matters of ethics. Short weekly training sessions were held and these continued throughout the first half of the school year.

In 1997, peer counsellors were also given more status within the school community. In this school, learners are recognised for their contribution by various badges and other symbols. Therefore the peer counsellors were issued with badges and girdles and two peer counsellors were selected as senior peer counsellors to liaise with the school counsellor on a more formal basis and to manage and organise the administrative tasks. These included organising daily duty schedules and assisting with the preparation for certain school events. Teachers reported an increase in the self confidence of the learners involved in the programme, and in some cases, appeared to view the learners in a more favourable light.

1.5   THE PRE-SELECTION PROGRAMME
1.5.1   Background

In 1998 a programme was launched primarily to give Grade 11 learners who wished to become peer counsellors exposure to basic counselling skills. It was hoped that future peer counsellors could be selected from this group. The course was advertised at a general meeting of the whole grade, consisting of 203 learners in seven classes. Arrangements were made to meet interested learners separately. At this followup meeting learners were given details of the course. Meetings were to take place on Monday afternoon for one hour over a period of eight weeks. The course was limited to 25 learners. They were accepted on a first-come first-served basis. Those who were not accommodated were assured that other courses would be run during the course of the year. The first and last session had to be extended by half an hour, this was to accommodate the administration of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (referred to as the TSCS in this study) and the questionnaires. These formed the qualitative and quantitive evaluation of the programme.

1.5.2   The Actual Course

Although the course was aimed at prospective peer counsellors, the enthusiastic

response from many of the learners meant that the project had to be seen in the wider context of school life. The aims of the course were to develop the inter-personal skills of the participants by increasing their self awareness and their sensitivity to others, as well as introducing them to basic counselling microskills. An outline of the programme is supplied below. Greater detail of the various exercises are supplied in Appendix A.

Eight sessions occurred over the course of the second school term. For learners to qualify for admission as peer counsellors in 1999, they had to attend 90% of the course.

1.5.2.1 First Session: Introduction

a)   Participants were invited to enjoy cooldrink and cake together and to introduce themselves to those learners they did not know.

b)   Ice-breaker Exercise. " Pass the Pig".

c)   The 1998 peer counsellors told the group about the activities of the peer counselling programme. They stressed that besides helping others, they had made many new friends and had fun. Participants were then invited to ask questions about the work done by the peer counsellors.

d)   Learners then completed the biographical questionnaire and the TSCS.

1.5.2.2 Second Session: Sensitivity

a)   Recap on the first session.

b)   Ice-breaker Exercise. The Feelings Game.

c)   Group exercise. Learners divided themselves into five groups of five. They each had to describe a significant incident that had occurred to them during the last two weeks at school. Each group was given a piece of paper . Once the whole group had spoken they were asked to go back over each incident and try to identify how the person felt and write down the feelings identified. At the end of the group session the facilitator asked for feedback from the groups and these feelings were listed on the whiteboard.

d)   A brainstorming session followed during which learners tried to think of every way learners may show their feelings and appropriate, sensitive responses to

those feelings.

1.5.2.3   Third Session: Listening Skills

a)   Recap on previous session.

b)   Ice-breaker Exercise. The Blind Game.

c)   Discussion of the importance of listening. Learners were asked to list all the nonverbal listening cues they could think of. These were written on the whiteboard and augmented by suggestions from the group facilitator.

d)   Learners were invited to find new partners. They had to tell each other about their weekend. Each person was to have a chance to speak and to listen, but not say anything. They then had to jointly decide what they appreciated most in their listening partner. This was fed back to the group.

e)   Exercise (d) was repeated with new partners. This time they had to talk about a problem they were experiencing.

1.5.2.4   Fourth Session: Responding

a)   Recap on previous session.

b)   Ice-breaker Exercise. Trust games.

c)   Group discussion. Can we respond to someone without using actual words? After a brief discussion, participants were invited to try this out with a partner. They had to tell each other about an embarrassing moment.

d)   Report back on (c) to the whole group.

e)   Short talk on verbal responses. Open ended questions, summarising and reflection of feelings.

f)   Work in pairs. Incident. Imagine you desperately want to go to the Food Fair, a highlight on the school's social calendar, explain why you cannot go and how you feel about it. Partner to respond using verbal responses.

1.5.2.5   Fifth Session: Problem Solving

a)   Recap on previous session.

b)   Ice-breaker Exercise. Broken Telephone.

c)   Brain storming. What problems do teenagers face? Can we group these problems?

       e.g. Social ,Emotional, Physical, Academic and Moral/Religious.

d)   Five groups of five. Each to take a heading or group of problems and list problems which they think may occur in the school. Take one specific problem and write down all the ways you could solve or improve the situation. Try to write down all the steps you took.

e)   Class Discussion. All groups to feed back their problem and their solutions. Can all problems be solved? Develop a blue print for thinking through problems.

1.5.2.6   Sixth Session: The Counselling Process, Practical Issues

a)   Recap on previous session.

b)   Ice-breaker Exercise . The Garden Party.

c)   Short talk on empathy, by a present peer counsellor.

d)   Pairs Session. Try to show empathy.

e)   Take one issue. Respond with some open-ended questions and reflection of feeling. Using the problem solving method, try to reach some conclusions.

f)   Group Assessment. Did you manage to use all the different methods?

1.5.2.7   Seventh Session: Ethical Issues

a)   Recap on previous session.

b)   Ice-Breaker Exercise. The Clock Face Appointment Exercise.

c)   Group discussion. Making rules for peer counsellors. Each group to establish five rules for peer counsellors. Feedback to class. Written on whiteboard.

d)   Interviews for life histories.

1.5.2.8   Eight Session: Conclusion

a)   Recap on previous session.

b)   Ice-Breaker Exercise. The Tea Party.

c)   Completion of TSCS and questionnaire.

d)   Explanation of how peer counsellors will be chosen. Handing out of certificates.

1.6   AIMS OF THE STUDY

1.6.1   Primary Aim

The primary aim of this study is to assess the changes that occur in the self concept of female adolescents (in the 16 to 18 year age group), in a secondary school environment, over the course of the programme described briefly above. The intention is to conduct a relevant and structured eight week course to train a representative group in interpersonal helping skills as a constituent part of a peer counselling pre-selection programme; and to evaluate whether the course has any measurable impact.

1.6.2   Secondary Aims

The secondary aims are as follows:

•   To increase the effectiveness of the counselling programme in the school by improving learners' perceptions and knowledge of the counselling process.

•   To increase the self knowledge of the participants and to increase their effectiveness in the school environment.

•   To supply learners with skills to help their peers.

•   To create a preliminary training document for the peer counselling programme.

1.7   THE STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The first chapter has attempted to define the context and the aims of the study. The following chapters will be structured in the following manner. Chapter Two will investigate the theoretical background to the study and review the literature. Emphasis

will be placed on the development of the adolescent and aspects of self theories relevant to adolescent development. The literature review will attempt to assess the development of school-based peer counselling programmes. Chapter Three will establish the research design used, while Chapter Four will supply a detailed analysis of the research findings. The focus of Chapter Five will be a discussion of the results. This will include an analysis of the limitations of the study and some suggestions for further research. The final chapter will attempt to draw some conclusions from the study.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND
AND
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the researcher tries to establish a definition of the self concept and to explore some of the complexity of this concept. Age specific issues are considered in the development of the self concept, as well as some of the issues which have preoccupied researchers in the investigation of the influence of the self concept on educational achievement. Some self theories are considered and special consideration is given to those of Rogers and their influence on education. Finally an assessment is made of peer counselling programmes and their influence within the school environment.

2.2   JUSTIFICATION FOR THE INVESTIGATION

Adolescence is recognised as a time of significant change.   Rosenberg (in Witteland,1970) describes this period as the time when important life decisions are made and the adolescent needs to be orientated to the future.   Furthermore, he describes it as a time of greater awareness of the self image, which in turn influences life decisions. Roid & Fitts (1991), in the introduction to the TSCS manual, comment that, "the individual's self-concept has been demonstrated to be highly influential in much of his or her behaviour and also to be directly related to general personality and mental health"(p1).

Much research has centred around the relationship between the self concept and achievement, especially academic success, and researchers agree that levels of persistence and academic achievement are closely related to students' positive perceptions of the self-as-learner (Lawrence,1996; Purkey & Novak,1996). Lawrence (1996) notes as an " exciting discovery", the link between academic success and the self concept. These factors combine to make research into the self concept of special interest to all those who work with adolescents. Hamachek (1989) cites examples where

higher levels of achievement go hand in hand with improved self concept . He points out that it is difficult to identify whether improvements in the self concept lead to greater achievement or vice versa, and that much contradictory research evidence is available. However, no study has shown that improved self perceptions lead to a drop in achievement. Also the development of the self concept in adolescence is greatly influenced by the adolescent's cognitive ability to reflect on the self and to become increasingly self aware. Therefore any programme which has as its aim to encourage self awareness, may have an impact on the self concept.

2.3   TERMINOLOGY

The term self concept is a complex topic which has generated much research. A problem identified by many researchers is the differing and often contradictory terminology in use. Burns (1979) conducted an extensive survey of research on the self concept. He describes the self concept as a dynamic grouping of attitudes that the individual holds about him/herself. This grouping of attitudes forms a cohesive whole that is a useful predictor of human behaviour.

Central to an understanding of the self concept is the need to clarify the terminologies in use. Research has been directed at establishing a definition of the self concept, and defining the many terms used to describe various aspects of the self concept (Burns,1979; Coopersmith 1967; Lawrence, 1996). Burns (1979) points out that often terms like self image and self picture are used to refer to the same abstract construct. Damon and Hart (1988), in their study into self understanding, comment that, "self-understanding has been studied many times in developmental psychology, under titles like 'self-awareness', 'self-knowledge,' 'self-recognition,' ' self-concept,' or 'self' " (p.18).

Within the confines of this study, the term self concept is seen as an 'umbrella term' encompassing three other terms which have in the past been used interchangeably, leading to much confusion (Lawrence,1996, p.2). Figure 2.1 overleaf shows Lawrence's diagrammatic representation of the self concept as an umbrella term.

Figure 2.1   Lawrence's Representation of the Self Concept (Lawrence, 1996, p2)

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│ │                      Self - Concept                     │ │
│ │                            │                            │ │
│ │         ┌──────────────────┴──────────────────┐         │ │
│ │     self-image                           Ideal self     │ │
│ │         └──────────────────┬──────────────────┘         │ │
│ │                            │                            │ │
│ │                       Self-Esteem                       │ │
│ │                                                         │ │
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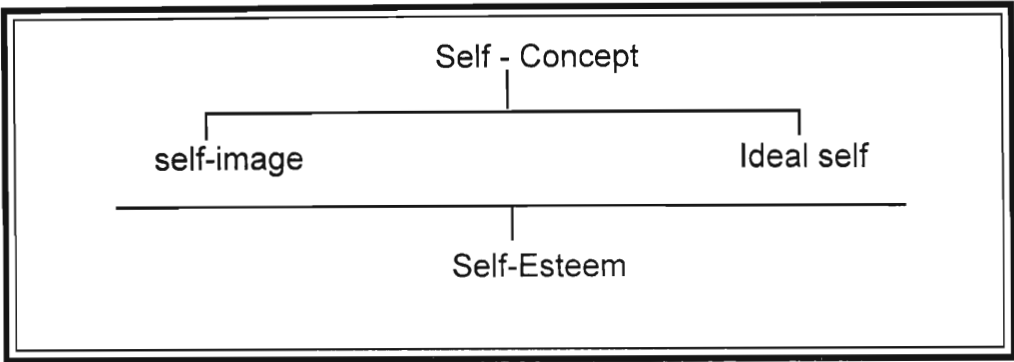
It is necessary to define the terms in Figure 2.1 for greater clarification and also to establish their relationships to each other. The self concept represents "the evaluated beliefs a person holds about himself and consists of the individual's view of self, namely both physically and mentally" (Burns, 1979, p.3). The self concept therefore has cognitive and emotional elements and combined with these is the behavioural aspect. As noted above, the term self concept can be broken down into the self image and the ideal self. The self image represents how the individual perceives him/herself. The ideal self reflects the way the individual would like to be. Self esteem or self worth involves a degree of evaluation and represents the discrepancy between the individual's self image and the ideal self (Lawrence, 1996). Dewhurst (1991) stresses that self esteem involves an important comparative element, whereby the individual is always comparing him/herself not only to an ideal self but to significant others. Coopersmith (1967) sees this evaluative function of the self concept, represented in the term self esteem, as being the most important aspect of the self concept.

In terms of this study, self esteem is considered as representing an integral, quantifiable change in the self concept. These measurable changes between self image and ideal self are important and influence how the individual feels about him/herself. Damon & Hart (1988) suggest that developmental psychologists' preoccupation with self esteem, when studying the self concept, is merely because it can be more easily measured. They thus focus on the cognitive element of the self concept. This involves looking at how the self is understood. While this is an important part of the self, it does not form the focus of this study.

Seen as a group of attitudes, the self concept presumes the existence of certain components, namely cognitive, affective, evaluative as well as behaviour. It also

assumes a degree of motivation, described by Purkey and Novak (1996) as, each individual's "basic need to maintain, protect and enhance the self-concept" (p.33). The self concept is also said to be resistant to change and becomes relatively stable in late adolescence and into adulthood. However, since the self concept is conceived to be learned, change is possible and this aspect has been of great interest to theorists and researchers. Brownfain's (1962) research established that individuals with a stable self concept appeared to be better adjusted than those with a less stable self concept.

Oxley (1996), in a study of Afrikaans speaking adolescent girls, found that either positive or negative self appraisal influenced coping behaviour and that the adolescent females in question employed a broad range of coping behaviours in keeping with traditional female roles.

Researchers differ in opinion as to the significance of sex differences in self concept measures. Roid & Fitts (1991) do not see sex differences as significant, and the TSCS does not have different norms for males and females. This could be a cultural issue and in a more male-dominated society, such as South Africa, significant differences in self concept may occur. Erdwins, Small and Gross (1980) found that, contrary to the findings of Fitts and Roid, males did appear to have more positive self concepts. Washburn (in Witteland,1970) also found differences in the self concept scores between male and female adolescents.

Central to the self concept is its multi-faceted nature. This is a complicating factor in understanding the self concept, because individuals may differ widely in different components of their self concept. Marsh and Shavelson (in Hamachek, 1989) carried out research that showed that in assessing school behaviour the self concept can be divided into at least three components. These are general self concept, academic self concept and nonacademic self concept. The academic self concept is self explanatory while the non academic self concept is broken down into social, emotional and physical self concept. The general self concept represents the integration of all aspects which contribute to the self concept and in the TSCS this is seen as the most important score. Some researchers refer to this aspect as the global self concept (West,C.R, Fish,J.A and Stevens,J.A., 1980). Roid & Fitts (1991) further divided the self concept to cover a larger number of specific areas, which will be discussed in Chapter 3.

2.4 MEASURES OF SELF CONCEPT

Wylie (1989), in her classic critique of the measurement of the self concept, points out that many of the measures available are of limited use, lacking validity and reliability and having been used on a limited number of occasions. Certain problems face researchers trying to measure the self concept. However, defining the self concept as a group of attitudes makes certain types of measurement possible. Research into the self concept is chiefly dependant on self report by the subjects. Where research is based on observation, problems may arise in the interpretation of that behaviour, as the self concept is an abstract concept which defies direct observation. Only behaviours thought to be resulting from the self concept may be observed.

Robson (1993) describes the self report as a situation where the subject acts as the observer of his/her own behaviour. This means that research is based on what the subject is willing or able to divulge about him/herself (Burns, 1979). This may create various problems as the research is thus dependant on the subjects' insight and level of self-awareness, which may, on occasions, be limited. These limitations may vary from the subjects' unwillingness to divulge information to a lack of interest in supplying the relevant information, or even an inability to be able to supply the information. Further problems applicable to self reports are cited by Burns (1979), including lack of linguistic ability, social expectations which may effect what subjects are willing to admit to, as well as limited levels of cooperation and motivation. In this study the researcher was very aware of these problems and every effort was made to control for these issues.

A survey of the literature reveals that a number of techniques are used in the measurement of the self concept. These include rating scales, Q sorts, projective techniques, questionnaires, sentence completion exercises and essays (Burns, 1979; Coopersmith, 1967; Lawrence, 1996; Robson, 1993; Wylie,1989). Commercially available scales have been widely used to measure the self concept. Certain of these were assessed in connection with this research. These were the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (1981), the Piers-Harris Children's Inventory (1969) and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (1990). In Chapter Three a brief explanation is given for the selection of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS).

2.5 THEORIES OF THE SELF CONCEPT

In this section, an overview is given of some of the trends in theories into the self concept. A full review of the available literature falls outside the range of this study. Instead, some of the main trends are identified. Prior to the twentieth century the self was seen mostly in religious or philosophical terms. In this review, a comprehensive historical sequence is not followed, but Self Theorists are identified who have been influential in clarifying this complex construct. These include William James, George Mead, Eric Erikson and the phenomenological school, especially Carl Rogers.

2.5.1 William James

James attempted to divide the self into the subject (I) and object (me) and to further categorise the self into four sections, namely the material self, social self, the spiritual self and the pure ego (Witteland, 1970). He thus established himself as the first advocate of the multiple factor approach in self theory. It is notable that the multiple factor approach is an important aspect of the TSCS. James saw the material self as the result of self worth, established through the individual's possessions. The social self reflects the influence of society on the individual's self concept. Again this concept forms an essential aspect of modern theories of the self concept. The spiritual self is seen as the highest form of self, with the pure ego representing the individual's true identity (Witteland, 1970). Coopersmith (1967) points out that James described an evaluative aspect in the self concept, namely self esteem. This enables individuals to measure their achievements against their own aspirations. These aspirations are a product of their values and attitudes (Coopersmith, 1967). The other aspect of the self concept mentioned in James's theory is the self image which supplies the individual with self knowledge.

2.5.2 George Mead

Mead also tried to investigate the relationship of self as object and as subject. He saw self awareness as growing out of social interaction. The individual can see himself reflected in the attitudes of others and can therefore objectify the self. It is proposed that the baby has no self awareness, development occurs when the individual starts to absorb the attitudes of the whole community within which he/she lives, through significant others and their attitudes to him/her and to other objects. Mead defines the

self as consisting of two distinguishable parts, 'me', self-as-object and the 'I' is the self-as-process. These two aspects of the self combine in a process producing the unique personality. Therefore Mead defines the development of the self as a social process. In terms of this research, Mead 's theory is significant as it emphasises the learned influences on the self concept (Burns, 1979). Any intervention such as the one described in this study, which had as its aim to measure changes in the self concept, assumes that change to the self concept is possible.

2.5.3 Erik Erikson

Erikson's theory of personality has as its main focus that of identity development from birth to death (Erikson,1980). His theory is not purely a self theory. Its importance, in this study, lies in its focus on the developmental processes leading to the establishment of the identity within the existing social structure. Erikson sees the individual as having to resolve certain developmental crises to move successfully through the stages he proposed. He saw each stage as a 'psychological crisis' which had to be successfully negotiated before the individual could proceed to the next one (Erikson,1980). He established eight stages to accommodate the whole life span (Gerdes, Ochse, Stander & Van Ede,1981). In terms of this study, only the stages up to the completion of adolescence will be considered.

Erikson divides the period between birth and the end of adolescence into five psycho-social stages of development (Gerdes, Oche, Sander & Van Ed). These five stages are:

- Basic Trust versus Mistrust (0 - 1 year)

- Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt(1 - 3 years)

- Initiative versus Guilt (3 - 6 years)

- Industry versus Inferiority (6 - 11 years)

- Identity versus Isolation (12 - 20 years)

During the first stage, the infant's basic trust must be established through the mother's care and love. Erikson saw the child's ability to trust as essential to the successful completion of future stages. During the second stage the child needs to be helped to

develop self confidence and independence and explore individual powers. The third stage usually occurs at the beginning of the child's school career. The child learns personal control over his\her own personality with the emotional support of his parents. In the fourth stage the child learns social skills and the value of culture. The fifth stage characterises adolescence, with the individual starting to question the feelings and beliefs of society, which have been taken for granted up to this stage. This is important in attempting to establish inner continuity and personal identity (Erikson,1980). Erikson stressed that a balanced ratio of negative and positive qualities have to occur at each stage for the individual to successfully complete the stage (Hamachek, 1989). Erikson considered adolescence (Identity versus Identity Confusion) a period when the major task is to establish an identity and avoiding identity confusion. He sees disturbance as normal. This is a period of evaluating the self concept and establishing the adolescent's individuality. The adolescent questions who he or she is, what he or she can do and finds it hard to trust. Hamachek (1989) points out that identity confusion may express itself in doubts about sex-role, a lack of self confidence and hostility to authority.

While useful as a guideline, Erikson's developmental stages place a heavy emphasis on the developmental crises and may imply that all adolescents experience equal stress. Most theorists and researchers would agree that adolescence is a period of change, although it may vary greatly among individual adolescents. In terms of this study the adolescent's search for self understanding and identity is important as it implies that the establishment of the self concept is central to the adolescent's personality.

2.5.4   The Phenomenologists and Carl Rogers

Rogers describes the self concept "as an organised configuration of perceptions of the self" (Burns,1979, p.36). In this he emphasises the unique interlocking nature of various aspects of the self concept and the importance of the individual's perceptions. Generally phenomenological self theorists believe that "the inner world of the individual" is extremely important (Phares,1979, p.130). Burns (1979), in his review of self theories, summarises this by stating that "phenomenology is concerned with a person's perception of reality not reality itself"(p.30). The self concept develops from perceptions which are screened or filtered by the self concept. Modern self theory, as expressed in Rogers' theory is based on the theories of Lewin, Raimy and Snygg and Combs. The contribution of each theory to this aspect will be referred to briefly.

Lewin's Field Theory formed the foundation of the phenomological approach (Burns, 1979). Lewin sees behaviour as arising from a "total field", which is not the "real field", but a field based on the individual's perceptions. The individual is always influenced by

field forces. Each individual is seen as having a life space which is central to the individual's aspirations, ideas etc. The life space also houses the self concept and the self is therefore an active process.

Raimy's self concept theory builds on that of Lewin and stresses the role of the individual in understanding his own behaviour (Burns, 1979). Raimy saw the individual as an important factor in his own behaviour and in the individual's relations and understanding of others. The self concept results from perceptual impressions created by the individual.

Combs and Snygg (in Burns, 1979, p.34) describe the perceptual view as that of "man as a growing, dynamic, creative being continuously in search of adequacy". This view seems to foreshadow Rogers' theory of self actualization and places the self concept at the centre of the individual's experiential world. This affects the individual's behaviour. The self concept is seen as developing from the individual's striving for stability and consistency, which means that the individual's behaviour becomes consistent.

These key ideas formed the foundation of Rogers' theory and became part of his therapeutic approach. Burns (1979) points out that Rogers uses the self rather ambiguously to refer to both the individual and the self concept, ideal self and the awareness of self. His theory is dynamic, as it envisages the 'self' as constantly changing through a process of maturation and learning. Rogers sees as the ideal, man's striving toward achieving his/her inherent potential (Gerdes, Ochse, Stander & Van Ede, 1981). Rogers' theory was established over a prolonged period of time, but at the very foundation of his theory is the self which is seen as essential to the establishment of the personality and helping to determine behaviour. His theory was expressed in a series of 19 propositions. Some of these were amended over the lengthy time he theorised. Rogers describes the self concept as a grouping of perceptions that are not the 'real' world, but represent the individual's perception of the world. It acts as a screen to filter the individual's responses to the environment. Rogers sees only a small portion of this occurring at a conscious level (Phares, 1979). He sees the self concept as a configuration, whereby if you alter one aspect, other aspects may be affected. Rogers is influenced by Gestalt psychology or organismic theory and insists that an important aspect of organic life, " is its tendency toward total, organised, goal-directed responses" (Rogers, 1951. p.486/7). The self concept becomes a process which oversees and blends together behaviour, fusing together the self-as-subject and self-as-doer.

Rogers saw the drive to self actualization as the chief function of the self concept, which he described as the "the basic tendency and striving - to actualize, maintain, and

enhance the experiencing organism" (Rogers, 1951, p.487). He also sees behaviour as the process by which the organism satisfies its needs, this behaviour is accompanied by emotion. He describes the self as being "an organised, fluid, but consistent conceptual pattern of perceptions of characteristics and relationships of the 'I' or the 'me', together with values attached to these concepts" (Rogers, 1951, p. 498). He sees the individual as behaving in such a way as is consistent with the concept of the self.

The person also has a need for positive self regard which is a need resulting from the combined processes of internalisation and the need for positive regard from others. Rogers' positive self regard equates with the self esteem of other self theorists. His concept of the ideal self results from the process of self actualization, which is what we know as motivation (Phares, 1979). He sees incongruence resulting in maladjustment for the person. Incongruence or conflict develops when there is a difference between the individual's perception of the self and the individual's experiences. Rogers saw incongruence expressed in two defensive processes namely distortion, which involves altering the meaning of experiences, and denial whereby the experience is said to not have happened. Distortion is the most significant and it makes the perception incongruent with the self. He saw the self concept as resisting change (Phares, 1971).

Rogers saw the individual as attempting to establish congruence between his/her actual perceptions of experiences and the self concept. Congruence leads to a reduction of internal stresses and tensions and a move to a 'fully functioning' person in complete harmony with the environment. Although a discussion of Rogers' therapeutic theories falls outside the field of this study, the three essential elements in the counsellor's or therapist's behaviour are central to the training programme that prospective peer counsellors underwent; and were important principles in Rogers's view of education (Rogers and Freiberg, 1994). These three elements are empathy, genuineness and unconditional positive regard. A brief explanation of these terms is necessary. Empathy refers to be ability to understand what is happening to the client in the counselling situation, or in terms of the classroom, to the student. The client's feelings must be clearly understood and this must be conveyed to the client. Genuineness means that the counsellor must show that he/she is a real person not hiding behind a facade. The third element is that of unconditional positive regard; this means that the client is accepted for who he or she is, without showing approval or disapproval (Gillis, 1994). Combined with these, Rogers saw the need for trust in any learning relationship (Rogers & Freiberg,1994).

Rogers' theory of self is optimistic and believes that the individual can exercise control over his environment. Translated into the sphere of education it places emphasis on

the role of the teacher as an agent for change.

2.6   THE SELF CONCEPT AND ADOLESCENCE

While the focus of this study is on the adolescent, a brief overview of the development of the self concept during childhood will be considered. The infant is not born with a developed self concept. The self concept is cultivated through years of experiences in the environment, through contact with significant others and the society within which the child lives. Furthermore the self concept, though tending towards consistency from mid to late adolescence, develops throughout life. During childhood and adolescence, the self concept develops through the influence of a number of important physical and social sources. These include the family situation and specific child rearing practises, sex role modelling and stereotyping, feedback from significant others, both family and peers, and the environment and society, as well as language and body image. These influences affect the social, cognitive and moral development of the adolescent. A brief summary of these influences will be considered.

For young children the self concept is represented by the physical image. The child's self concept develops through societal feedback on his or her appearance from adults and peers, combined with body image are certain sex role stereotypes. From an early age, language becomes an important influence on the self concept, the child interprets messages from significant others. By using pronouns with increasing accuracy the child can identify himself as an individual with feelings and needs. Also the realisation that the child has a name assists in enabling the child to objectify him or herself (Burns, 1979). Feedback from significant others, such as parents, in the child's world assist in establishing the child's self concept. For the infant this firstly means having physiological needs met. Burns (1979) points out that the traditional view that parents are the major source of self esteem has been queried by the phenomonologists and he quotes results from a number of studies, namely Kirchner & Vondreack (1975), Bronfenbrenner (1971), Borke (1971), which show that siblings and peers have immense influence on young children as well. Peer interaction is therefore seen as highly significant in the development of the self concept, even with young children.

The development of the self concept during adolescence is affected by a number of influences. These include the stability of the adolescent's self concept, physical development, parental behaviour and child rearing techniques, as well as peer group influence.

A wealth of research has investigated the stability of the self concept during

adolescence. Witteland (1970), commenting on research as far back as 1959, points out that Engel established that there was a degree of stability even in adolescence. Engel found that stability over a two year period was prevalent. Similar research is cited by Burns (1979) who mentions work done by Piers and Harris (1964), Carlson (1965) and Coopersmith (1967) showing that the self concept as measured in subjects remained relatively stable during adolescence. However Katz and Zigler show "self-image disparity" increased with age in students between 10 and 16 years of age, possibly due to the onset of adolescence (in Burns, 1976, p. 177). Simmons, Rosenberg and Rosenberg (in Burns, 1979) showed less stability of self concept in early adolescence. However, they felt that the environment may be of greater importance. Research by Street (1981) seems to suggest that high school students undergo significant changes in the development of their self concept, between grades 10 and 12. She tested some 493 students between grades 9 and 12 at a Florida high school. The findings show that adolescents at the grade 10 level scored highly on the self complexity and self centrality subtests of the adolescent form of the Self Symbols Social Task. This test is purported to measure the unconscious self concept. By grade 12 these scores had dropped. Street interprets this in terms of Erikson's theory, as related to the adolescent's search for identity. Her view is that by grade 12 this search is completed and therefore scores on self complexity and self centrality drop. This research suggests that it is difficult to state hard and fast rules and that much may depend on individual responses to adolescent changes. Research by Metcalfe in 1978 (in Gurney, 1987) makes this apparent. He found that students with a high self concept experienced a drop in self concept when they entered high school. This was seen as an environmental condition related to the students' sudden drop in status on entering the new institution.

Physical development during adolescence plays an important part in the development of the self concept. For the adolescent, differences from the norm in the rate of physical development may create tensions and may lead to drops in the levels of self esteem, which in turn may negatively impact on the whole self concept. A variety of problems may occur. These include time of entry into puberty, weight, size and height. Generally girls go through a period of accelerated growth in early adolescence, much earlier than do boys. Biehler and Snowman (1991) report on a longitudinal study established by researchers at the University of California into the effects of early or late maturation. It was found that boys who mature early are more self confident and have higher levels of self esteem than late maturing boys. For girls the opposite appears to be true. The ensuing awkwardness that arises with these radical physical changes leads to increased self awareness.

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Also of significance to the development of the self concept are parenting styles. Washburn's early research (in Witteland, 1970) between 1961 and 1963 showed that certain parental behaviours may prevent the adolescent from establishing a mature self concept. He identified these practices as being too strict, not sufficiently protective and too critical. Another aspect of parental behaviour that has been studied and found to be significant in the development of the self concept of adolescents has been that of parental support and interest (Witteland, 1970).

In South Africa, a study conducted between 1993 and 1995, of black and white adolescents, by Mboya (in Louw and Edwards, 1997), noted that where parents took a keen interest and were supportive, the adolescents were more likely to develop positive self concepts. Rosenberg (in Witteland, 1970) found that positive or negative parental interest was preferential to disinterest. In South Africa, stresses on family life due to social and political upheaval have led to problems in parenting. Hlongwane (1989), referring to research by Uzoka (1980) and Lijembe (1957), comments that the destruction of traditional black social structures which made child rearing a community affair, and the haphazard implementation of western structures, have led to children growing up with unstable self concepts. He describes them as growing up with "doubt and apprehensions" and having "inconsistent views of themselves" (Hlongwane, 1989, p.26).

An important aspect of the development of the self concept and of the adolescent's personal growth is the level of cognitive development attained. Piaget (in Louw and Edwards, 1979) describes cognitive development in terms of a series of stages. He saw all children as constructing their own reality while proceeding through these stages. Significant to the adolescent's development are the stages referred to as concrete operations and formal operations. Piaget described the concrete operational stage as occurring between the ages of 6 and 11 years of age. At this stage children start to reason in a logical manner and no longer rely on intuition. They move from egocentrism to seeing other perspectives on issues.

The stage of formal operations sees the adolescent as able to deal in abstracts and being able to develop hypotheses. The altruistic tendencies displayed by the peer counsellor trainees would suggest that they had clearly reached this stage of Piagetian development. Critics of Piaget point out that the onset of this stage may differ between individuals and may, in fact, not be present in some adults. But Piaget sees it as starting as early as twelve years and developing slowly, with the adolescent being gradually able to think in more abstract terms. In terms of this study, all abstract concepts were clarified in role play situations to allow for differences in development. The researcher

also considered that the ability to think abstractly was important, as students had to understand issues such as ethics and also consider the effects of certain behaviours on their peers.

During early adolescence the peer group grows in importance. For most adolescents there is a strong desire to conform, which is often apparent in their dress and their general concern about what others think of them (Biehler and Snowman, 1991). Steinberg and Meyer (in Louw and Edwards, 1997) note that adolescents show a greater preoccupation with their peer group, spending more time with their peers and with peers of the opposite sex. An interest in the opposite sex means that adolescents have to come to terms with their own sexuality. Problems in this area can adversely effect the adolescent's self concept.

2.7   THE SELF CONCEPT AND EDUCATION

Hamacheck (1990) comments that "self-concept dynamics and learning go hand in hand" (p.306). Many different experiences influence students' self concept. These include the individual student's past history of success or failure, goals and aspirations. The old adage that "nothing succeeds like success", applies to many students. Although the study of the self concept has been controversial, and much contradictory evidence has been found by researchers, the body of evidence, which has accumulated, favours as incontrovertible the positive effect of a strong self concept on academic achievement.

Rogers and Freiberg (1994) point out that conventional education is not only considered as the best system, but is often "accepted as the inevitable system" (p.212). The low levels of motivation and poor self concepts of students in classrooms throughout South Africa, suggest that other methods need to be considered. Hamachek (1989) points out that any educational system needs to supply students with positive school experiences to lead to a more positive view of self and to establish a healthy self concept. This is obviously not only necessary for achievement in education, but for success in life.

At the heart of any attempt to improve the self concept of adolescents in classrooms or in special educational projects, is the need to create an accepting, caring environment. Psychoeducational research, by researchers such as Rogers and Freiberg (1994), Purkey and Novak (1996) and Lawrence (1996), have opened new frontiers in the search for success in the classroom. They all stress the need for a democratic,

accepting world for the student to explore educational options.

Gurney (1987) reviewed the research findings in the field of self esteem enhancement amongst children in both the United States of America and the United Kingdom, in various educational settings. He points out that four main areas of research have taken place, namely in the areas of:

- curriculum
- special classroom procedures
- changes in teacher behaviour
- changes in pupil behaviour

For the purposes of this research the first two aspects, curriculum and special classroom procedures are linked and the last two, teacher and pupil behaviour, are linked.

2.7.1 Curriculum

The term, curriculum, covers the material or topics taught, while special procedures refer to teaching methods and special projects. In the area of curriculum, research has proliferated in the teaching of reading skills. Coley (in Gurney, 1987) showed significant gains in self esteem amongst younger children where reading skills have been improved. More recently Lawrence (1996) showed similar trends in teaching reading skills. Gurney (1987) also lists programmes where self awareness and personal skills are developed, with all of these an important by-product seems to be the improvement of the self concept of the participants. Obviously subjects like languages can often be used as a medium for teaching important life skills. Beales & Zemel (1990) used a high school drama programme, run by staff with no training in psychology, to measure changes in social maturity. They found no significant change in the self esteem of participants, as measured on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, but did find that personal development occurred in other areas. Hughey, Lapan & Gysbers (1993) described a successful project whereby school counsellors and English teachers worked together to provide high school students with a combination of career guidance and skills in research and writing. Numerous school activities both inside and outside the classroom may help to improve the self concept of adolescents. Lawrence (1996) mentions some obvious subjects like drama, creative writing and art that can easily be harnessed to improve the self concept of students. Acknowledgement by the teacher of students' successes outside the classroom may also help to develop the self concept

of students.

The mushrooming of life skills programmes, which develop the individual's self knowledge, bear witness to the need in education to move away from purely content-based education with a very rigid curriculum (Hopson & Scally,1981). More democratic teaching styles can assist in improving a difficult situation (Rogers and Freiberg,1994). The training programme that forms the basis of this research sets out not only to teach learners basic counselling microskills, but does so in an atmosphere where sensitivity and self knowledge can be increased. It was also hoped that by increasing learners' skills they would improve their self concepts.

2.7.2   Behaviour Changes

For the teacher involved in guidance and counselling or in special projects, the issue is how the teacher conveys elements established by Rogers in the group context.

Many theorists advocate warmth, praise and acceptance as being essential child rearing practises to develop improved self concepts in children (Burns, 1979). Rogers extended this to the classroom and encouraged the development of more democratic, accepting teaching style (Rogers and Freiberg, 1994). A similar message has been issued by Purkey and Novak (1996) as well as Lawrence (1996). Gurney (1987) lists six important behavioural tasks for classroom teachers hoping to develop the self concepts of their students. Included in these, are tasks that link closely with Rogers's theories. Gurney (1987) lists the following:

- Teachers should give students as much extra attention as possible
- That teachers gain as much information as possible about students
- That teachers encourage students to monitor and reinforce their own behaviour
- That teachers communicate with parents and encourage them to follow the same pattern of supportive behaviour
- That the development of the students' self esteem is part of a whole school programme
- That teachers follow a similar pattern of self praise, monitoring and reinforcement

This last point is significant as increases in teachers' self esteem are reflected in increases in students' self esteem (Lawrence, 1996).

An interesting development in the search to establish a positive self concept in high school students is broached in Purkey and Novak's (1996) model of 'invitational education'. They describe invitational education as "a democratically oriented, perceptually anchored, self-concept approach to the educative process" (p. 2). They see their approach as based on five major principles. Two of these were considered to be of special significance in this context. Firstly, that people are both valuable and responsible and secondly that education is a collaborative and cooperative process (Purkey and Novak, 1996). Locally, research by Ntlhe (1995), into the relationship between the self concept and the school dropout rate amongst black adolescents in South Africa, stresses the need for teachers "to create for each child an encouraging and supportive environment" (p.88).

Many of the practical suggestions made by Purkey and Novak (1996) were included in the training programme upon which this study is based. These include creating a warm, caring atmosphere as unlike the traditional classroom as possible. Learners started the programme with cooldrink and biscuits and were encouraged to introduce themselves to learners they did not know. Each session was started with an ice-breaker exercise to encourage group involvement. The classroom used was established to look as different from the traditional classroom as possible. No desks were placed in the room. Instead it was carpeted and furnished with bright cushions. The researcher tried to be as unconditional as possible; learners were not criticised for being late, but were encouraged to arrive on time so as not to miss the 'fun' ice-breakers. They were also encouraged to volunteer answers or make suggestions without fear of criticism. All exercises were organised on a collaborative rather than a competitive basis. Learners were praised for helping others.

As noted above, behavioural change in the teacher will result in changes in the student and must precede changes in the student. Basic to the running of this training programme was the concept of the teacher as facilitator, introducing students to certain skills and new concepts, entering into a process of joint exploration which would lead to the acquisition of knowledge and skills by all involved in the process. Also, it was hoped that the method of presentation would reinforce the beliefs and ideas which formed the basis of the peer counselling programme.

Counselling and guidance services, by nature of their emphasis on personal development and freedom from examinable curricula, have the potential to bring about change in school communities. The school counsellor can fulfill an important role in encouraging all members of the school community to explore different roles in pursuit of the common aim, namely individual academic achievement and personal growth.

2.8   COUNSELLING AND GUIDANCE SERVICES IN SCHOOLS

Counselling and guidance services in schools in the USA and Canada appear to have reached an enviable level of sophistication, with well-integrated programmes and consistent, innovative planning and policy making at school district and state level. Even critics of guidance programmes in American high schools present a picture which is far superior to those offered elsewhere (Moles, 1991). Two criticisms levelled by the College Board Commission, namely that student:counsellor ratios are approximately 350 : 1 and that between 6% and 10% of public schools did not offer basic guidance facilities seem almost laughable in the South African context (Moles, 1991). Here the full time school counsellor or guidance teacher may appear a luxury.

2.8.1   Peer Counselling in American and Canadian Schools

Researchers have pointed out that for a very long time students have helped other students in academic roles (Cowie and Sharp, 1996b). However, during the late 1960s and early 1970s these programmes began to proliferate and to metamorphise into programmes where students were used as peer counsellors or peer facilitators supporting other students in a wider range of areas (Bowman and Myrick, 1980).

Peer counselling in the USA and Canada is certainly not a passing phase, and has gained respectability with teachers, academics and education authorities. This movement spread from colleges and universities to high schools and has now spread to elementary schools. As early as 1972, peer counselling programmes were being developed as a means of helping high school students to deal with social problems that they experienced in school (Hamburg & Varenhorst, 1972).   Peer counselling programmes in schools were soon seen as a means to broaden the base of support available to students and a means of demystifying what had for some time been the prerogative of professionals. It has also served as a positive means to harness peer influence. In 1972 Hamburg and Varenhorst described a school-based programme as part of community mental health projects and saw the school as becoming actively involved in the socialisation of students. They saw schools as being forced to take on the non academic education of students. Anthony (1975), used a peer counselling training programme of twelve, hour long sessions, and assessed the effects of peer counselling training on their communication skills, attitudes towards school, teachers and authority and on their self concepts. Whilst there was no change to their self concepts, as measured on the TSCS, their attitudes toward school, teachers and authority improved, as did their communication skills.

de Rosenroll and Dey (1990) preface their article on training peer counsellors in the school setting, with the comment that, "for 20 years, research literature has documented the growth of people helping people, particularly in schools" (p.304). Carr (1988) mentions that in the period between 1978 and 1987 peer helping programmes grew from approximately less than a dozen to over 2000 in Canada.

Although most peer counsellor programmes have been based in schools, programmes have been mushrooming in other community organizations, such as hospitals and youth centres. Silver, Coupey, Bauman, Doctors & Boeck (1992) undertook research into the mental health effects of peer counselling training on chronically ill, inner-city, minority group adolescents. They underwent training in peer counselling skills, including interpersonal communication skills and on successful completion of the three month programme were encouraged to put forward their names for selection as peer counsellors at the hospital's inpatient unit. Healthy adolescents also took part in the programme and the group facilitator was not informed as to which adolescents were chronically ill and which were judged to be healthy. The results of the study show that adolescents that were chronically ill were as likely to complete the peer counselling course and embark successfully on a 'career' as a peer counsellor, as their healthy counterparts. But the study showed that improved mental health only occurred in those 14 adolescents that worked as peer counsellors. Besides these interesting results, the programme also showed how peer counselling programmes for adolescents can be successfully extended into the wider community.

Research into peer counselling training has centred on a number of areas. These include: establishing appropriate goals, selection procedures, training, student availability and overall evaluations of programmes.

Similar goals are expressed in much of the literature. They are summarised by Rockwell and Dustin (1979) who suggested four possible goals for school-based peer counselling programmes. They are as follows:

- To increase the effectiveness of the counselling process within the school, ensuring that peer counsellors deal with more routine procedures and act as a bridge encouraging students to see the counsellor when necessary
- To increase awareness of the counselling process
- To increase the amount of counselling that occurs within the school
- To encourage personal growth in the peer counsellors

Many projects list similar aims, with special emphasis placed on the need to augment staff shortages and to harness the desire amongst adolescents to help others (Cowie and Sharp,1996b).

Selection procedures vary and a survey of research suggests the following are the most common (Rockwell and Dustin, 1979):

- Self selection by interested students
- Selection by teachers and counsellors
- Selection by members of the student body
- Selection by established criteria, for example reaching certain academic standards

Bowman and Myrick (1980) conducted research into a 'Junior Counselor Program' aimed at elementary school children. The selection procedure incorporated a number of the procedures listed above. Staff established criteria by which they selected a preliminary list of students. These included assessments of the students' motivation, academic ability, levels of self concept and ability to be caring. The students were then subjected to further selection procedures based on teacher assessment. Obviously time constraints need to be considered in this process.

The training of peer counsellors led to a spate of research from the mid seventies. Many similarities exist between programmes. Most stress the need for material to be age appropriate and the need for logical and systematic organisation. Many also contain information on helping, listening and responding skills (Bowman, 1986; Bowman & Myrick,1986). Some also focus on self awareness, sensitivity, problem solving and mediation processes (Dysinger, 1993). Most of the programmes supply details of time spent on the programme. This may differ from regular meetings over a prolonged period of time to concentrated group meetings for a specific period of time. Some schools ran their own in-house programmes while others, such as those described by Carr (1988) in Canada, were much more elaborate. This programme in Victoria, British Columbia, was run by the local university for a number of school districts and was a unique way of pooling resources. The training programme has been adapted to the needs of other countries.

A most important factor of the peer counselling movement in the USA and Canada is the rich body of research literature that has resulted from its development. Unfortunately actual evaluations of programmes by the wider school community are rarely available.

2.8.2 Peer Counselling Programmes in South Africa

In South Africa, while a few schools are running programmes, no research literature is available for an analysis of the situation. School guidance teachers to whom the researcher spoke, expressed interest, but felt that they did not have the resources in embark on any such plan. Peer counselling seems to have remained the domain of the tertiary institutions and remains an untapped resource for most schools. Organisations outside the school structure have used peer counselling strategies as a means of coping with specific problems and disseminating information on important social problems, such as drug abuse and aids (in the *Sunday Tribune*, 22 /11/98). Scheepers (1997), in his address to the Seventeenth Annual Society for Student Counsellors of Southern Africa Conference, pointed out the need for extensive research into peer counselling projects in South Africa. While his address was made in the context of tertiary education, it applies as well to any school-based programmes that may develop in the future. It is hoped, that as has happened in the USA and Canada, peer counselling strategies will filter down to schools where an obvious need exists.

At tertiary level, peer counselling programmes have been introduced, often as part of a wider support structure. Emphasis has often been on academic achievement and courses have been aimed at students at risk of failure. However, peer counselling programmes aimed at students helping their peers in a wider range of concerns have developed (Majozi, 1994). Some peer counselling programmes have aimed at training specific groups of peers, often psychology majors or postgraduate students (Scheepers, 1997). Janks (1993) and Burkhalter (1995) described research into youth counselling programmes which used university students, who were training to be teachers and doing guidance method, to work with school children. At times these training programmes appear almost to be an extension of existing academic programmes. Training has involved much that is similar. For example, listening and responding skills feature in most of the programmes, also crisis intervention and referral techniques. A dimension which appears to be gaining ground in South Africa is that of cross cultural awareness (Majozi, 1994; Smit & Botha, 1997). Although Smit & Botha (1997) qualified their success with a warning that the measurement technique used required greater refinement, they pointed out that a training programme in peer counselling skills, which had as its main goal the development of cross cultural awareness, met with a high rate of success and assisted in the peer counsellors gaining significant insight into cross cultural matters.

It would appear that similar to the American and Canadian models, impetus from tertiary education may generate interest at school level. In the Eastern Cape a tertiary institution

has launched a 'Train-the-Trainer' programme, using the Peer Counselling Starter Kit (1979) by Carr and Saunders. This has been adapted for the South African situation as the Peer Helper Trainer's Manual and Student Workbook (1995) and a pilot project has been launched in a local high school. It is hoped that this and similar projects will generate interest in the school community (Telephonic discussion with M.de Jager, 9.11.98).

2.9   CONCLUSION

South African schools cannot afford to ignore the peer counselling movement in a situation where learners are demanding opportunities to involve themselves in the process of education and where education is proving inadequate in meeting the needs of learners.

The aims of the research to be described in this study are mentioned in the next chapter, followed by a discussion of the research design and methodology adopted.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1   SUMMARY OF AIMS

The primary aim of this study was to investigate the changes that occur in the self concept, as measured on the TSCS, of female adolescents over an eight week period during which they participated in a training programme. The aim of the programme was to teach the participants interpersonal skills as a constituent part of a peer counselling pre-selection course. The secondary aims included encouraging participants to help themselves and their peers by gaining better interpersonal skills; and improving the effectiveness of the counselling and guidance programme within the school environment by increasing learners' understanding of the counselling process.

3.2   EXPERIMENTAL INVESTIGATION

The experimental investigation involved a quasi-experimental design, using a multi-method approach which generated both quantitive and qualitative data, in an attempt to attain fair and unbiased results. The quasi-experimental status of the project resulted from the anchoring of the research in a real world situation, namely the school setting. Quantitive data, in the from of TSCS scores in this study, enabled data to be measured and statistically analysed over a number of respondents with relative ease and a degree of objectivity.

Closed-ended questions were added to the TSCS results, to supply quantitive data of a specific nature. However, because statistical procedures themselves can influence the kind of results achieved, it was decided to combine this technique with qualitative data (McLeod, 1994). Therefore the qualitative data, in the from of open-ended questions in a questionnaire, was used to give added insight into the influence of the programme on the participants (Burns, 1979). Qualitative data, which is based in language, does add certain dimensions to research. It may allow for more variation in response and is seen as more descriptive, imposing less on the respondents and allowing them more involvement and therefore being more interactive (McLeod, 1994). Qualitative data collection also has certain drawbacks for the researcher, in that the non-standardised format of responses requires a great deal of time for analysis.

3.2.1 Research Subjects

The subjects consisted of an experimental group based in a Pietermaritzburg school, and a comparison group situated at a similar school in Durban. The experimental group were a self-selected volunteer group. The comparison group was selected from a larger pool of respondents; fifty girls completed the TSCS in classroom groups during guidance lessons. This large number was necessary to supply a pool from which to match subjects to the experimental group. The demographic data supplied on the TSCS answer sheet was used to select those who matched the experimental group as closely as possible. Initially each group consisted of 25 participants.

3.2.2 Pre-Test Post-Test Design

It was decided to use a pre-test post-test design, with the experimental group undergoing the designed training programme in the intervening period. The pre-test post-test design does produce problems of 'test practice' and consideration must be given to the possibility that at least part of the change may be due to the element of practice (Drew, C.J. & Hardman,M.L.,1985). The comparison group, selected from a population which matched the experimental group as closely as possible, experienced no intervention. While every effort was made to make these two groups as similar as possible, it was clearly understood that they could not be equivalent. Also, as the experimental group was a volunteer one it could not be seen as truly random. Random assignment would have been ideal, but for practical and ethical reasons this was not possible. Practically, since the programme was part of an attempt to refine the selection procedures for peer counsellors, to ensure that the best candidates were selected, it formed part of an ongoing programme. It was also felt that to choose participants on a purely random basis and to exclude enthusiastic participants would be problematic in the context of programme development.

3.2.3 Ethical Issues

An attempt was made to adhere to the strictest possible ethical standards while not compromising the validity of the research. Consent was gained from the relevant education authority (See Appendix B). The experimental group's parents were briefed. (See Appendix C). Both groups were advised that the information gathered formed part of a research study, but that individual names and details were not relevant and would

be kept confidential. The experimental group were also informed of the significance of the training programme within the general peer counselling programme.

3.2.4   Validity of Research Design

Consideration was given to external variables which might impinge on the validity of the study. The success of the programme depended on the attendance of the experimental group. As attendance was voluntary and participants could withdraw at any stage, significant efforts were made to ensure a high rate of attendance. Firstly, participants were informed of the importance of good interpersonal skills, whether they decided to put themselves forward for selection as peer counsellors or not. Secondly, they were informed that completion of the course was mandatory for the selection of future peer counsellors. Thirdly, all participants who attended 90% of the course would received a certificate of completion. Finally, every effort was made to introduce an element of fun.

In fact, the drop out rate for the whole study was low, with only one member of the comparison group dropping out for health reasons and all members of the experimental group completing the course successfully.

In a field situation such as this, certain extraneous variables are difficult to control. Members of the experimental group did appear at times to be adversely affected by problematic situations at school and home. For example, academic problems or problems with peers or teachers preoccupied some. It was hoped that this would be counteracted by the supportive atmosphere of 'the group'.

The comparison group was established at another school so that respondents would not be influenced by any discussion of the actual programme. Whilst every effort was made to maintain consistency in the testing procedures, consideration also had to be given to the element of practice that is inherent in a pre-test post-test design and which has already been discussed. It was felt that the question of maturation was not a significant one as the self concept is seen as relatively stable over time and the programme was of short duration (8 weeks).

3.3   RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The experimental investigation involved a quasi-experimental design. This means that

an experimental approach was used, but that true random assignment to the experimental and comparison groups did not occur (Robson, 1993). A multi-method approach was used and both quantitative and qualitative data was generated.

3.3.1   Biographical Questionnaire

All members of the experimental group completed a simple biographical questionnaire. This included details of age, race and academic subjects taken. The final question was open-ended and tried to establish why they wished to participate in the course (See Appendix D). These details would be useful in checking for related trends in the results.

3.3.2   The Final Questionnaire

The first section of the questionnaire consisted of ten closed-ended questions which were established as a variation of a summated rating scale (Likert Scale). The Likert Scale is established by firstly obtaining a large number of positively or negatively stated assertions. Respondents' total scores are then subjected to various statistical procedures so that equal weighting is given to positively and negatively stated items. Likert Scales typically operate on a five point scale, but may vary from four to seven points. The questionnaire used in this study was not subjected to the item analysis procedures essential to a true Likert Scale. However, the Likert type scale is useful as it does not require expertise in constructing the items and is easy for respondents to use (Aiken, 1977).

The closed-ended questions were standardised to increase efficiency in scoring. These questions were partly generated from the responses of the participants at the beginning of the course to the open-ended question on the biographical questionnaire. Other questions were centred on issues that had arisen in the course of the peer counselling programme. These needs had become apparent in the two years that the programme had run, and were identified and clarified in discussions with the present peer counsellors.

The design and layout of the questionnaire was simple and allowed for participants to tick appropriate answers from three possible answers, namely Yes, Unsure and No. The 'unsure' response was considered as necessary so that participants would not be forced to hold opinions that were not true for them. The responses to these questions were

entered in a tabulated format. The information from the two open-ended questions was coded by establishing common themes, after which the information was tabulated. It was hoped that the open-ended questions would generate new ideas and issues to develop the programme (See Appendix E).

3.3.3 The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale

In studies of the human personality, theories of self concept are a key factor (Burns, 1979). As research has focused on the self concept, so have measures of self concept proliferated. Various measures of self concept were considered for this study. These included the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (1981), the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (1969) and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) (1991). After an analysis of these three measures, it was decided to use the TSCS as it has been used successfully in a wide variety of situations, including local studies (Hlongwane, 1989; McKay, 1995; Van den Heetkamp, 1979). Other advantages of its use are that it covers a wide age range and there is a wealth of research into its reliability and validity. These factors were considered as important in establishing the validity of this study. Also the detailed breakdown of the self concept would be useful to scrutinise specific areas of change. A further point was that the researcher felt that both the Piers-Harris and the Coopersmith were more suitable for younger age groups.

The TSCS is available commercially and has been widely used with both adolescents and adults. It consists of a booklet and answer and score sheets as well as profile sheets, and a detailed manual. The scale consists of 100 self-descriptive statements which the respondents have to evaluate in terms of a 5-point scale. The possible answers are, Completely False (1), Mostly False (2), Partly False & Partly True (3), Mostly True (4) and Completely True (5) (See Appendix F for the TSCS answer and score sheets). The test is self-administered and is suitable for individual or group application to all respondents over the age of 12 or 13 years. According to the manual, administration takes approximately 10 to 20 minutes and can be easily understood by anyone with a fourth grade education (USA). Responses are scored on carbonated answer sheets, which transfer the information to the score sheet.

The test is available in two forms, either Form C (Counselling From) or Form C & R (Clinical and Research Form). These differ in the method of scoring, with the Counselling Form yielding 14 scores and the Clinical and Research Form yielding 30

scores. Total scores range from 100 to 500, higher scores represent a more positive self concept (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). For the purposes of this study the Form C & R scoring was used. The hundred items of the TSCS are further divided into subscales which consist of a 10-point Self Criticism scale and the remaining 90 items make up subscales which appear as "a two dimensional 3 x 5-point scheme on a score sheet" (Van den Heetkamp, p.133). The three rows consist of subscales named Identity, Self Satisfaction and Behaviour. The columns consist of subscales representing Physical Self, Moral-Ethical Self, Personal Self, Family Self and Social Self. Each of these subscales are further subdivided into positive and negative items. The Form C & R also produces a number of additional scores, namely the True/False Ratio (T/F), Net Conflict (Net C), Total Conflict (Tot C) and scores on a number of empirical scales and supplementary scales.

The subscales have self explanatory titles, however each of the major ones will be explained to obviate any misunderstandings. The Self Criticism scale consists of mildly derogatory statements which express common weaknesses. Low scores would suggest a high degree of defensiveness while high scores denote a healthy openness and capacity for self criticism. The Total Score is the most important score and represents the overall self concept. Under the row scores, Identity refers to the way an individual sees himself or herself, Self Satisfaction refers to the level of self acceptance and Behaviour reflects the way the respondent perceives him or herself as functioning. The column scores similarly describe the various aspects of the individual's perception of him or herself. Physical Self refers to the individual's perception of his or her health, body and physical appearance. Moral-Ethical Self refers to the individual's sense of his/her morality. Personal Self refers to the individual's sense of self worth as a person. Family Self refers to the individual's perception of self within the family. Social Self refers to the individual's perception of self within wider social situations.

Two additional scores are investigated in this study. They are the Distribution of Responses score, which summarises the pattern of an individual's responses and is a measure of the individual's ability to have a definite picture of him or herself, and the True/False Ratio which measures response bias and has a number of possible functions, the most important in terms of this study being its use as a measure of self definition. A full analysis of all these scores is beyond the scope of this study, therefore a detailed analysis was made of nine of the scores. These are the three row scores, three of the column scores, two of the additional scales, as well as the Total Score. To

establish the breadth of change across the full range of scores the results on the sub scales are supplied in tabulated form. (See Table 4.6)

3.3.3.1 Standardisation

The original norms for the TSCS were established in 1965 from a representative sample of 626 participants from various intellectual, social and economic backgrounds (Roid & Fitts, 1991). Equal representation was given to both sexes and to both blacks and whites. The sample was established in the United States of America and ranged in age from 12 to 68. It was felt that the norms established were adequately representative of the population. Numerous subsequent studies have investigated these norms, with the most research having been done in the adolescent age group. Subsequently new adolescent norms have been established by research carried out by Sherman in 1983 (Roid & Fitts, 1991).

3.3.3.2 Validity

The TSCS has been used in a number of situations, including counselling, clinical and medical settings. Evidence has been accumulated to establish its validity as a measure of self concept. In the manual (Roid & Fitts, 1991), reference is made to research by Shavalson and Bolus, who show that the TSCS Total Score, as a measure of general self concept, is stable and reliable relative to hierarchical models of self concept. Furthermore, in 1988 Roid & Fitts (in Blascovitch & Tomaka, 1991) found that the TSCS correlates 0.80 with the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale. Research in 1979 by Van Tuinen and Ramanaiah (in Blascovitch & Tomaka) correlated the TSCS at 0.75 with the Coopersmith Self Inventory Scale. The TSCS has been used in numerous studies as an indicator of change after various interventions, using the pre-test post-test design. In this specific area the manual names a number of studies. With the exception of one of the researchers cited, who only used the Total Score, all studies noted gains in the self concept as measured by the TSCS (Roid & Fitts, 1991). It is believed that these intervention studies have assisted in establishing the construct validity of the TSCS (Roid & Fitts, 1991).

Critics of the TSCS have viewed the scale as too unwieldy for general use and as only

suitable for research. This is not relevant to this study, as no individual profiles were established for consideration, and acts to confirm its usage as a research tool (Thorndike & Hagen, 1977). Furthermore Marsh and Richards (in Blascovitch & Tomaka, 1991) completed research in which only the validity of three subscales could be established, namely Family Self, Social Self and Physical Self. However it is conceded that the Total Score is a popular and widely used measure of self concept. No other research appears to substantiate the findings of Marsh and Richards (in Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991).

3.3.3.3 Reliability

The TSCS manual lists numerous research studies which have established the reliability of the TSCS.

3.3.3.3.1 Internal Consistency

The TSCS manual cites that research by Stanwick & Garrison (1982) established an internal consistency of 0.92.

3.3.3.3.2 Test-Retest Reliability

In 1965 Fitts (in Burns, 1979), reported a test-retest reliability over a two week period varying from 0,75 on Self Criticism to 0,92 on the Total Score, and varying from 0,80 to 0,90 on the various subscales. In 1988 Roid & Fitts (in Blascovitch & Tomaka,1991) did further research on test-retest reliability over a period of six weeks and scores varied from 0,94 for the Total Score to 0,62 on certain subscales. These sound scores on test-retest reliability are important in establishing the reliability of this study as consideration must be given to the consequences of repeating the test.

3.4 AUTHORIZATION

Authorization for the study was granted by a representative of the KwaZulu-Natal Education Department. The letter requesting authorization was signed and acknowledged by the relevant Superintendent of Education (District) (See Appendix B). A letter was also sent to participants' parents, explaining the programme and inviting queries (See Appendix C).

3.5   ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES

Once the groups were established, the TSCS was administered. The experimental group completed the TSCS and a biographical questionnaire as part of the first session of the training programme. The instructions were given in accordance with the TSCS's accompanying manual. The participants were invited to ask if they experienced difficulties in understanding the statements in the TSCS booklet. Notably, many Zulu first language participants requested help in understanding the meaning of certain items. Explanations were written on a whiteboard, so that they would be available to less confident learners.

The comparison group was selected from a group of 50 learners who completed the TSCS in Durban during the same week as the experimental group. The test was administered under the same conditions in a classroom situation, and the instructions in the manual were carefully adhered to. From the group of 50, a smaller group of 25 participants were identified as a comparison group which closely resembled the experimental group in age, language and subject choice.

The post-test occurred for both groups in the last week of term. Unfortunately, one of the comparison group was hospitalised in that week. This data was discarded and therefore the final comparison group consisted of 24 respondents. When the raw data was analysed, the experimental group was numbered from 1 to 25 and the comparison group from 26 to 49. The data, including age and race was entered, so as to elicit a computer generated analysis.

In compliance with the instructions in the TSCS manual, omitted responses were entered as 3s (Roid & Fitts, 1991). The manual also suggests that should more than 10% of the responses on any score sheet be omitted, the score sheet should not be used. None of the respondents' score sheets were affected in this way. However, one of the experimental group had entered multiple responses. In adherence with the instructions in the manual, these were changed to 3s. On both the test and retest administration of the TSCS, a total of 50 items were omitted by the 49 respondents. These omitted responses were entered as 3s in accordance with the instructions in the manual.

3.6   DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS

Language, age, gender and subject choice were considered as these represer
elements that may negatively influence the accuracy of the results.   These will bε
individually investigated.

3.6.1   Language

Each group consisted of 10 English first language speakers and 15 Zulu first language
speakers.   These language differences also reflect the racial grouping.   Although the
TSCS answer sheet requests ethnic details, race was not a consideration in this study
Lack of representation of other racial groups happened by chance. They did no
volunteer for this initial group, but did take part in later groups which did not form pan
of this analysis.

3.6.2   Age

The participants' age varied from between 15 and 18, the mean age being 16 years and
6 months.   Table 3.1 shows the distribution of age for the two groups.   Note that the
Table reflects all 25 participants in the comparison group.

Table 3.1: Participants' Age

Age	Experimental	Comparison
15	1	3
16	15	16
17	7	5
18	2	1

3.6.3 Gender

All participants were females and both experimental and comparison group attend
single sex schools.

3.6.4 Subject Choice

No participants in the experimental group were registered for the double science course, which consists of Mathematics, Physical Science and Biology. Therefore, when selecting the comparison group from the 50 original respondents, any who offered the double science subject combination were excluded.

3.7 DATA COLLECTION

Data collection was undertaken by two qualified testers registered with the KwaZulu-Natal Education Department. Care was taken to standardise procedures. Each tester was well known to the respondents in the respective schools.

3.8 CONCLUSION

The collection of data for the two groups was carefully synchronised and meticulous records were kept so that a systematic analysis of the results could be undertaken. The following chapter describes the analysis of results using both statistical methods and methods of analysing qualitative data.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

4.1   INSTRUMENTATION

The statistical analysis is based on descriptive statistical methods and all scores are represented as the arithmetic means of the two separate groups. The focus of this analysis was the measurement of change between the pre-test and the post-test for the two groups.

The results of the TSCS for both groups were entered into the statistical software package called SPSS. The data for the experimental and comparison groups was codified. The experimental group was coded as group 1 and each respondent was given a number from 1 to 25, after which age and language was entered. Zulu first language speakers were entered as 1 and English first language speakers as 2. Although the comparison group was entered in the same way, it was coded as group 2, and each group member was listed from 26 to 49.

As individual respondents' scores were not significant on their own and only group means and standard deviations were to be considered, the statistical procedures included correlations and non-parametric tests. In this instance the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test and the Mann Whitney U test were used. Whilst t-tests are commonly used to compare means of groups, it was decided to use non-parametric tests. The Mann-Whitney is seen as equal to the unpaired 2-group t-test and the Wilcoxon is seen as the equal to the paired two-group t-test (Robson, 1993). The simple comparative nature of the data in this study, combined with the large number of scores generated made the less complex nature of the non-parametric tests useful. These tests are also seen to be based on fewer assumptions and applicable in a wider variety of contexts (Robson, 1993).

The final questionnaires were then analysed and the data assessed in the light of the findings of the TSCS. It was hoped that this more subjective result would serve to clarify the findings of the TSCS.

4.2   RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Using the Wilcoxon, a detailed analysis of the reliability of the data was undertaken. It was felt that this was necessary as scores measuring change have been seen as having a dubious reliability. The reliability was assessed in three ways. Firstly the reliability was assessed for the entire group, including the experimental and comparison groups. Secondly an analysis was made on the basis of language and finally the reliability of each group was assessed separately.

4.2.1   Reliability as a Single Group

Table 4.1 contains details of the reliability coefficients based on all 49 respondents over the 30 items.

Table 4.1   Row Reliability Coefficients

Rows	Pre-test	Post-test
Identity	0,78	0,82
Self Satisfaction	0,83	0,86
Behaviour	0,70	0,77

It is of interest that the reliability improved on the post-test. This may have been due to the increased familiarity of the situation, the second time around. The respondents in the experimental group seemed to be particularly nervous during the pre-test. This may have been because they were starting the programme, and were not sure what would be expected of them. The Behaviour score on the pre-test was severely affected by the two items. These were item 16, "I do poorly on sports and games" and "I give in to my parents (use past tense if parents are not living)". If these two were removed the reliability on the surviving 28 items improved to 0,75.

Table 4.2 overleaf details the reliability coefficients for all 49 respondents over 18 items:

Table 4.2   Column Reliability Coefficients

Columns	Pre-test	Post-test
Physical Self	0,75	0,78
Moral-Ethical Self	0,76	0,79
Personal Self	0,63	0,81
Family Self	0,71	0,74
Social Self	0,70	0,76

The reliability coefficients for the Total Score, that is for all 90 items, appears in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3   Total Score Reliability Coefficients

Criteria	Pre-test	Post-test
Total Scores	0,88	0,92

The reliability coefficients in both Table 4.2 and 4.3 suggest a high degree of pre-test and post-test reliability, in keeping with research referred to in the manual. For example, in 1965 Fitts (in Roid & Fitts, 1991) established a test-retest reliability coefficient of 0.92 (Total Score) over a two week period with college students.

However, a study of the individual scores related to the columns does reflect certain concerns. For example, under Moral-Ethical Self, item 19 appeared to create certain problems, as did two items under Family, namely item 59 and item 68. Subsequent discussions with members of the experimental group have brought to light certain ambiguities arising from these items. Item 19 on the actual test reads, "I am a decent sort of person". It appeared that the group was concerned about the interpretation of the word, 'decent'.   Item 59 reads, "My friends have no confidence in me".   Again there was some doubt in the minds of the respondents as to the interpretation of the word 'confidence'.   Respondents felt that this question was too general, that friends may

have confidence in them in certain areas. Finally, Item 68 said that, "I do my share of work at home." This item seemed to raise cultural issues. Zulu first language speaking respondents felt the question did not express their situations, as their mothers worked and male members of the family did not assist with the household chores, therefore they did a substantial amount of the work, and in some cases all the work. English first language speaking respondents did not feel as strongly.

An investigation of Personal Self scores shows a general trend of lower scores, although this changed in the post-test. Some of the items caused some confusion amongst the learners. An example of this is Item 74, "I am popular with women". Many learners asked about this item, and seemed to feel uncomfortable with it. Item 76, "I am mad at the whole world" created linguistic problems, as they were not familiar with the use of the word 'mad' in this context. Although it was explained as meaning angry, an investigation of individual responses showed that the learners felt uncomfortable with this question.

4.2.2 Reliability by Language

The reliability coefficients were also considered on the basis of language. These are detailed in Table 4.4 overleaf. For this purpose all Zulu first language respondents in the experimental group and the comparison group were considered as one group and likewise the English first language group. The assumption was that the Zulu first language group, who were not doing the test in their home language, would have lower levels of reliability. The scores did not support this assumption. This could be due to two possible factors. Firstly, most of the Zulu first language respondents had been in English first language high schools for three and a half years and were therefore fairly fluent in English. Secondly, the Zulu first language group spent longer completing the test and asked many questions. From the Total Score in Table 4.4 it can be seen that on the pre-test the reliability coefficients for the Zulu first language group were slightly, but not significantly, higher and on the post-test they were exactly the same. The reliability rose significantly for both groups in the areas of Personal Self, Social Self and Behaviour on the post-test.

Table 4.4 Reliability Coefficients by Language Grouping

	English Speaking Group		Zulu Speaking Group	
Criteria	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
Physical	0,79	0,78	0,67	0,78
Moral-Ethical	0,77	0,80	0,74	0,80
Personal	0,68	0,85	0,65	0,75
Family	0,75	0,75	0,66	0,75
Social	0,63	0,77	0,60	0,77
Identity	0,81	0,82	0,72	0,82
SelfSatisfaction	0,87	0,87	0,87	0,87
Behaviour	0,60	0,77	0,81	0,77
Total Score	0,89	0,92	0,87	0,92

4.2.3 Reliability for Each Group

Finally the reliability of the two separate groups, experimental and comparison, were investigated and compared. Table 4.5, overleaf gives a detailed account of where changes occurred.

Table 4.5   Reliability Coefficients by Group

Criteria	Experimental Group		Comparison Group	
Physical	0,37	0,78	0,82	0,78
Moral-Ethical	0,78	0,80	0,77	0,79
Personal	0,58	0,66	0,71	0,82
Family	0,73	0,75	0,71	0,75
Social	0,69	0,78	0,73	0,77
Identity	0,66	0,82	0,83	0,82
SelfSatisfaction	0,86	0,86	0,80	0,86
Behaviour	0,58	0,77	0,77	0,77
Total	0,88	0,92	0,89	0,92

From the foregoing scores in Table 4.5, it is apparent that the same pattern arises, namely that the reliability increases with the post-test and that the reliability for the experimental and comparison groups is only fractionally different on the pre-test and exactly the same on the post-test. Personal Self scores were very low for the pre-test experimental group on items 49 and 54," I can always take care of myself in any situation" and "I try to run away from my problems" respectively. Very low reliability coefficients also occurred on the following item for the experimental group in the Physical Self pre-test section. These were item 2, "I like to look nice and neat all the time", item 5, "I consider myself a sloppy person", item 6, "I am a sick person", item 12, "I should have more sex appeal", item 16, "I do poorly in sports and games" and item 17, "I often act like I am 'all thumbs' ".   In discussions it was apparent that although terms like 'sloppy' and 'all thumbs' were explained during the course of the test, many respondents were not comfortable with these terms and did not feel they fully understood them. Also as tests intersect, poor scores in Family Self and Physical Self, i.e. column scores, would affect scores under Behaviour and the other row scores.

4.3   MEASUREMENT OF CHANGE

The Mann-Whitney was used to measure the changes that occurred to both the experimental and comparison groups. Both group means and standard deviations are given. Because the TSCS, through the 29 scales, 15 supplementary scales as well as the combination scales, generates many different scores, which frequently overlap, it was decided to concentrate on the nine scales which fell within the 0,05 level of significance. It was felt that they assist in clarifying the aims of the study adequately. However, the combination subscale scores are also supplied, merely to show the range of change.

4.3.1   Scores on Combination Subscales

Table 4.6 overleaf clearly illustrates the changes that occurred to the combination subscales. (Full titles are listed in Appendix G) These combinations give an example of the many varied combinations of scales, and the large amount of statistical data that the TSCS generates. As these were only used to establish the breadth of change, and as a detailed analysis of the combination subscales falls outside the range of this study, levels of significance are not supplied. It must also be noted that many of the these scores overlap, with scores in the main scales that are analysed and for which levels of significance are supplied. An interesting feature of the combination subscales, is that scores are divided into positive and negative reponses.

Table 4.6   Results of the Combination Subscale Scores

Subscales	Experimental Group				Comparison Group			
	Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
PHPI	11,48	1,48	11,64	1,29	11,08	2,10	11,79	1,32
PHNI	11,92	1,38	13,44	1,29	11,67	2,99	12,17	2,43
MPI	11,48	1,45	12,24	1,54	11,25	1,98	10,96	1,52
MNI	13,00	1,66	13,32	2,18	12,67	2,22	12,58	1,89
PEPI	12,00	1,19	12,24	1,47	10,92	2,06	11,62	1,95
PENI	12,88	2,26	14,44	1,00	12,96	20,1	12,75	2,23
FPI	12,28	2,65	12,56	2,36	12,08	2,26	11,83	2,04
FNI	11,76	2,45	13,36	2,27	12,54	1,91	12,67	1,71
SPI	11,52	2,06	11,72	1,54	11,29	1,65	10,75	2,40
SNI	13,64	1,15	13,36	1,15	11,79	1,84	11,88	1,30
PHPSS	11,48	2,02	12,08	1,91	10,54	2,59	10,79	2,67
PHNSS	9,72	2,30	10,96	1,84	8,58	2,22	9,63	2,70
MPSS	11,68	1,99	12,16	1,77	11,04	2,56	10,42	2,43
MNSS	8,92	2,84	9,28	2,88	10,17	3,32	9,42	3,06
PEPSS	10,68	2,78	11,40	1,63	10,46	2,38	10,08	2,64
PENSS	11,28	2,21	12,84	2,03	11,54	1,96	11,79	2,72
FPSS	10,96	2,52	11,96	1,86	10,08	2,38	10,29	2,05
FNSS	9,68	3,38	9,76	3,27	9,54	2,75	9,50	3,28
SPSS	10,84	2,34	11,96	1,74	11,67	2,12	10,67	2,30
SNSS	9,56	2,35	10,80	2,43	11,04	2,94	11,04	2,95
PHPBH	11,48	1,23	12,44	1,39	11,00	2,50	11,42	1,93
PHNBH	11,04	1,97	11,04	2,03	10,71	2,63	10,45	238
MPBH	11,36	1,66	11,44	1,58	11,33	1,66	10,88	203
MNBH	10,96	2,09	11,72	1,81	11,67	2,24	11,79	2,36
PEPBH	9,44	1,85	10,48	2,05	10,08	1,72	9,71	1,97
PENBH	10,52	1,61	10,80	1,76	9,58	2,69	9,58	2,00
FPBH	11,90	1,29	12,04	1,40	11,46	1,77	11,71	163
FNBH	9,52	1,58	9,64	1,32	9,54	1,61	9,08	238
SPBH	12,00	1,32	12,36	1,11	11,96	1,49	11,79	1,69
SNBH	10,08	2,00	11,84	1,55	10,83	2,65	11,21	2,57

This table shows the breadth of change for the Experimental group. On the 30 combinations listed, 28 (93,3%) showed an increase on the post-test as opposed to the Comparison group, where 13 (43,3%) reflected increases. For example,MPI (Moral/ Positive/Identity) rose for the experimental group from a mean of 11,48 to a mean of 12,24; while the comparison group dropped from a mean of 11,25 to 10,96. While SNBH (Social/Negative/Behaviour) increased from a mean of 10,08 to 11,84. The comparison group increased slightly from 10,83 to 11,21.

4.3.2 Changes in the Major Scales

Only those scores which lie within the 0,05 level of significance have been considered for detailed analysis. Table 4.7 lists the scales which were considered and their probability scores. In analysing the graphs all references to the experimental and comparison groups will only use the feminine form of the pronoun, as the group members were all females. Please note that the graphs represent approximations. They show a similar interaction to that in a full two way ANOVA, the interaction is represented by the two lines on the figure going in different directions. It is apparent that the change in the experimental group has to be different to the change in the comparison group. The graphs for Self Satisfaction (Graph 4.5) and Distribution (Graph 4.7) show both groups starting with similar scores, the experimental group shows significant increases, while the comparison group shows decreases.

Table 4.7: Probability Scores

Scale	Probability Scores
Moral-Ethical	0,0026
Personal	0,0007
Social	0,0084
Identity	0,0291
Self Satisfaction	0,0028
Behaviour	0,006
Distribution of Responses	0,0548
TF Ratio	0,0031
Total Scores	0,0002

Graph 4.1 Changes in the Moral-Ethical Self

Moral-Ethical

	Experimental Group
-------	Comparison Group
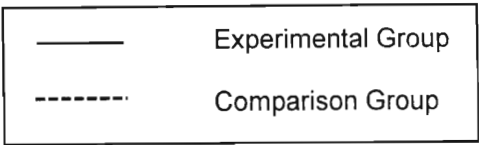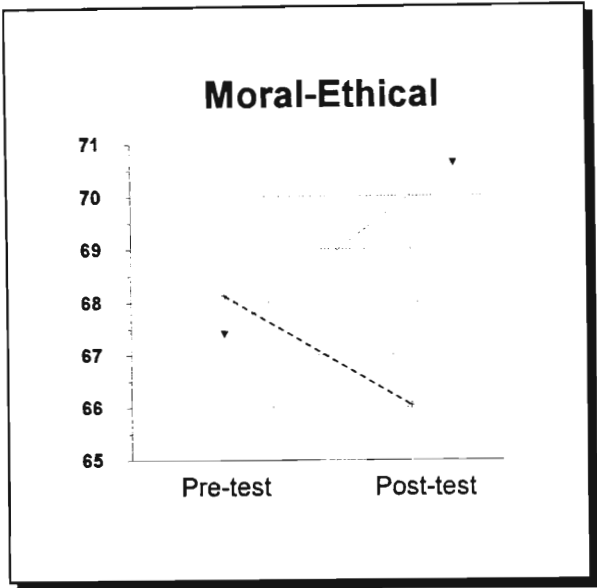
4.3.2.1 Column Scores

The three scores represent Columns B, C and E. The Moral-Ethical (B) score represents the "feelings of being a good or bad person" and examines the moral self worth of the individual. The graph shows that the experimental group's scores rose by 2,64 from 67,40 (SD 8,02) to 70,04 (SD 7,15), while the comparison group's scores dropped by 2,09 from 68,13 (SD 8,62) to 66,04 (SD (9,20).

Graph 4.2 Changes in the Personal Self

Personal

	Experimental Group
-------	Comparison Group
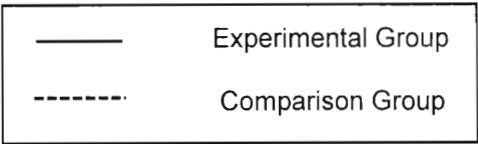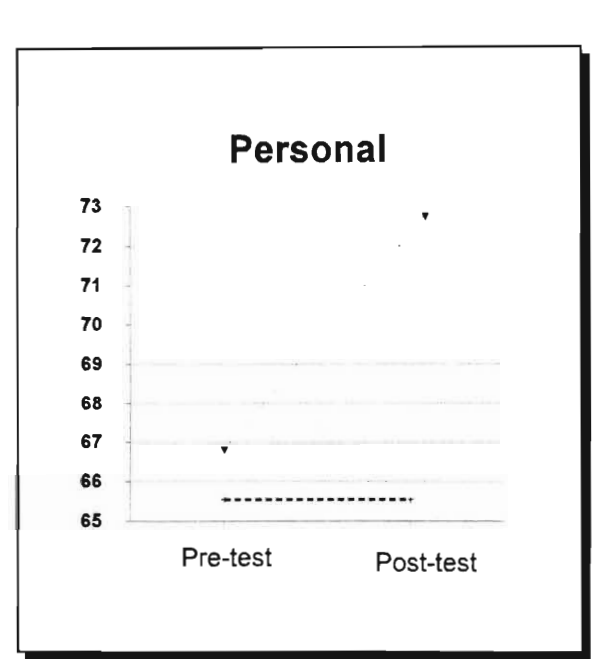
The Personal Self (C) score is a measure of the individual's self worth, and reflects the sense of adequacy of the individual and is a measure of the individual's evaluation of her own personality. Again in the light of this definition, the increase of 5,52 from 66,80 (SD 6,22) to 72,32 (SD 5,54) for the experimental group, as seen on Graph 4,2, is significant. It shows a more positive attitude on the part of the respondents to themselves subsequent to completion of the training course. The comparison group remained the same, at 65,54 (SD 7,59), with a SD on the post test of 9,14.

Graph 4.3 Changes in the Social Self

Social

	Experimental Group
-------	Comparison Group
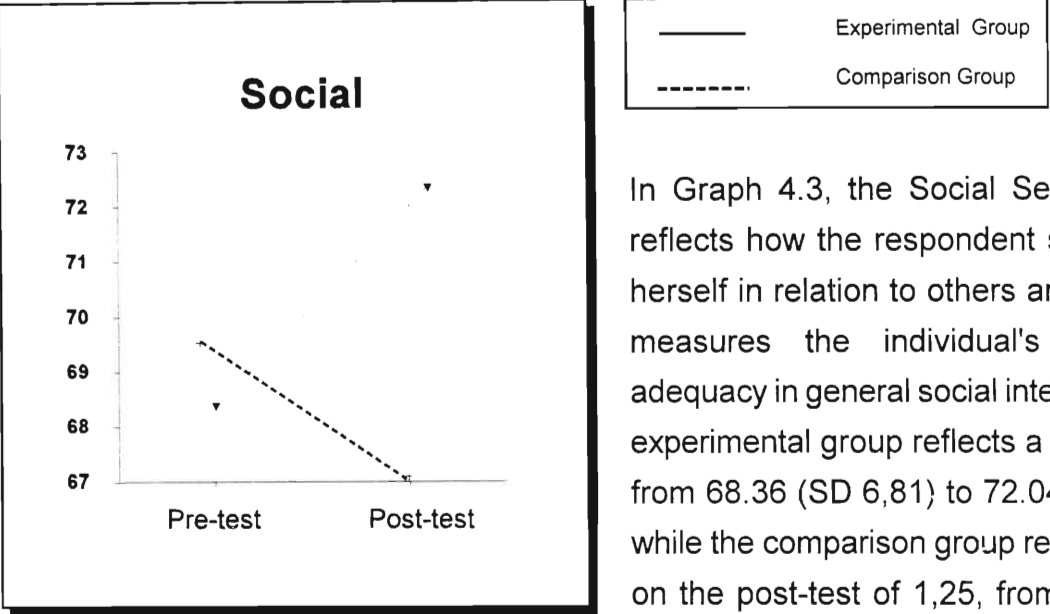
In Graph 4.3, the Social Self (E) score reflects how the respondent sees him or herself in relation to others and therefore measures the individual's sense of adequacy in general social interaction. The experimental group reflects a rise of 3,68, from 68.36 (SD 6,81) to 72.04 (SD 4,90), while the comparison group reflects a drop on the post-test of 1,25, from 69.58 (SD 7,76) to 67.33 (SD 8,70).

Graph 4.4 Changes in Identity

Identity

	Experimental Group
-------	Comparison Group
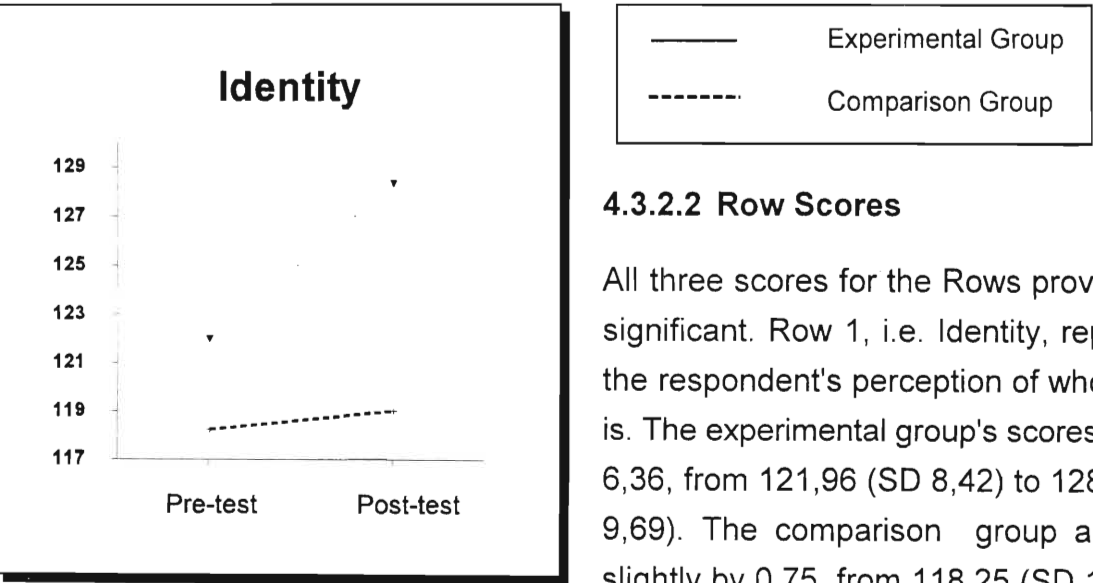
4.3.2.2 Row Scores

All three scores for the Rows proved to be significant. Row 1, i.e. Identity, represents the respondent's perception of who he/she is. The experimental group's scores rose by 6,36, from 121,96 (SD 8,42) to 128,32 (SD 9,69). The comparison group also rose slightly by 0,75, from 118,25 (SD 12,71) to 119 (SD 9,56).(See Graph 4.4.)

55

Graph 4.5 Changes in Self Satisfaction

Self Satisfaction

<table>
<tr><td>114</td></tr>
<tr><td>112</td></tr>
<tr><td>110</td></tr>
<tr><td>108</td></tr>
<tr><td>106</td></tr>
<tr><td>104</td></tr>
<tr><td>102</td></tr>
</table>

Pre-test   Post-test

| —————— | Experimental Group |
| -------- | Comparison Group |
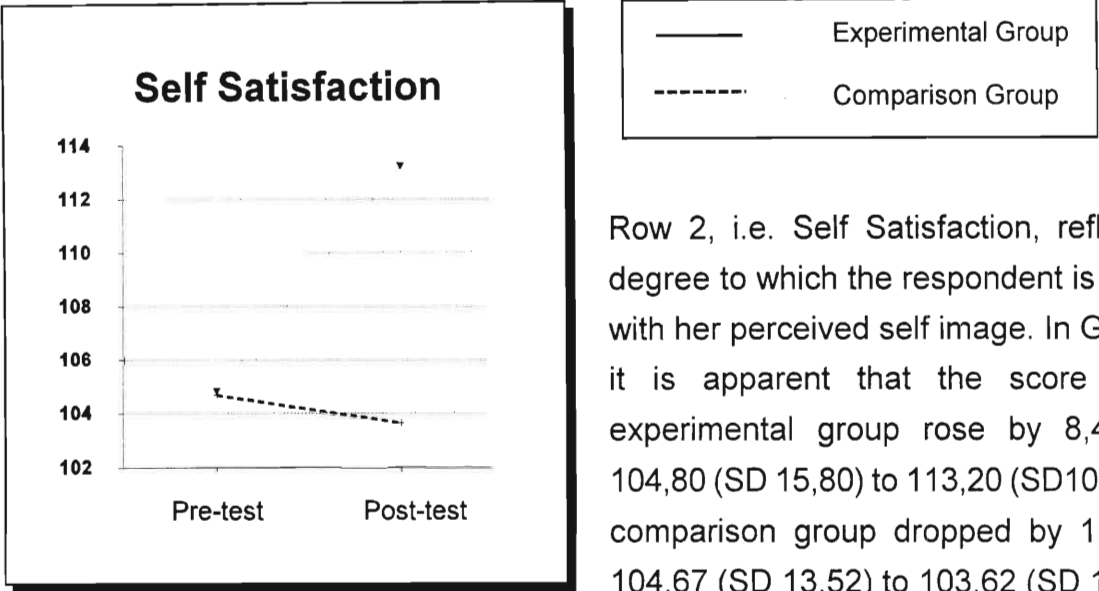
Row 2, i.e. Self Satisfaction, reflects the degree to which the respondent is satisfied with her perceived self image. In Graph 4.5 it is apparent that the score for the experimental group rose by 8,40, from 104,80 (SD 15,80) to 113,20 (SD10,68). The comparison group dropped by 1,05 from 104,67 (SD 13,52) to 103,62 (SD 17,54).

Graph 4.6 Changes in Behaviour

Behaviour

| —————— | Experimental Group |
| -------- | Comparison Group |
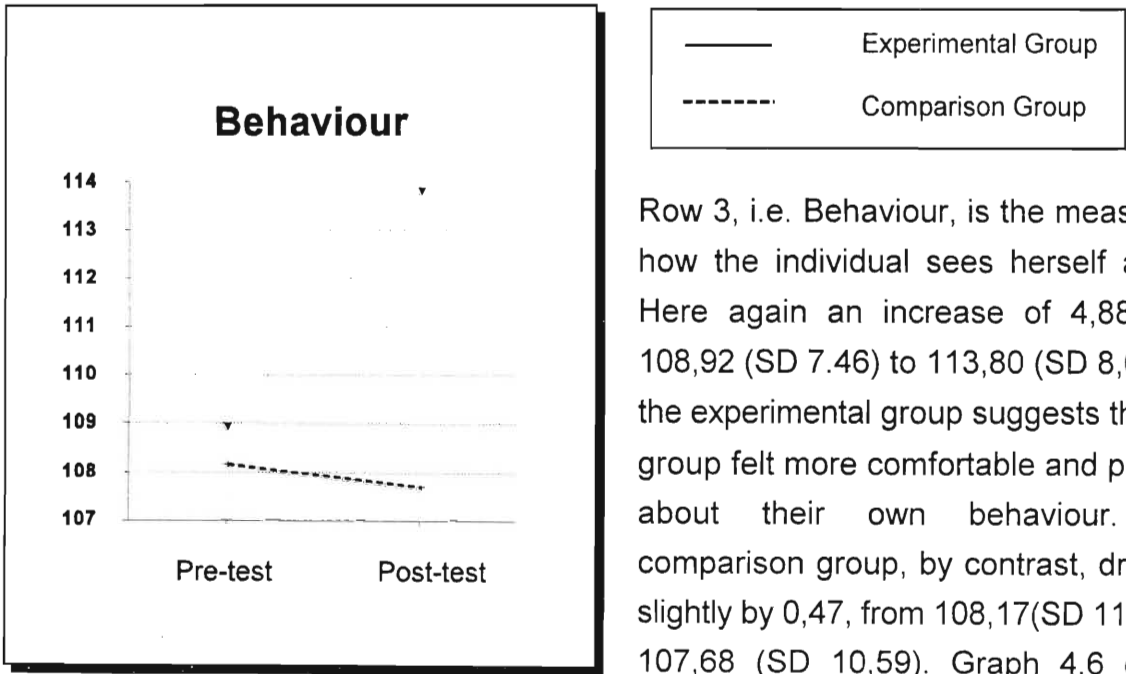
Row 3, i.e. Behaviour, is the measure of how the individual sees herself acting. Here again an increase of 4,88 from 108,92 (SD 7.46) to 113,80 (SD 8,65) for the experimental group suggests that the group felt more comfortable and positive about their own behaviour. The comparison group, by contrast, dropped slightly by 0,47, from 108,17(SD 11,05) to 107,68 (SD 10,59). Graph 4.6 clearly shows the substantial gains made by the experimental group.

Graph 4.7 Changes in the Distribution of Responses

———	Experimental Group
- - - - - -	Comparison Group
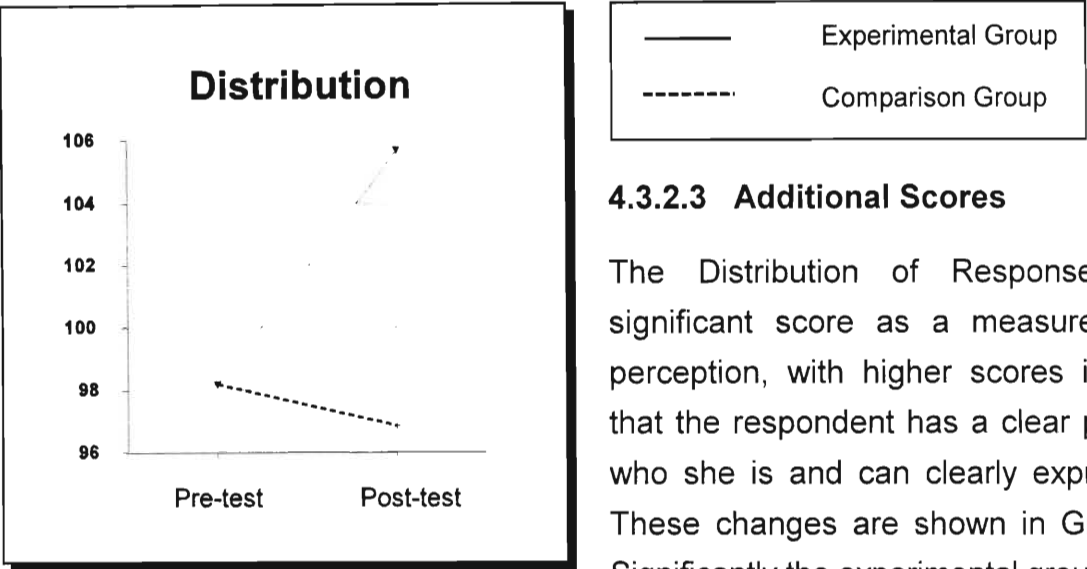
4.3.2.3 Additional Scores

The Distribution of Responses is a significant score as a measure of self perception, with higher scores indicating that the respondent has a clear picture of who she is and can clearly express this. These changes are shown in Graph 4.7. Significantly the experimental group rose by 7,48 from 98,16 (SD 14,13) to 105,64 (SD 19,39), This would suggest that one of the aims of the programme, namely to increase the degree of self awareness of the respondents was achieved. The experimental group dropped slightly by 1,34 from 98,17 (SD 19,57) to 96,83 (SD 18,76).

Graph 4.8 Changes in the True/False Ratios

———	Experimental Group
- - - - - -	Comparison Group
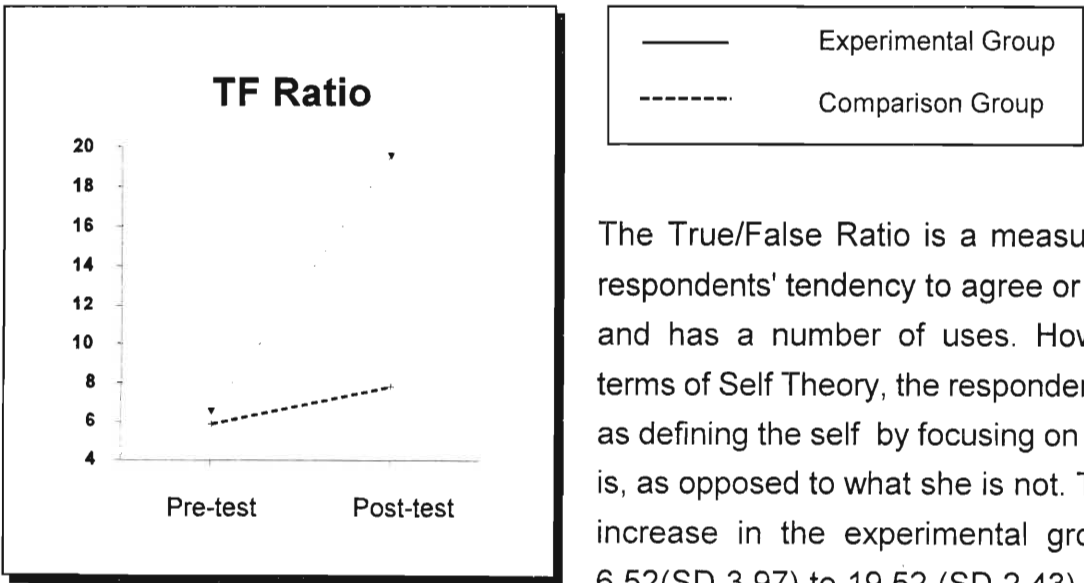
The True/False Ratio is a measure of the respondents' tendency to agree or disagree and has a number of uses. However, in terms of Self Theory, the respondent is seen as defining the self by focusing on what she is, as opposed to what she is not. The large increase in the experimental group from 6,52(SD 3,97) to 19,52 (SD 2,43) is shown on Graph 4. below. This 13 point increase is seen as significant. The comparison group showed a small increase, of 1,93 from 5,87 (SD 3,74) to 7,80 (SD 6,97).

Graph 4.9 Changes in the Total Score

——————	Experimental Group
- - - - - - -	Comparison Group
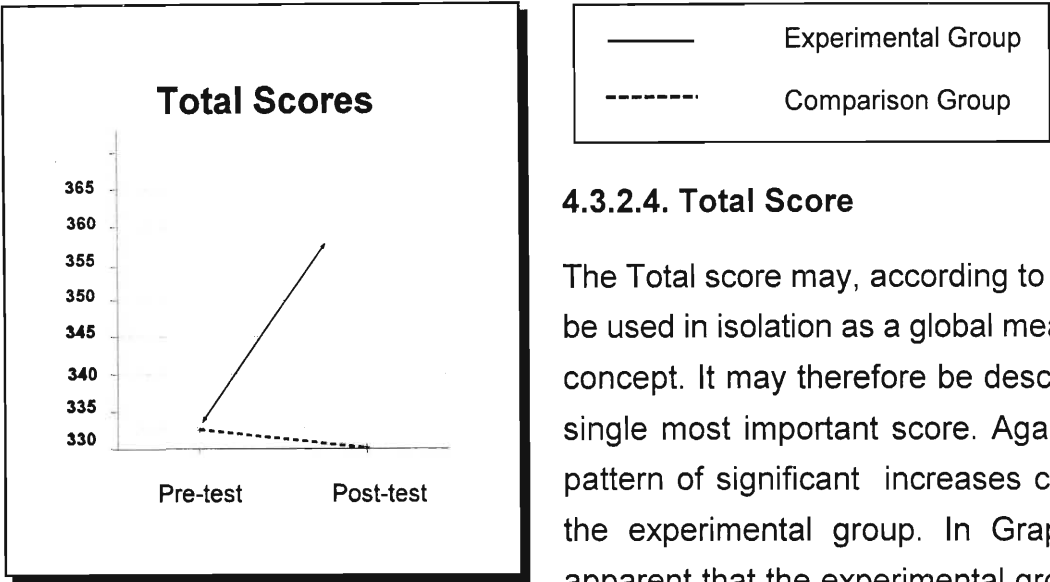
4.3.2.4. Total Score

The Total score may, according to the manual, be used in isolation as a global measure of self concept. It may therefore be described as the single most important score. Again the same pattern of significant increases continued for the experimental group. In Graph 4.9 it is apparent that the experimental group's scores increased by 19,64 points from 335,68 (SD 26,72) to 355,32 (SD 22,05). The comparison group remained almost static with scores of 331,08 (SD 34,69) on the pre-test and 330,25 (SD 34,69) on the post-test, representing a drop of 0,83.

4.4   SURVEY OF PARTICIPANTS' OPINIONS

As part of the assessment all 25 participants in the experimental group completed a short questionnaire in which they were asked to comment on the training course they had just completed. It was hoped that these subjective responses would support or clarify the findings of the TSCS.

4.4.1 Closed-Ended Questions

The diagram overleaf lists the responses to the first ten questions on the questionnaire (See Appendix G).

Table 4.8   Response Scores to Closed-Ended Questions

Questions	Yes	Unsure	No
1. I found this course interesting.	25	Nil	Nil
2. I feel more able to listen to my friends when they are in trouble.	25	Nil	Nil
3. I feel more confident in social situations.	16	Nil	9
4. I have got to know girls from other classes.	24	Nil	1
5. There was a friendly atmosphere amongst the group.	24	Nil	1
6. I have used the problem solving model to solve my own problems.	16	1	8
7. I am getting on better with my teachers.	10	Nil	15
8. I am trying to be a better role model.	25	Nil	Nil
9. I got to know learners of other races.	24	Nil	1
10. I think I am better at helping people.	20	Nil	5

An analysis of the data shows that the respondents appeared to feel quite strongly that they had gained certain skills, namely numbers 2 and 10 which gained 100% and 80% positive responses respectively, and would suggest that the respondents had gained a greater sense of personal adequacy. This seems to correlate with the TSCS for Personal Self. Questions 3, 4, 5 and 9 would appear to fall under the sphere of Social Self in the TSCS, measuring the individual's sense of adequacy in dealing with others in social situations. Again the learners' responses would appear to support the results of the TSCS. Questions 4, 5 and 9 gaining 96% positive responses and Question 3 gaining 64% positive responses.

Question 8 referred to the definition of 'a role model' as established by the group, namely someone honest, responsible and caring. This question reflects the Moral-Ethical self as defined by the TSCS and the desire by the respondents to behave in a more ethical manner.

Question 6 which reflects changes in behaviour received a positive score of 64% which was lower than the other positive scores. This could suggest that behaviour may take

longer to reflect really significant gains, or that an inadequate amount of time was spent on this aspect of the programme.

Question 7, dealing with the very specific situation of the classroom received the lowest positive score of 40%. This may be because teachers were not informed that these learners were participating in the training course and were slow to respond to changes in the learners. This was done purposely so that the teachers would not be influenced in their behaviour towards the learners. The lower positive score may relate to learners not changing their behaviours in class, or may relate to academic difficulties which were not addressed in this course. It's possible that such a course may enable some of the participants to communicate differently with teachers or to be more empathic to the teachers' position, and this may have influenced this particular response.

4.4.2   Open-Ended Questions

The analysis of the open-ended questions proved to be a lengthy process. Firstly all 25 responses were considered. Then common statements were listed and each questionnaire was assessed to see if the responses fell into the existing categories. If they did not, new response categories were created. After the initial assessment a few days were allowed to elapse and then the questions were considered again.

Question 11, 'Has this course lived up to your expectations?' resulted in some interesting responses. The table 4.9 overleaf lists the responses and the number of learners who identified with each response. Some learners listed a number of responses to the question.

Table 4.9   Response Scores on Open-Ended Question

Response Categories	Number of Responses
1. Feel able to help others.	15
2. Learned to communicate better.	4
3. Met new people/had fun/made friends.	7
4. Felt they were more understanding.	6
5. Cope better in social situations.	3
6. Doing better at school.	1
7. Have learned to listen more carefully.	7
8. Have learned important life skills.	2
9. Coping better with own problems.	5
10. Communicating more with other races.	3
11. Have learned to identify problems and solve them.	3
12. Feel more confident.	3
13. Get along better with people.	1
14. Communicating more with other races.	3
15. Have learned to identify problems and solve them.	3
16. Feel more confident.	3
17. Get along better with people.	1
18. Have improved myself.	2
19. Understand self better.	3
20. Learned to look at different views of life.	1
21. Learned to work as part of a group.	3

To encourage learners to answer as frankly as possible, they were not asked to supply their names. It is apparent that many respondents identified differing issues as

important to them.

Two responses are worth identifying as they are comprehensive responses. The one notable quote was,
"Yes, it has been very beneficial for me because I feel I am now able to make a difference in people's lives. I can listen and understand in a way that satisfies me."
The second quote was,
"Yes, I have managed to cope in social situations better. I try to be a good role model and I haven't got into so much trouble at school this term."

Question 12 dealt with requests for improving the course. Many learners did not suggest any changes. However the following suggestions were made. (See Table 4.10).

Table 4.10: Suggestions

Suggestions	No of Responses
1. More integration across race and friendship groups.	2
2. More use of present peer counsellors in the training.	5
3. More practical exercises.	4
4. Talks by psychologists and grade 12 peer counsellors.	2
5. Training should be available to the younger girls.	4

The suggestions made in Table 4.10 will be included in future programmes. Efforts will be made to include peer counsellors in the training of future peer counsellors. Also social workers and psychologists have expressed a willingness to talk with the peer counsellors on a variety of matters, such as drug abuse, suicide, adolescent sexuality. More practical exercises will be included. This may necessitate lengthening the programme by two hours. As yet a decision has not been made on offering the course to younger girls.

4.5   CONCLUSION

Both the results of the TSCS and the questionnaire suggest that the training course assisted in increasing the self concept of the participants. The results will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION
and
RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1   INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the researcher considers the results of the study and attempts an analysis and assessment in terms of the research goals. The success of the study is considered, together with the research limitations encountered. Recommendations for future research are discussed.

5.2   MEASURING THE CHANGES

An analysis of the results of the TSCS, supported by the findings in the questionnaire showed that change in the participants' measured self concept had indeed taken place.

5.2.1   Quantitive Assessment of Changes

In this study reference has been made to research using the TSCS, both locally and internationally   (Anthony,1975;   Collins,1972;   Hahn   &   LeCapitaine,1990; Hlongwane,1989; McKay,1995; Van den Heetkamp, 1979).   Also, extensive research has been undertaken into various aspects of the TSCS.   In Chapter Three, details were given of the standardization of norms, the validity, the reliability, internal consistency and test-retest reliability, all of which have been relatively favourable. Furthermore a very thorough reliability analysis was undertaken in this study, and the reliability coefficients were established for all the participants as a group, by language grouping and finally for the respective experimental and comparison groups. These aspects have helped to establish the credibility of the TSCS as a measure of self concept in this study.

To meet the objectives of this study, the three row scores, namely Identity, Self Satisfaction and Behaviour, as well as three of the column scores, Moral-Ethical, Personal and Social; the two additional scales and the Total Score were considered. The researcher was aware that with the many statistics generated in a study of this nature, some may be seen as occurring purely by chance.

In the light of the above information, it was felt that the nine TSCS scores that have been analysed in this study were representative of both general and specific areas of the self concept. The scores analysed clearly reflect the multi-factor approach considered essential by self theorists and researchers in giving an accurate assessment of the self concept. West, Fish and Stevens (1980, p.195) point out that "the evidence is overwhelming" that individuals may have a high self concept in one area and a low self concept in another. Many variations exist of the breakdown of the self concept into specific, independent areas.

Roid and Fitts,1991, have created a complex model by which the self concept is broken down into five specific areas, the columns, namely Physical, Moral-Ethical, Personal, Family, Social, while the row scores represent the internal frame of reference by which the self makes an assessment of what he/she is, how satisfied the individual is, and what he/she decides to do.

The graphic representations of each score show that change did occur. These change scores on the Mann-Whitney U Test could be seen as representing the interaction on a full two-way ANOVA, with the interaction shown in the two lines going in different directions. Although some of the changes were small, they reflect a consistent trend in the experimental group towards greater self awareness and a more positive view of self as measured by the TSCS. The mean global self concept score, represented by the Total Score, showed a gain of 19,64 points (significance at the 0,0002 level) whilst the comparison group showed little change. The additional scores, represented by the scales for Distribution of Responses and True/False Ratios also reflect an increase in participants' self knowledge. The Distribution of Responses scores is a measure of self perception and reflects the ability to have a definite picture of the self. True/False Ratios shows an increase in the ability to define the self, this has been identified as an important aspect of the self concept.

Collins (1972), in a similar study, which used the TSCS as a measure of self concept before and after a five week self-improvement course, established a similar trend on the mean scores for the experimental group. She describes the results as indicating a "significant improvement in self-concepts" of the participants (p.85). In the comparison group in this study, variations appeared to be more random with small differences occurring. In the comparison group six scores dropped, with one staying the same and two increasing slightly. A study of the graphs in Chapter 4 shows these changes very

clearly. The experimental groups' changes become meaningful in the light of studies which show that the self concept may be fairly stable from late adolescence (Witteland, 1970).

The findings in this study are supported by the results of the responses to the ten closed-ended questions in the questionnaire. All participants answered in the affirmative to question 2 , "I feel more able to listen to my friends when they are in trouble". This would imply that they were more confident of their interpersonal skills in this specific area and had gained some satisfaction from their abilities. Question 8, "I am trying to be a better role model" also gained a 100% affirmative response, which seems to suggest that the participants were motivated to improve themselves.

Lawrence(1996), points out that the self concept is a motivator and that individuals are inclined to behave in ways consistent with their self concept. That the participants were motivated to change their behaviour to what was considered to be consistent with good role models implies that their self concept had improved. Questions 4, 5, and 9 dealt with interaction within the group and each gained 24 affirmative responses. As interaction with peers has been shown to be very important in adolescence, these scores are seen as a very positive achievement.

Question 7, "I am getting on better with my teachers", may appear to have gained a poor affirmative response, with a total of 10 responses. However, many of the experimental group had experienced disciplinary problems within the school environment prior to this study. Also teachers were not formally notified of the programme. These two points need to be noted when considering this particular item.

5.2.2 Open-Ended Questions

Responses to the two open-ended questions enabled the researcher to assess changes that occurred based on the expectations expressed by the participants at the beginning of the course and gave a more subjective insight into their responses to the programme.

The responses to the first open-ended question showed what learners considered most important in the course. It appeared that in the minds of the participants the course had met its objectives. In other words, participants felt they were able to help their peers (15 responses), and that they were more understanding (6 responses) and were able to

listen more carefully (7 responses). Research has proved that the acquisition of skills can lead to an improved self concept (Lawrence, 1996). Therefore the interpersonal skills gained by these learners should assist in improving their self concept.

Of the 17 statements listed, 10 clearly dealt with their interaction with others in social situations. This emphasis on social interaction would uphold findings of researchers who emphasise the importance of the peer group during adolescence (Burns, 1979). It also shows that one of the aims of the study, namely to improve the interpersonal helping skills of the participants, was met. An interesting point was the emphasis that participants placed on the purely social aspect, reflected in comments such as, "I met new people", "I made friends" and "I had fun". This was an area that had not been considered by the researcher as an important feature when planning the programme.

The second open-ended question dealt with suggestions for improving the course and some have been incorporated into the recommendations for further research. An interesting suggestion was that of involving present peer counsellors more often in the training course.

5.2.3 Promotion of the Counselling and Guidance Programme

A secondary aim of this study was to try to disseminate information about counselling and guidance in the school environment. In all, 80 of the 203 Grade 11 learners voluntarily completed this course during the academic year in question. Interest in the programme was spread by word of mouth. It can therefore be assumed that the original group, who completed the course and who formed the experimental group of this study, must have commented positively to their peers for it to have generated the interest that occurred. These learners achieved a greater knowledge not only of the counselling process, but also of themselves and of each other in the social interaction they enjoyed. Researchers have identified the adolescent's need for self knowledge and interest in the peer group as important characteristics of adolescence. This latter aspect has been aptly described by Steinberg and Meyer (in Louw and Edwards, 1997) as the tendency of adolescents to be preoccupied with their peer group. It would appear that the programme was successful in meeting the needs of the participants in this area.

A raised awareness of the counselling process was seen as essential so as to dispose

of negative myths about the counselling and guidance programme in the school. It was hoped that this programme would help to emphasise the developmental process of counselling and guidance in the school environment. In terms of Erikson's theory, it could be seen as assisting learners in their search for self understanding and identity. In phenomenological terms the increased self knowledge and social interaction in the group setting would assist in the assimilation of self knowledge into an integrated self concept.

5.2.4   Creating a Training Programme

Because the study was established in its natural setting, namely the school environment, and has formed an integral part of the existing, ongoing peer counselling programme, it was seen as having greater validity than a 'one off' research study could have established. A programme outline has been created that may form the framework for future training programmes. This has also made possible greater consistency of information given to the various groups who took part in the wider project. It includes aspects which are standard to most similar programmes in the United States and Canada (Anthony,1975; Bowman,1986; Bowman & Myrick,1980; Lynn,1986; Mitchum,1983; Pyle,1977; Robinson, Morrow, Kigin & Lindeman, 1991). For example, topics covered included aspects such as the development of careful listening and responding skills, increasing self awareness, the development of sensitivity and empathy, problem solving techniques and ethics. Attempts were made to increase the credibility of the programme by encouraging participants to consider local, school-based situations for role play situations. This aspect is seen as essential in the light of the present lack of suitable local material.

The programme is also seen as fulfilling a need for a more affective component in the school curriculum. This need has been pinpointed by a number of researchers, both locally and internationally (Anthony,1975; Burkhalter,1995; Janks,1993; Ntlhe,1995; Purkey & Novak,1996; Rogers & Freiberg,1994). Teachers need to become more aware of simple, practical ways of making school situations 'inviting' for learners (Purkey and Novak, 1996; Rogers & Freiberg,1994). However the cognitive aspect of the programme cannot be underestimated. Damon & Hart (1987), in their research into self understanding, emphasise the importance of how the self is understood. This whole

programme tried to assist participants in understanding themselves, as well as others. Many of the comments made by participants' about their efforts to apply what they had learned to situations outside the group sessions, would suggest that the programme had provoked much thought.

5.3   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are certain important limitations inherent in a study of this nature. These include the abstract nature of the self concept, problems of measurement, experimental design, sampling and the length of time of the actual training programme. Each of these aspects will be considered in detail.

5.3.1   The Self Concept

The self concept is an abstraction which requires self report if change in it is to be measured. This means that observable behaviour which may be influenced by the self concept may also be the result of many other influences and is not an adequate source of measurement. This was discussed in Chapter 2.4 and consideration must be given to the problems related to this factor. A major problem cited is that one may be measuring something other than the self concept. Coopersmith (1967), insists that researchers are actually measuring self esteem, that is the individual's assessment of self against the aspirations for the self. Contradictory evidence exists about the effectiveness of short term interventions on the self concept. Research studies by Anthony (1975) and Hahn and LeCapitaine (1990), are among a number that have used the TSCS to measure changes in the self concept, and have found no statistically significant changes after a short programme. It must be noted that the latter researchers did find improvements in later measurements that were made of the self concepts of those participants who went on to become peer counsellors.

With regard to the study described in this dissertation, it must be noted that opportunities to discuss more personal and affective material abounded. Thus, the change in scores might not reflect a change in the self concept per se, but rather a change in recognition of aspects about the self. However, consideration of Lawrence's model (p.14) would include such cognitive changes under the umbrella term 'self concept'.

5.3.2 Measurement through Self Reports

As has already been mentioned self reports do create problems, although the TSCS was considered the most suitable measure available. The researcher had to consider a number of limitations in this respect. The first was whether or not learners actually reflected their true perceptions of themselves or whether their responses were what they believed would be acceptable to the researcher as a member of the school's staff. Every effort was made to reassure learners that individual scores would remain confidential and that test scores would only be represented as group means. Without a much more sophisticated programme of testing, including individual interviews, a more accurate assessment of the self concept could not be ascertained. It would be of interest to consider using alternative tests, for example ones similar to that used by Street (1981), which measured the unconscious self concept. Unfortunately problems may arise in establishing the validity of tests of this nature in the South African context as they do not appear to be in general use.

A second important point to be considered would be the degree of self knowledge upon which participants could draw. Participants with poor insight would only be able to give a limited picture of themselves. If, in terms of self theorists, such as James and Mead, the self concept results from self awareness based on social interaction, the individual may experience a poor self concept or an inflated self concept dependant on the social interaction experienced and those significant others by whom the self is measured.

While the row and column mean scores from the TSCS were considered representative of the measured changes, it was considered unfortunate that the Self Criticism scores fell just outside the 0.05% level of significance. This test measures the degree of defensiveness present and could have been a useful measure of the reliability of the other scores. If the Self Criticism scores had been at the 0.05% level of significance it would have reinforced the reliability of the other tests. However, as it was only slightly outside the accepted level of significance, it does indicate the tendency towards reliability.

5.3.3 Sampling

The experimental group sample was too small to be truly representative and was further limited as it was situated at one school. Also, the sample was self selected and

therefore it could not be considered as truly representative of the school population. Learners who volunteered expressed the desire to help others and to improve themselves. This may suggest that they had a strong need for acceptance within the school structure, especially as perceived social success within the school might be attached to belonging to a group. Secondly, altruism and emphasis on social interaction within the peer group are characteristics of adolescence and may have influenced learners to participate. A third possible explanation for involvement in the group might have been that peer counsellors had acquired status amongst the learners. This could have exercised a strong influence on the responses to the whole course.

Another important consideration was that the comparison sample, for logistical purposes, could not be totally voluntary, although learners were used to doing tests as part of the counselling and guidance programme, and they did not express any reluctance.

The desire of the participants to become peer counsellors and to initiate change in their lives may also have caused them to unconsciously reflect the enthusiasm of the researcher in their responses and may have influenced them to respond positively.

5.3.4   Research Design

For a more sophisticated assessment of the results it would be necessary to have established a pre-test post-test triadic design, with a third group within the school that met on exactly the same basis as the experimental group, but did not do the course. It would then be possible to assess the effects of the regular attention that they received as opposed to the course content of the experimental group. In this particular study it was felt that due to the intense interest generated in the course, it would be difficult having one group undergoing a different programme as learners would compare notes and would realise that they were embarking on something different. Also it would be unethical to form such a third group without informing the parents and learners that it could not lead to selection as a peer counsellor, unless the programme undertaken with the experimental group was offered later to the control group. Resources are limited in schools, and undertaking such an ambitious project was not possible given the work commitments of this researcher. Consideration also has to be given to more practical matters, some learners experienced difficulties staying later in the afternoon.

5.3.5   Length of the Programme

The course was eight hours long, consisting of a one hour session per week for eight weeks. This was a very short period of time to expect any important changes to occur, or for any change to be internalised, when consideration is given to the conservative nature of the self concept. At best the research suggests a positive inclination towards improvement.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

A number of areas for further research are apparent. These include the following:

- That a further study be undertaken in 1999 to measure the development of the self concept of the peer counsellors chosen from this original study. Also that those participants who are not selected as peer counsellors be tested as well. This would help to establish if changes were of a more permanent kind.

- That further research be instituted to evaluate the effect of the peer counselling project on not only the peer counsellors, but also the learners who have used the system and to assess its effect within the school environment. Problems of confidentiality would have to be carefully investigated in such a study.

- A rich body of knowledge in the USA and Canada has given rise to numerous case studies. Similar projects in South Africa would help to disseminate information amongst researchers and practitioners in this country. Teachers and school counsellors should be encouraged to keep records of similar projects.

Other areas of development could include the following:

- That efforts be made to formalise a purely South African programme for training high school peer counsellors, using local incidents for role play situations and involving existing peer counsellors in training programmes.

- That subject teachers be exposed to practical suggestions on how to create a warm, caring atmosphere in their class rooms, using in-service training programmes.

5.5   CONCLUSION

While the researcher is aware that participants in the experimental group may have been unconsciously influenced by their desire to please the researcher or to meet the aims of the study as they perceived them, the following unsolicited article written by a participant for the school newspaper, epitomises what the course tried to do:

> The peer counselling course is a learning experience not to be missed. It did a lot more for us than show us how to counsel peers. Having attended the course, I realise that all the skills it gave us for successful interaction with all people in all spheres of life.
>
> We learnt how to listen to and help people by using the right body language, facial expressions and much more. If the art of listening as opposed to hearing was cultivated by more people, the world would be rid of a great deal of conflict, hurt and misunderstanding. If every girl at GHS could learn from this course, what a wonderful atmosphere would prevail!
>
> (Name Withheld)

In his writings in 1977, Rogers identifies a successful group as one which elicits positive comments and discussion from its participants. The unsolicited response above and other similar comments from participants, as well as the general prolonged interest amongst staff and learners assisted in establishing the success of the programme. This, combined with the good participation in the course over the eight week period of time, helped to establish it as a necessary feature of the peer counselling programme.

For a peer counselling programme to be effective it needs to from part of a whole school programme of co-operation and social concern. Watkins (1994) points out that a whole school approach to guidance and counselling has to combine the aspect of specialist support from teachers trained in the field of guidance and counselling and general broad support structures fulfilled by all academic staff. The researcher feels that with the advent of student-based support initiatives like peer counselling programmes, even broader, more effective systems can be created.

Conceptually the peer counselling programme forms part of a wider policy of caring and social responsibility within the social environment of the school.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION

In a rapidly changing society such as that in South Africa, which is trying to establish itself along democratic principles, schools need to search for creative ways to encourage positive involvement by participants in the educational process.

Peer counselling implies such a democratic model. Many researchers have established the importance of encouraging school involvement. Locally, Ntlhe (1995), in his study on self concept and dropout rates in black schools, notes that a lack of involvement in school activities may lead to withdrawal and alienation from school life.

Peer counselling is a form of involvement and participative management, by students, for students, establishing student leadership outside the usual more political models and is based in the concept of social responsibility. It represents an ideal where relationships in the school can be based on caring and fairness and not purely on power. In this study reference has been made to much research that has shown that students not only enthusiastically and willingly devote long hours to helping their peers, but that they are highly effective. In the process they make gains in personal growth. It is a model that implies the need for trust and is based on the belief that learners can make positive contributions to the school environment.

The emphasis in this study has been on the development of the self concept of the learner undergoing a peer counsellor training programme. Peer counselling programmes are seen as a vehicle leading to better mental health for both peer counsellor and client, and leading to a greater sense of involvement in the school by both. Internationally, the influence of the self concept on achievement in many different spheres of life has been researched in great detail. Local research has also established the importance of the self concept in the South African educational setting and emphasised the need for practical ways of bringing that knowledge into the school environment. There is little doubt that a good self concept has many positive spin offs and research would suggest that a more affective element should be introduced into the often content-driven curriculum of schools. Schools often concentrate on academic or sporting skills and encourage competition. Peer counselling programmes, by recognizing and encouraging qualities such as kindness, caring and sensitivity to others, broadens the spectrum of activities which can gain recognition in the school environment. These programmes may also help to establish a sense of community. For the individual who becomes a peer

counsellor, it serves as an alternative way of gaining recognition and acceptance within the school system.

An effective peer counselling programme needs to form part of a whole school policy of co-operation and social concern. Educators and learners need to be encouraged to gain interpersonal skills to support and deal with problems in their own environment instead of handing over responsibility to specialists. The sense of community that such a whole school policy can create would supply a supportive environment for learners experiencing the stressors of economic and social change. Such a policy is an imperative in South African society, where specialist helping facilities supplied by psychologists, social workers and health care workers are out of the reach of many, either because of a lack of funds or a lack of personnel.

For the school counsellor there is a need for a paradigm shift from the traditional role, to one where the school counsellor fulfils a more complex one, developing very different skills. Firstly, organisational and managerial skills have to be developed to run an effective whole school programme. Secondly the school counsellor has to become a facilitator to assist others in developing new skills. In the peer counselling programme, which forms the basis of this study, this behavioural change that the researcher had to undergo, became a significant experiential aspect of the study. Rogers (1977a) emphasises the importance of trust in the facilitator and this is an important consideration for undertaking such programmes. This also implies trust in the group participants to take responsibility for their own well being and that of their peers.

Certain practical ways have to be found to differentiate the school counsellor from the role of member of the academic staff of the school to run an effective peer counselling programme. These were very simple, but effective, they involved repositioning the school counsellor in the eyes of the learners. The facilitator cannot hold the position of expert, but must become actively involved in the process of discovery with the group, taking part in group exercises and discussions where feasible. Also the school counsellor needs to model the interpersonal skills to which the group are exposed. However, care must be taken not to dominate or coerce group members, actively encouraging the group to work on democratic principles.

At a time when the South African education system is in crisis, educators and learners have to unite to find new, creative and financially viable methods of handling the problems that beset adolescents in our society. Peer counselling programmes may be one such way, where co-operation and collaboration may result in more positive

outcomes and create more caring school environments.

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APPENDIX A

THE INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

TRAINING PROGRAMME

Introduction

The material in this training programme was kept simple. No theoretical concepts were discussed, not was any specialist terminology used. This was done deliberately and learners were encouraged to become fully involved in the practical nature of the course. The programme is seen as a working document.

Ice-Breaker Exercises

These exercises were used to encourage learners to interact in the group situation, and to be less inhibited. They were also useful in conveying specific concepts. Where possible the researcher joined in these activities. Many of these exercises have been used in counselling and guidance situations. The ice- breaker exercises are listed below.

i)   'Pass the Pig'

The aim of this exercise was to introduce the learners to each other. The group sat in a large circle on the carpet and a pink soft toy pig was thrown at random from learner to learner. When a learner caught the pig, she had to tell the group briefly about herself. The researcher started the exercise, by introducing herself.

ii)   The Feelings Game

The aim of this exercise was to encourage learners to recognise the feelings expressed by individuals through body language and facial expressions. The researcher did the exercise first. The group sat in a semi-circle and the researcher mimed an incident to depict the feeling, 'Sadness'. The members of the group were given instructions to call out the feeling they thought was being depicted. The researcher then asked for volunteers to mime a feeling. Five learners each mimed the following feelings: happiness, excitement, boredom, fear and anger. The group enthusiastically shouted out their suggestions when they thought they had recognised the feelings.

iii)   The Blind Game

Learners chose a partner and then took it in turns to be blindfolded and to be led around. Again the exercise generated much excited discussion and learners were encouraged to explain how they felt when blindfolded.

iv)   Trust Games

The learners formed groups of three. One group had to have four members. One member of the group had to make herself stiff, while the other members caught her as she swayed back and forth. Learners were carefully instructed not to allow their partners to fall. Groups then discussed how they felt when doing the exercise.

v)   Broken Telephone

The group sat in a large circle. The researcher gave a message to one of the learners, it was then whispered to each consecutive group member. The final message was then repeated aloud, to the amusement of the group. The learners quickly saw the link to problems of gossip in the school environment.

vi)   The Garden Party

Learners were encouraged to find a partner. They then had to imagine they were at a formal garden party and they had to introduce their partner to other couples at the party. They were encouraged to create a personality for themselves.

vii)   The Clock Face Appointment Exercise

Learners were given a photostatted clock face. They had to mingle and obtain appointments with other learners. Learners who had filled their clock with appointments were encouraged to try to help others fill their clocks.

viii)   The Tea Party

The group were given biscuits and cooldrink as this was their last session, and had to imagine they were at a rather formal tea party. They had to introduce themselves to other members of the group and tell them individually about their own experiences on the programme.

Course Content

As was mentioned before, *the first session* was somewhat longer by half an hour, to accommodate the TSCS and biographical questionnaire.

Two peer counsellors were asked to explain what was involved in being a peer

counsellor. They explained what their duties were, how they worked, both doing duty at tea time and lunch time, and how they approached learners who were having difficulties in the school environment. They mentioned the referral system and the system of regular meetings they held to discuss issues that had arisen. They also enthusiastically expressed their pleasure in having made new friends.

The *second session* was aimed at encouraging the participants to become more sensitive to their own feelings and those of others around them. This was again done in such a manner as to elicit the responses from the participants, rather than to give them information. Participants were divided into groups of five and had to tell the group about a significant incident in their lives during the two previous weeks at school. Once each member had had a chance to speak, the group was encouraged to discuss each incident, thinking about the feelings that underpinned the actions of the individuals. A brainstorming session followed during which learners had to think of every way individuals express their feelings. All groups recognised that sometimes it was difficult to recognise the feelings underpinning behaviour. The groups then tried to consider appropriate, sensitive responses to various emotions.

The *third session* concentrated on listening skills. The learners were asked to consider what was involved in listening. Learners volunteered their ideas. Mention was made of non-verbal listening cues. Some learners mentioned the importance of body language, such as eye contact, facial expression and posture. The researcher prompted the participants by encouraging them to consider how they felt, for example, when someone they were speaking to looked elsewhere and appeared not to be paying attention. The examples of non-verbal cues were written on the whiteboard. Learners were then encouraged to try out their listening skills on a new partner with whom they had not worked before. Firstly, speaking about their weekend and then, again with a new partner, speaking about a problem they had experienced.

The *fourth session* generated much laughter and the participants responded enthusiastically. They were invited to consider whether words were necessary to express support when listening to someone. They discussed this in their groups and then tried it out on a partner. They were asked to tell each other about an embarrassing experience. The pairs were then asked to share their findings with the whole group. The researcher then spoke to the group about verbal responses, namely, open-ended questions, summarising and reflection of feelings. Again learners worked in pairs and tried to use the verbal reponses. This exercise was further broken down. They were encouraged to try each verbal reponse individually.

The *fifth session* consisted of a brainstorming session. They were asked to think about the kind of problems experienced by learners who attended the school. One of the learners offered to write these specific examples up on the whiteboard. The examples included academic problems, relationship problems, rape etc. Problems mentioned ranged from social, emotional, physical, academic and moral or religious in nature. The researcher encouraged learners to group the problems and to see how one problem might influence and cause other problems. The groups then each took a group of problems, eg. academic problems, and tried to find one common problem for group discussion. They were encouraged to consider the emotions and feelings of the person involved and to consider action that could be taken to alleviate the situation. All groups were asked to write down the steps they considered to solve the problem that was discussed. The groups then had a feedback session. Each group was invited to explain what steps they had considered in dealing with the problem situation. A representative of each group wrote these on the whiteboard. A group discussion followed and a four-point problem-solving model was created. The points were as follows:

* Listen carefully and try to understand the problem

* Try to summarise or define the problem/problems

* If there are a number of problems try to get the person to list them in order of urgency

* Encourage the client to generate and decide on possible solutions, considering the consequences of each solution

It was suggested that learners try to apply the problem solving model to their own situations.

The *sixth session* started with a talk by a peer counsellor. This was carefully discussed with the peer counsellor in advance. Although the talk was to consider empathy, the word, was not used. Rather, the discussion centered on the process of showing caring or concern and trying to imagine what another person was feeling by putting yourself in their shoes. The involvement of existing peer counsellors seemed to be very popular and the group members asked many questions. The peer counsellor gave examples from her own experience. The peer counsellor had been carefully coached and did not divulge the name of any learner she had worked with in the past.

The group then split up into pairs and tried using the listening skills, combined with empathy to deal with a problem. They were encouraged to use the problem solving model that had been formulated in the previous session. The model was written on the

whiteboard to jog their memories.

The *seventh session* again consisted of a small group exercise. The researcher had planned this session as a discussion on ethics. Again the word ethics was not used; rather the five groups were each asked to discuss the rules, which they thought should apply to peer counsellors. After a discussion they were asked to write down five rules which they thought should apply. The same procedure followed. Each group nominated a spokesman to explain their rules. The rules were written on the whiteboard, and after a discussion, in which learners were encouraged to compare the contribution of each group, five rules were established for the future peer counsellors. It was agreed that each group of new peer counsellors would investigate the rules and decide on their applicability. The following rules were established:

*   Confidentiality must be maintained.

*   Peer counsellors must be responsible about doing duties and keeping appointments.

*   Peer counsellors must always try to be friendly, kind and caring.

*   Peer counsellors must always be honest and tell learners when they do not know what to do.

*   Peer counsellors must try to set a good example for other learners.

Finally participants practiced their skills in pairs. They told each other their life histories. In this exercise they were asked to try to find a partner they did not know.

The final session was used to draw together the programme. After the 'Tea Party' and the completion of the TSCS, learners were told about the selection process for future peer counsellors and certificates of completion were presented to each participant.

APPENDIX B

CORRESPONDENCE WITH THE

KWAZULU-NATAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

PIETERMARITZBURG GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL
PRIVATE BAG X5
SCOTTSVILLE
3209
Telephone (0331) 69271 / 2 / 3
Fax (0331) 69273

15 April 1998

The Executive Director: Education
KwaZulu-Natal Department of
Education and Culture
Private Bag 9044
PIETERMARITZBURG
3200

ATTENTION: **Mrs D. Stobie,**
Superintendent of Education (District).

Dear Mrs Stobie

RESEARCH PROJECT IN SCHOOL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

As part of the requirements for an M.Ed. (Psychology of Education) in the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Natal (Pietermaritzburg) I wish to undertake a research project at Pietermaritzburg Girls' High School, where I am employed as a School Counsellor. The study will investigate factors pertaining to the training of learners in micro counselling skills as part of a peer counselling programme.

I have discussed the matter fully with the Acting Principal, Mrs S. Allison, who has been most supportive and has given me permission to carry out this study. Participation by Grade 11 learners is voluntary and confidentiality regarding the identity of the learners will be maintained. Parents will be informed in writing.

I would like to request the permission of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture to carry out this research.

Yours sincerely

FORWARDED:

MRS ANN DORRIAN

MRS S.E. ALLISON

SCHOOL COUNSELLOR

ACTING PRINCIPAL

91

APPENDIX C

CORRESPONDENCE WITH

THE PARENTS

Ref. AD/sk

Circular Letter to Parents No. 24/1998

15 April 1998

TO: <u>GRADE 11 PARENTS</u>

Dear Parents

<u>PRE-SELECTION COURSE FOR PEER COUNSELLORS</u>

Your daughter has expressed a desire to participate in a short course training learners in helping skills. This forms part of research being conducted by me through the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Natal (Pietermaritzburg).

Your daughter will be allocated a group either on Monday or Thursday afternoon from 14h45 to 15h45. There will be no charge. She will be required to complete a short questionnaire which, I hope, will assist me in developing the peer counselling programme. Should you wish to discuss the matter further please contact me at the above telephone number.

Yours sincerely

ANN DORRIAN

SCHOOL COUNSELLOR

MRS S.E. ALLISON

ACTING PRINCIPAL

APPENDIX D

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

PRE-SELECTION COURSE FOR PEER COUNSELLORS

Please complete the following:

NAME: _____

AGE: _____   **CLASS:** _____

CLASS TEACHER: _____

SUBJECTS: *(LIST SUBJECTS ONE BELOW THE OTHER)*

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

YEAR YOU CAME TO G.H.S. : _____

WHY DO YOU WANT TO DO THIS COURSE?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX E

FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

PRE-SELECTION COURSE FOR PEER COUNSELLORS

The following statements deal with the course you have completed.

Please place a cross in the correct block to make each statement true for you.

		Yes	Unsure	No
1.	I found this course interesting.			
2.	I feel more able to listen to my friends when they are in trouble.			
3.	I feel more confident in social situations.			
4.	I have got to know girls from other classes			
5.	There was a friendly atmosphere amongst the group.			
6.	I have used the problem solving model to solve my own problems.			
7.	I am getting on better with my teachers.			
8.	I am trying to be a good role model.			
9.	I got to know learners of other races.			
10.	I think I am better at helping people.			

11. Has this course lived up to your expectations?..
....
....
....
....
....

12. Have you any suggestions to improve the course?...
....
....
....
....
....

APPENDIX F

TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

ANSWER SHEET AND SCORE SHEET

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale
Answer Sheet

ITEM	RESPONSE	ITEM	RESPONSE	ITEM	RESPONSE
13	1 2 3 4 5	7	1 2 3 4 5	1	1 2 3 4 5
14	1 2 3 4 5	8	1 2 3 4 5	2	1 2 3 4 5
15	1 2 3 4 5	9	1 2 3 4 5	3	1 2 3 4 5
16	1 2 3 4 5	10	1 2 3 4 5	4	1 2 3 4 5
17	1 2 3 4 5	11	1 2 3 4 5	5	1 2 3 4 5
18	1 2 3 4 5	12	1 2 3 4 5	6	1 2 3 4 5
31	1 2 3 4 5	25	1 2 3 4 5	19	1 2 3 4 5
32	1 2 3 4 5	26	1 2 3 4 5	20	1 2 3 4 5
33	1 2 3 4 5	27	1 2 3 4 5	21	1 2 3 4 5
35	1 2 3 4 5	29	1 2 3 4 5	23	1 2 3 4 5
49	1 2 3 4 5	43	1 2 3 4 5	37	1 2 3 4 5
51	1 2 3 4 5	45	1 2 3 4 5	39	1 2 3 4 5
53	1 2 3 4 5	47	1 2 3 4 5	41	1 2 3 4 5
67	1 2 3 4 5	61	1 2 3 4 5	55	1 2 3 4 5
69	1 2 3 4 5	63	1 2 3 4 5	57	1 2 3 4 5
71	1 2 3 4 5	65	1 2 3 4 5	59	1 2 3 4 5
85	1 2 3 4 5	79	1 2 3 4 5	73	1 2 3 4 5
87	1 2 3 4 5	81	1 2 3 4 5	75	1 2 3 4 5
89	1 3 4 5	83	1 2 3 4 5	77	1 2 3 4 5
99	1 3 4 5	95	1 2 3 4 5	91	1 2 3 4 5
100	1 2 3 4 5	96			
		97	1 2 3 4 5	93	1 2 3 4 5
		98		94	

NAME

USUAL OCCUPATION

MARITAL STATUS

AGE

SEX (Circle One) M F

DATE

EDUCATION (Number of Years)

TIME STARTED

ETHNIC BACKGROUND (Optional)

TIME FINISHED

TOTAL TIME

182B

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale
Score Sheet

Clinical and Research Form

NAME		AGE	SEX (Circle One) M F	EDUCATION (Number of Years)	ETHNIC BACKGROUND (Optional)

USUAL OCCUPATION	MARITAL STATUS	DATE	TIME STARTED	TIME FINISHED	TOTAL TIME

ROW TOTALS

	COLUMN A PHYSICAL SELF	COLUMN B MORAL-ETHICAL SELF	COLUMN C PERSONAL SELF	COLUMN D FAMILY SELF	COLUMN E SOCIAL SELF	SELF CRITICISM	ROW SCORE ΣP+N	NET CONFLICT ΣP-N	TOTAL CONFLICT ΣIP-NI	VARIABILITY (Range of P-N)

ROW 1 — IDENTITY (What He or She Is)

P-1 P-2 P-3 N-4 N-5 N-6	P-19 P-20 P-21 N-22 N-23 N-24	P-37 P-38 P-39 N-40 N-41 N-42	P-55 P-56 P-57 N-58 N-59 N-60	P-73 P-74 P-75 N-76 N-77 N-78	91 92 93 94
5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 5
4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 4
3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3
2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 2
1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 1

ROW 1: -1 -15 (4.7) ; 13 2 (3.6)

P _____ N _____ P+N _____ P-N _____ (repeated for each column A–E)

ROW 2 — SELF SATISFACTION (How He or She Accepts Self)

P-7 P-8 P-9 N-10 N-11 N-12	P-25 P-26 P-27 N-28 N-29 N-30	P-43 P-44 P-45 N-46 N-47 N-48	P-61 P-62 P-63 N-64 N-65 N-66	P-79 P-80 P-81 N-82 N-83 N-84	95 96 97 98
5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 5
4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 4
3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3
2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 2
1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 1

ROW 2: 8 -16 (7.3) ; 17 3 (4.2)

P _____ N _____ P+N _____ P-N _____ (repeated for each column A–E)

ROW 3 — BEHAVIOR (How He or She Acts)

P-13 P-14 P-15 N-16 N-17 N-18	P-31 P-32 P-33 N-34 N-35 N-36	P-49 P-50 P-51 N-52 N-53 N-54	P-67 P-68 P-69 N-70 N-71 N-72	P-85 P-86 P-87 N-88 N-89 N-90	99 100
5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5 5 1 1 1	5 5
4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4 4 2 2 2	4 4
3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3
2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2 2 4 4 4	2 2
1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1 1 5 5 5	1 1

ROW 3: 10 -9 (5.7) ; 14 2 (4.3)

P _____ N _____ P+N _____ P-N _____ (repeated for each column A–E)   SC = _____

COLUMN TOTALS

	COLUMN A	COLUMN B	COLUMN C	COLUMN D	COLUMN E
COLUMN SCORE ΣP+N					
NET CONFLICT ΣP-N	5 -8 (4.0)	4 -10 (4.3)	0 -12 (4.3)	7 -6 (4.4)	5 -6 (3.8)
TOTAL CONFLICT ΣIP-NI	9 0 (2.8)	9 (2.8)	11 (3.0)	10 (3.1)	9 (3.0)
VARIABILITY (Range of P-N)					

TOTAL P+N   TOTAL NET   TOTAL CONFLICT   ROW TOTAL V   COLUMN TOTAL V

*ΣIP-NI means the sum of the absolute value of P-N. The addition is nonalgebraic (without regard to minus sign).

Distribution of Responses
NOTE: Use the responses on the Answer Sheet, not the above Score Sheet, in determining these scores.

In Items 1-90, number of: 5's _____ 4's _____ 3's _____ 2's _____ 1's _____ = 90   T/F = _____ ÷ _____ = _____

In Items 91-100, number of: 5's _____ 4's _____ 3's _____ 2's _____ 1's _____ = 10

Total number of _____ = 100

Empirical Scales
DP = _____ - _____ = _____
GM = _____ - _____ = _____
PSY = (100 + _____) - (_____) = _____

APPENDIX G

TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

SUBGROUP COMBINATIONS

Code	Scale Combinations
PHPI	Physical/Positive/ Identity
PHNI	Physical/Negative/Identity
MPI	Moral/Positive/Identity
MNI	Moral/Negative/Identity
PEPI	Personal/Positive/Identity
PENI	Personal/Negative/Identity
FPI	Family/Positive/Identity
FNI	Family/Negative/Identity
SPI	Social/Positve/Identity
SNI	Social/Negative/Identity
PHPSS	Physical/ Positive/Self Satisfaction
PHNSS	Physical/Negative/Self Sattisfaction
MPSS ‹	Moral/Positive/Self Satisfaction
MNSS	Moral/Negative/Self Satisfaction
PEPSS	Personal/Positive/Self Satisfaction
PENSS	Personal/Negative/Self Satisfaction
FPSS	Family/Positive/Self Satisfaction
FNSS	Family/Negative/Self Satisfaction
SPSS	Social/Positive/Self Satisfaction
SNSS	Social/Negative/Self Satisfaction
PHPBH	Physical/Positive/Behaviour
PHNBH	Physical/Negative/Behaviour
MPBH	Moral/Positive/Behaviour
MNBH	Moral/Negative/Behaviour
PEPBH	Personal/Positive/Behaviour
PENBH	Personal/Negative/Behaviour
FPBH	Family/Positive/Behaviour
FNBH	Family/Negative/Behaviour
SPBH	Social/Positive/Behaviour
SNBH	Social/Negative/Behaviour