THE EFFECT OF ANIMATED SELF-CONCEPT VIDEOS ON HISPANIC FIFTH-GRADE

STUDENTS SELF-CONCEPT

by

Richard Lawrence Hill

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

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APPROVED BY:

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ABSTRACT

Studies have documented a major downturn in the self-concept of fifth-grade students as they transition to middle school (Twenge & Crocker, 2000). Two of the major risk factors are being female and Hispanic (Cavazos-Rehg & DeLucia-Waa, 2009). Various interventions have been tried with limited success. The purpose of the present study is to use an animated self-concept video series to test if an animated self-concept video series could support and/or increase the self-concept of fifth-grade students, particularly those in the Hispanic and female risk categories. The study population ($N = 192$) was a convenience sample drawn from a sample size of 248 students in the fifth grade, average 10 years old, from a South Texas school district. The students were in two different elementary school buildings. The sample was predominantly Hispanic with 186 of the study population identifying as Hispanic. The scores of the non-Hispanic students were not included in the analysis. This quasi-experimental, nonequivalent control-group design (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007) used the Self-Perception Profile for Children (Harter, 2012) as the measurement instrument, which measured global self-worth. The instrument was used as a pre-test and post-test. The treatment group viewed one video each week for five weeks and the control group continued with the school district's specified curriculum. No teacher intervention was specified. A Mann-Whitney U was utilized to evaluate the null hypotheses. The results indicated no statistically significant difference between the groups before or after the treatment, nor was there a statistically significant difference from beginning to end within the treatment group.

Keywords: self-esteem, dignity, identity, self-concept, self-perception

Dedication

This work is first and foremost dedicated to the Grace and Glory of God. Without His hand or direction this project would never have been started. It is my sincere belief that there is a plan and work ahead that is yet to be accomplished, but the knowledge, perseverance, and understanding gained in the pursuit of this degree was necessary for the accomplishment of His plan.

Secondly, this work is dedicated to my wonderful wife, Dr. Yolanda Hill, who was constantly encouraging me to complete the project, so we could continue to the next phase of our lives. As I was in the position to encourage the completion of her doctorate, so she encouraged me. She is a true Proverbs 31 woman.

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As with any large project, this could not have been done alone. I wish to acknowledge the input, assistance, and participation of those who helped:

Dr. Jose Batista, PhD, upon whose theory this work is based, provided insightful input as to his ideas and purpose in writing his books and proposing his theory.

Dr. Yorelis Terán, Senior Pastor of El Shaddai International Christian Center, who allowed the use of recording facilities and personnel to produce the videos in English for use in this project.

Mr. and Mrs. Gerardo Gonzalez, who allowed their son, Ariel, and Mr. and Mrs. Zenaido Garza, who agreed to have their son, Joaquin, and daughter, Mayte, be the voices on the English recordings, were invaluable. These children rapidly became "adopted" as grandchildren by the present researcher.

The production team, led by Santos Chavez, provided excellent help with the remastering of the videos. Santos also acted as a stage manager many times to ensure that all the voices were in the right sequence.

Adolfo Salinas used his technical expertise to put video, voice, and music together to produce a video product that could be used in this project.

Finally, the administration and teachers of the host district must be acknowledged for allowing this project into the schools and then working with the researcher to complete it. The teachers saw the vision and expressed hope that it might grow. With God's help, it will.

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Big fish little pond effect (BFLPE)

Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

Fifth-grade students either have or are about to transition from a school where they had friends and were engaged with them, to a new building and new system of classes. When this transition happens, students, particularly Hispanic students and female students, experience a drop-in self-concept, engagement, and view of self-worth, with the risk of a continued downward trajectory (Hughes, Im, Kwok, Cham, & West, 2014).

Background

Researchers found that two of the major risk factors concerning the low self-concept of upper elementary and middle school students were that students were Hispanic or female (McClure, Tanski, Kingsbury, Gerrard, & Sargent, 2010). Study needs to be initiated regarding the influence these two factors have on students and what can be done to mitigate the drop in self-concept. The importance of this age is confirmed by Twenge and Crocker (2000) in a meta-review of literature, and in a targeted study of risk factors concerning middle and high school students (Cavazos-Rehg & DeLucia-Waa, 2009). The researchers found that self-concept proved to be a predictor of academic success, as measured by high school graduation, and that language and home life played a major factor. The researchers also found that in the earlier elementary grades differences in self-concept were less pronounced than in the later grades and high school. A closer examination of this age group and how to change the trend is warranted.

The concept of self-esteem has been in existence since 1927 when Sigmund Freud posited the ego (Coopersmith, 1959). Carl Rogers (1944) considered self-esteem to be one's view of self-adequacy and the desire to remain independent. It was not until the 1950's, when

Gough (1953) suggested that the personality trait of dominance or self-assertion was the best predictor of academic success in high school students, that more studies were conducted.

Rogers, Smith, and Coleman (1978) equated self-esteem and self-concept when considering psychological reasons behind academic success. Rogers (1979), noted that a person has the power to change one's self-concept, and began moving away from the self-esteem label. Self-esteem became self-concept, then self-worth, or one's self-perception, eventually evolving into a separate construct (Marsh & Shavelson, 1985).

Brissett (1972) observed that the definitions of self-esteem were confusing and attempted to clarify the term by publishing a two-fold definition for self-esteem. Self-esteem first was equated with self-evaluation, suggesting that it was a result of the understanding of one's own significance. Brissett's (1972) second process of self-esteem was the understanding of one's own identity within society at large.

The definitions of self-concept engendered theories to explain the construct and its operation. Jones (1973) contrasted two theory types that were purported to explain behavior. According to his description, consistency theory suggested that all of a person's actions, attitudes, and reception of information from situations and other people were generated to support the person's state or concept of self. Self-esteem was understood as a need to enhance one's view or evaluation of self, and that enhancement acted to confirm the feelings of satisfaction or self-worth a person had about the self (Jones, 1973)

The theory of terror management was another approach to self-concept. Proponents suggest that one's self-concept determines how a person will react in the face of impending death or disaster (Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Solomon, Arndt, & Schimel, 2004), and suggest that as one

faces death the actions or rationality tend to diminish to the point of paralysis. Self-esteem shelters people from the anxiety inherent in the human condition (Pyszczynski et al., 2004).

Sociometer theory (Leary, 2001) posits that self-concept is a buffer between the person and life's events. Self-concept acts as a barometer of a person's past, present, and future perceived experiences. The higher one's self-concept, the more positively one will view life. This view guides how one decides what actions to take in society (Anthony, Wood, & Holmes, 2007). Dennissen, Penke, Schmitt, and van Aken (2008) suggested that there are two primary tenets of this view: the human need to belong or be included, and the desire of high quality interaction. These two primary parts of the theory combine to moderate important associations in life, such as romance.

A fourth explanation of self-concept is identity theory. Tajfel (1974) published an article on a new dynamic called social identity and a theory of how social identity was incorporated into the individual's behavior. The theory attempted to explain the dynamics within group behavior and an individual's adaptation to either a secure place or an insecure rank within the group. By 2000, it was being called the preeminent theory on group dynamics (Brown, 2000), yet it focused on the group, not the individual. The individual fits into the group and conforms to its norms. Personal identity theory concentrates more on self-identity and the process of forming that identity (Stets & Burke, 2000). Self-esteem played a role in the development of the identity and in the evaluation an individual made of the personal role taken (Stets & Burke, 2000). Self-concept and identity theory became linked.

The above examples demonstrate that the research performed observes self-concept from a diagnostic lens, not from a prescriptive lens to provide assistance for those who struggle with self-concept. Research further suggests that the need for a prescriptive view stems from the

social situation. Students at the fifth grade level have been in one school with a set of friends and familiar teachers. They do better when committed to a school and they feel good about themselves (Kahaola, 2014). Engagement with the school and self-esteem dropped when students transitioned to middle school (Cavazos-Rehg & DeLucia-Waa, 2009). When engagement drops, self-concept drops, and creates a detrimental effect on educational achievement. Students at this grade level are also targets for cyberbullying, particularly if their self-esteem is low (Baldry, Farrington, & Sorrentino, 2015). However, their self-concept improved through helping others and susceptibility seemed to be alleviated (McCartya, Teiea, McCutchen, & Geller, 2016). The current study concentrated on fifth-grade students, since the school district site makes the change from elementary school to middle school at this level. The state of Texas allows a variety of configurations, but many schools in the state follow this transition pattern.

The self-concept of a student in fifth grade has implications well into adulthood. A study of college art students found a relationship between students' self-esteem and their life view could determine their success (Abdi & Bagheri, 2012). Students will act according to how they see themselves (Osmanaga, 2014). If students have good self-image or self-concept, they will look for the best in themselves and others. The family is very important in the self-concept of a student (Causey, Livingston, & High, 2015). James Allen (1902), inspirational writer and thinker, observed that,

   Of all the beautiful truths pertaining to the soul which have been restored and brought to

   light in this age, none is more gladdening or fruitful of divine promise and confidence

   than this—that man is the master of thought, the molder of character, and the maker and

   shaper of condition, environment, and destiny.(p. 3)

A study found statistically strong connections between attitudes and social skills formed by kindergarteners and successes or failures as young adults (Jones, Greenberg, & Crowley, 2015). These outcomes included areas of education, employment, mental health and crime. Still yet another report concluded that a student at the poverty level and not reading proficiently is 13 times less likely to graduate from high school (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2010). Even in the Bible, Proverbs 23:7 (New King James Version) points out that how a person thinks about one's self is how that person will be. One could conclude from the research that students' self-concept, skills, and habits seem to have the potential of affecting the future success of students and possibly future generations.

An unexpected effect of high self-concept and self-acceptance was the reduction of victimization of students through bullying. The students with stronger self-concept did not appear to be as susceptible to being bullied as those with lower self-concept (Eagan & Perry, 1998). Those students with higher self-concept were more likely to help students who had become victims of bullying, which, in turn, seemed to help boost the self-concept of the victims (Rigby & Bortolozzo, 2013). Family values instilled in a child, including self-concept, also suggest the likelihood of that child successfully reaching and completing high school graduation (Barrington & Hendricks, 1989). While no longitudinal studies were readily available, based on the previously cited sources, the formation of the hypothesis that the attitudes, values, and self-concept developed in elementary school and at home will eventually affect society as the students mature seems to be a valid possibility. Issues of self-concept have been examined by Splitter (2011) and Carter (2013), and each study pointed out that those students with a strong self-concept were more likely to be successful in school.

Rosenberg, Schooler, and Schoenbach (1989) revealed that poor self-concept was positively correlated to poor academic achievement, delinquency, and depression. Social learning theory suggests that children will become what they see acted out (Caldiera & Woodin, 2012). If, as social theory suggests, low self-concept can lead to depression, aggression and delinquency, then the progression of behavior could subsequently be passed to the next generation, which also suggests serious long-term implications for not only one's self-concept, but society as well, for instance, Hill (2015) found in her review of individual counseling cases that very often the attitudes and ethics of the parents were passed to the children.

The theory behind the current study is the identity theory developed by Batista (2011). Unlike other identity theories that link identity to social influences (Tajfel, 1974), or characteristics such as race or gender (Stets & Burke, 2000), Batista is concerned specifically about the individual and the values of that individual. Using a tree as a metaphor with the main trunk as one's identity, Batista focuses on *dignity, integrity, and freedom*. Figure 1 presents a graphic representation of Batista's theory. The full theory leads to what Christians call *the fruit of the spirit* defined as "love, joy, peace, longsuffering, kindness, goodness, faithfulness, gentleness, self-control" (Gal. 5:22-26, NKJV).

How one views and thinks about the self is described as *dignity* and is fundamentally self-recognition with confidence to not look to external sources for validation (Coopersmith, 1959). A person with dignity is genuine (Kernis, 2003). Dignity is the way one thinks, loves, and values (Batista, 2011; Batista, 2010; Cavazos-Rehg & DeLucia-Waa, 2009; Covington, 1984; Causey et al., 2015). Accepting the negatives that one encounters in society can produce a negative self-concept, which can then lead to depression (Caldiera & Woodin, 2012; Metalsky, Joiner, Jr., Hardin, & Abramson, 1993). A person with true dignity will interact with society in a

manner that exudes integrity. Consistency theory would support that if one has a low self-concept, the actions of that person will be consistent with that concept (Jones, 1973).

As part of his overall theoretical approach, Batista (2014) (see Appendix F) developed an animated video series to help teach the concept of dignity. Using a format of a conversation between children and their grandfather, the videos introduce the concept of purpose and talent each person possesses. These videos stress one's worth and address the problem identified for this study.

Problem Statement

The issue of self-concept in students has been well studied (Hardy, Walker, Olsen, Woodbury, & Hickman, 2014). Coeho, Marchante and Jimerson (2016) published a study that corroborated earlier studies and agreed that intervention was necessary in the upper elementary grades, but no intervention was proposed. Research indicated that the reduction of stress to control anger and test anxiety has a positive effect on self-concept (Hains & Szyjakowski, 1990), but this was highly focused to a specific group type. The study results were based on 21 of the original 30 male volunteers who completed the study's treatment phase. These participants were 16 to 17-year-old students in a parochial school that developed student population through a competitive system of whom 98% enrolled in college after high school graduation. The treatment group, randomly chosen from the original 24 who returned all permission forms, received a specific training curriculum. The results indicated that reducing stress had a positive effect on anger and anxiety reduction as well as a positive influence on self-concept, but the small treatment and control groups as well as the specific treatment procedure needed a great deal more investigation prior to any type of generalization to the age group.

A study on sport anxiety was highly focused on the activity and behavior of the coaches, as opposed to the players, which was a different approach (Smith, Smoll, & Barnett, 1995). The study in Seattle involved approximately the same number of coaches in three area baseball leagues. The number of coaches in one league equaled the number of coaches in the other two leagues together, so the larger league received the treatment. The target was the coaches' behavior. The study considered how changing their behavior to be more supportive, even while correcting the players' mistakes, could affect the players. The training description indicated that the coaches were to correct player actions, but not in a way that degraded the players' self-concept. The data, collected from questionnaires using Likert scale responses, revealed that the change in coaching behavior positively affected the players. The change did not affect the team's win-loss record, but the players had less stress, anxiety, and higher self-concept, all of which were considered positive improvements in the study. The limited scope of the study and its methods prevent much further generalization. The paradox of the study was that the treatment was focused on the coaches (teacher), but the results were focused on the 10 to 12-year-old male players. The continuing question is how that could translate into the classroom and students in general (Smith et al., 1995).

Despite the numbers of studies that propose a treatment or theory to address the apparent degradation of student self-concept from fifth to sixth grade, the literature does not seem to include any attempts at using video lessons in an animated format that removes the confounding influences of human facial and body expressions that could conflict with the message the video purports to express.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quasi-experimental, non-equivalent control group design was to use an animated self-concept video series developed by Batista (Batista, 2014) to test if the animated self-concept video series alone could support and increase the positive self-concept of fifth-grade students. The effect of the self-concept video series was measured using Self-Perception Profile for Children (Harter, 2012). The independent variable was the Batista video series on self-concept and the dependent variable was the Self-Perception Profile for Children score of the treatment group. The population included 192 students in the fifth grade in a South Texas school district spread between two elementary school buildings. The control group was composed of 114 students, and 78 students comprised the treatment group. All students completed a Self-Perception Profile for Children (Harter, 2012). The convenience sample was taken from a school district in South Texas with a 98% Hispanic population. The study sample was 99% Hispanic, rendering any attempt to track cultural differences impossible. No further reference to non-Hispanic subjects will be made and the few that were non-Hispanic were not included in the results concerning Hispanic students.

Significance of the Study

A six-year study in Portugal, from 2006 to 2012, tracked efforts to reduce stress in fourth-grade students as they transitioned to middle school. The study followed peers, and teachers while promoting self-esteem, yet resulted in no significant differences between the treatment and control groups (Coelho et al., 2016). A Korean study of elementary school age children found that high stress created by the demands of parents and school systems along with low self-esteem negatively affected safety (Chae, 2015). Another study of elementary students in Iran by Bayani (2016) found that higher self-esteem could effectively reduce test stress. The

studies suggest a need for high self-concept, which can play a key role in student success, but no effective method for increasing self-concept has been found. The studies cited only hint at the number of studies available from various countries and serve to illustrate the universality of the issues surrounding self-concept.

The *need to belong* is a common argument often presented informally by police, media, and teachers for gang membership among middle school and high school students. Paradoxically, a study by Watkins and Melde (2016) suggested that though gang membership appeals to those with low self-concept, it increases the incidence of suicide. The study further points out that the self-concept of non-gang members was higher than gang members. Watkins & Melde's (2016) findings made developing a solution to improving self-concept even more urgent. The use of an animated video series to improve self-concept has not been attempted and could possibly help slow gang recruitment. The significance of the current study is that it adds to the existing body of knowledge and potentially help students understand and embrace their self-worth which can guide them to higher academic and life achievement.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a difference between the Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC) of the Hispanic fifth-grade students who saw a video series on self-concept when compared to the SPPC cores of the Hispanic fifth-grade students who did not see the video series on self-concept?

H$_0$1: There is no statistically significant difference between the Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC) scores of the fifth-grade Hispanic students who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the fifth-grade students who did not see the video series on self-concept.

H₀2: There is no statistically significant difference between the Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC) scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade girls who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the fifth-grade girls who did not see the video series on self-concept.

H₀3: There is no statistically significant difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade male students who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the fifth-grade male students who did not see the video series on self-concept.

RQ2: Is there a statistically significant difference in the Global Self Worth scores as measured on the Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC) of fifth-grade Hispanic students after seeing a video series on self-concept?

H₀4: There is no statistically significant difference in the Global Self Worth scores as measured on the SPPC of fifth-grade Hispanic students after seeing a video series on self-concept.

Definitions

1. *Self-Concept* - One's perception about one's self; a multi-faceted view to allow one to categorize information gathered about the self; hierarchal to allow inferences about areas such as academic subjects; it is generally stable but can be situation specific; as one matures it becomes increasingly multi-faceted; evaluative; and can be separated from other constructs (Marsh & Shavelson, 1985); a theory that one develops about one's self (Epstein, 1973).

2. *Self-Esteem* - Self-evaluation and that evaluation is expressed through one's behavior (Coopersmith, 1959). Self-esteem is "defensive or genuine, contingent or true, unstable or stable, and discrepant or congruent with implicit (nonconscious) feelings of self-worth"

(Kernis, 2003, p. 1). The level or amount of global regard that one has for one's self (Harter, 1993).

3. *Self-Worth* - How one perceives one's personal value (Covington, 1984).

4. *Dignity* - The inherent capacity for upholding one's principles (Killmister, 2010), a recognition of one's own identity, autonomy, and responsibility (Schachter, 1983).

The term *self-concept* will be used to avoid possible confusion, as it is the most general in definition. The term *self-esteem* will be used if the referenced source specifically uses that term.
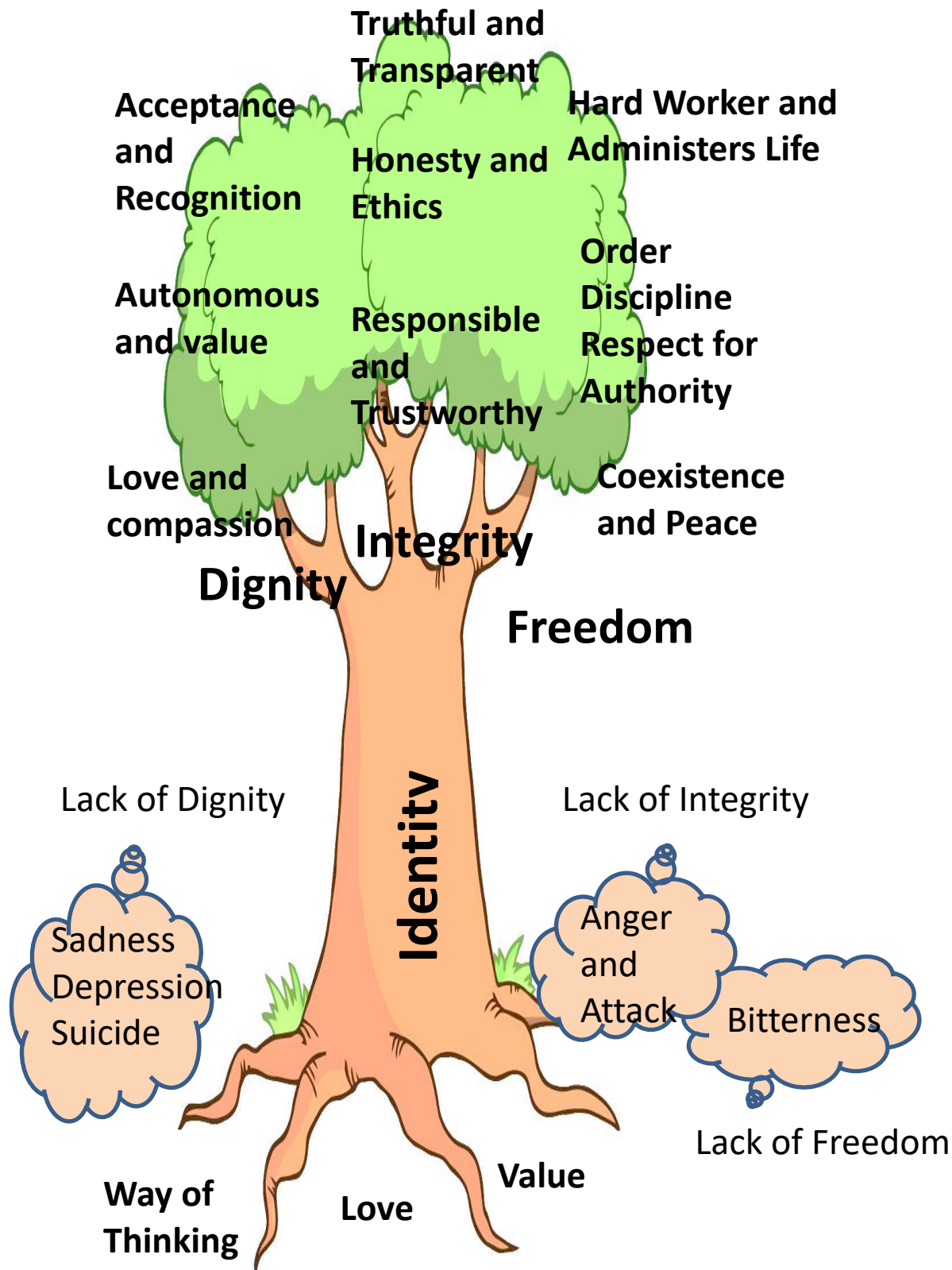
Figure 1. The Tree of Life

Used by Permission (Appendix G)

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The current study is based upon a theory proposed by Batista (2011) that he has titled the identity theory. The theory was first published in 2003 in Spanish in his book *El Árbol de la Vida* (The Tree of Life), the 2011 version is a translation of the book into English (Batista, 2011). Batista has continued the development of his theory into other books, one of which is directly related to the current study with the English title of Surviving Adolescence (Batista, 2010). Batista's (2011) identity theory is a departure from other theories of behavior and mental state. Its focus is not so much a description, or explanation of behaviors and thought processes, as it is a set of values and mindset that one can embrace to improve one's self concept and quality of life.

The remainder of this chapter will include a brief review of several prominent theories with a discussion of their theoretical base and application. The discussion will also delve into Batista's world view and how that defines the departure of his work from other theories. Prior to discussion of theories, a review of terms must also be addressed, including the history and how the meanings of the most commonly used terms display such similarity that they often are used interchangeably.

Conceptual Framework

One of the most common terms used to describe how one feels about one's self is self-esteem. The term *self-esteem* has been suggested as originating with the works of Sigmund Freud in 1927 when he introduced the concept of the ego (Bonanno, 2004; Coopersmith, 1959). Although no evidence seems to exist that Freud actually used the term, it developed as a way to describe Freud's concept of the ego. A possibly more user-friendly definition of self-esteem was

external stimuli (Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976). The theorists further defined self-concept as one's view of both inner and outer self (Shavelson et.al., 1976).

The psychological construct developed by Shavelson et al. (1976) proved to be an important break from the more general self-esteem definition as researchers began studying the effects, both positive and negative, of one's self-concept. Pajares and Miller (1994) studied Shavelson et al.'s (1976) self-concept effect on mathematics problem solving skills and noted that "self-concept . . . includes beliefs of self-worth associated with one's perceived competence" (p. 94). Self-concept has been studied as a motivator in the middle school grade (Anderman & Maehr, 1994), including the phenomenon of a drop-in motivation and self-concept at the middle school level grades five through eight. The self-concept construct contributes to the big fish little pond effect (BFLPE) as students compare themselves to other students performing better or worse academically. The BFLPE seems particularly pronounced in high schools that are academically selective and the negative effects on self-concept can carry over after graduation (Marsh, Trautwein, Lüdtke, & Köller, 2007). The social effects on self-concept, also called self-esteem by the researchers, were found to have a significant impact upon how one perceives the self (Crocker & Major, 1989), and the multi-dimensional aspect of self-concept has also been studied (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). The differences between self-esteem and self-concept might seem clear in the research, yet, even the researchers interchange the terms, which confuses the general public. In this paper, the term self-concept will be used.

Self-perception is another description of how one views one's self. The construct refers to the personal value one places or perceives within the self (Covington, 1984). Although not used as much as self-concept or self-esteem, self-concept is used in all the references after 1984 cited above. The overall definition, however, is best described as the same as self-esteem

(Bolognini, Plancherel, Bettschart, & Halfon, 1996), or the feelings one has about the worth of one's self.

There is another view of self-concept that is becoming recognized and is characterized by the term of dignity. Dignity denotes the inherent capacity for upholding one's principles (Killmister, 2010), or a recognition of one's own identity, autonomy, and responsibility (Schachter, 1983). Dignity focuses on the individual and the talent or value deposited within. Recognition of one's dignity goes beyond self-esteem to an assurance or confidence in the talents one possesses, regardless of social or cultural pressure (Batista, 2011). If one were to search the current research on dignity, the most common application of the term, by far, is to the treatment of those persons advanced in years, near the end of life, the dying, or even the dead. Yet, one writer recognizes that dignity does refer to the self when he wrote, "The dignity of a person is worthy of respect from others and from the person him or herself" (Nordenfelt, 2004, p. 70). Batista (2010) suggests that recognition of one's dignity will be a psychological defense against a variety of negative influences, such as gang membership.

Empirical Evidence

To understand more fully the reasoning behind using Batista's (2010) theory, a review of existing major social behavioral theories is necessary. The discussion will include Adlerian, sociometer, personal self-esteem, social identity, control, depression, gender, and terror theories, all of which attempt to address how one behaves and interacts in society. The discussion will conclude with a brief review of measurement tools for self-concept and theories that include values with a focus directly upon the individual and how one should view situations in a search for appropriate responses.

One of the earliest social theories suggested that one's self-esteem or self-concept was shaped by a person's need to belong (Adler, 2015/1930; Adler, 1931). Adler observed that children seek contact with other children and adults and appeared to use that contact as validation of their own feelings and ideas. Later studies confirmed that people are indeed social (Abramson, 2007), and have a need to belong. Abramson also noted that the most influential individuals in a child's life are the parents and siblings, which confirms informal observations made by educators. The need to belong also has an effect on one's mental condition. Ferguson (2010) revealed in a study that the mental health of students and adults is better when one perceives that one belongs or is associated with some type of group or idea. Belonging affects how one perceives and reacts to the social environment and all the challenges which that environment can bring and provides the confidence to face those challenges, particularly in students (Osmanaga, 2014).

The need to belong, even if the family foundation is strong, can be bolstered or damaged by outside influences. Teachers, primarily due to the amount of time spent with children, can exert a major influence on not only belonging, but on the self-concept of a student (Federici & Skaalvic, 2014). Their study found that how teachers viewed a student affected the view that other students had of that classmate as well as how the student viewed oneself. Osmanga (2014) also observed that a trauma in the family such as a death of a close relative, failure in a class or at some other endeavor, physical and/or mental abuse by another family member can contribute to lack of confidence and ultimately affect the strong feeling of belonging that a person needs.

Adlerian theory and belonging are referenced in studies as a basic human need (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), as a basis for human rights and explanation of racial divisions (Clark, 1967), the special or innovative contributions made by the human need to belong

(Ferguson, 2010), and the need to belong in those who dismiss the desire to develop close attachments (Carvallo & Gabriel, 2006).

Baumeister and Leary (1995) developed an outgrowth of Adlerian social theory called sociometer theory, which was later expanded upon by Leary (2001). The study they present suggests that to a human, belonging is much more complex than a simple social connection. A person could be a member of a particular type of group, such as an online class for example, yet not feel the sense of belonging afforded by more direct and complex interactions that personal contact can provide (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Their study suggested that the lack of belonging has a severely detrimental effect. Humans desire the interpersonal attachments and the belonging which provides an avenue for those desired attachments. However, the researchers are quick to point out that sociometer theory is not the same as attachment theory. The two key elements in sociometer theory are the need for contact and the perception of personal bonding, both elements being more complex than simple social interaction.

The classroom implications resulting from sociometer theory take a variety of views. A study of the effects of the teacher in the process of belonging found that the classroom teacher exerts a significant influence not only on learning but on a student's feeling of belonging and contributing to a class (Wang, Leary, Taylor, & Derosier, 2016). The study found that student perceptions of each other were influenced by teacher attitudes. The researchers further suggested that people tend to resist breaking bonds that have developed with other individuals or groups, even if the relationships are harmful. Wang, et al. (2016) found that the attachments developed contributed to student victimization by other students.

A study of school children and their level of self-acceptance found that the stronger the self-acceptance predicted that a child had more resistance possessed to being bullied, and that the

child would be willing to help others who were being victimized by others (Rigby & Bortolozzo, 2013). The importance of self-acceptance and belonging was further studied and found that teacher attitudes, peer attitudes, and self-concept all were valid and generally reliable predictors of academic success and achievement (Kiuru, et al., 2015). Both studies not only expanded upon the sociometer theory, supporting the tenets of that theory, but supported the research done by Carl Rogers and associates in the 1970's that suggested that teacher attitude and self-esteem held a direct relationship with academic achievement (Rogers, et al., 1978). They believe that self-concept plays an important role in student development.

Related to social theory is the personal self-esteem theory, which has its roots in the work of Coopersmith (1959), who studied the various types of self-esteem, but studies on the implications of self-esteem began be more frequent in the 1990's and beyond (Baumeister & Leary 1995; Harter 1993; Cast & Burke 2002). Personal self-esteem is theorized to have three primary branches or ways one measures one's own self-esteem or self-worth. The first is based on outcome and was first studied by Coopersmith (1959). Harter (1993) developed that concept both in studies and in her various instruments developed for measuring one's self-concept. Both researchers suggested that when results of actions one has taken, whether in the classroom or in society, are good, then the self-concept one has is also very high. Conversely, bad results of decisions or actions resulted in low self-concept.

The second branch of self-concept proved to be evidenced by self-motivations (Cast & Burke, 2002). A person with high self-concept also seemed to be one who would start or finish tasks with little extrinsic motivation or interference. Once again, the reverse was also evident in individuals with low self-concept. Cast and Burke (2002) also found that self-concept acted as a buffer, which made up the third branch of self-esteem. A person with high self-concept appeared

to be resistant to the effects of harsh criticism, bullying, or other emotional attacks. A person in any sort of public position would need to have this emotional buffer and the confidence it supplied to continue the task at hand. Of course, the reverse was also found to be true.

Cast and Burke (2002) directly connected the personal identity theory to social theory They found that if one is able to self-verify, then that same person has higher self-concept. Additionally, self-verification was central to the concept of identity that one held. In a separate study, a seemingly obvious description of self-concept suggested that behavior was controlled by the self (Brown, 2000). In the discussion, however, Brown is not simply suggesting that one controls one's own behavior, but the control is governed by the self-concept one has. Low self-concept indicated little self-moderated behavior patterns.

Tajfel (1974) put social theory and identity theory together and created social identity theory. Tajfel (1974) theorized that the personal identity one held was directly affected by the group with which the person identified; therefore, the identity of a person was controlled by the group, rather than directly by the individual person. The theory finds its roots in the work of Erickson (1956), on how youth mature the effects society has on that maturation. At the turn of the century, theorists began exploring the ramifications of this theory of identity and using social identity as an explanation for race relations (Stets & Burke, 2000; Twenge & Crocker, 2000). Brown (2000) examined the group dynamic of social identity, linking it with the concept of belonging, and how the group dynamic controlled one's behavior. Tajfel (1974) had noted that there is a bias within the group that not only marked the group's identity from other groups but worked to establish the identity of the person within that group as well as the status of the person within the group. Further, the social identity provided by the group also affected or provided a structure of belief for the individual. Simple examples would be illustrated by membership in a

church, political party, or even areas of the country. Tajfel (1974) continued by noting the group and its membership dynamic have no limit. A person can be a member of more than one group, the group itself is not necessarily limited to one area or culture, but the group serves to provide the individual a means of self-categorization, which, in turn, provides the structure for a person's identity.

Group identity provided the link for identity to ethnicity (Hughes, et al., 2014). It was also studied in relation to women military veterans and their return from active duty (Bobb, 2017), the positive and negative effects group identity had on volunteerism (Ihm, 2016), and group perceptions or how groups identified themselves compared to other groups (Heritage & Breen, 2016). A common thread in each of these studies was the individual gaining identity from the group from common experiences, such as the military, or common beliefs and values, such as in volunteerism. A comparison of identity theory and social identity theory did suggest that social identity was more effective at describing group dynamics as opposed the other individual behaviors and feeling from identity theory (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995), which has generally been observed by more recent researcher;, however, the link to the individual from the group has not been ignored. The fact that all the studies cited reference Tajfel (1974) and the identity theory he developed serves to support the foundational position of identity theory as an explanation of behavior.

In a departure from previous social theories, Glasser (1986) published his control theory. The work was a response to the very critical review of the nation's educational system by the National Commission on Excellence in Education during President Reagan's administration entitled A Nation at Risk (1983). The schools had been criticized since the end of World War II (Glasser, 1986) in that they were not keeping up with the demands of the society or world.

Glasser's (1986) theory included a series of fundamental beliefs he called assertions, that he believed would work for the betterment of the educational system. His first assertion was that motivation must be intrinsic. In Glasser's (1986) view, extrinsic motivation and all attempts at motivating extrinsically could be considered an exercise in futility. Extrinsic motivation simply did not work. Extrinsic motivation did not stimulate any type of creativity or thought. Control, then, was exerted by the individual, not society, in that the individual wanted to do things in the most viable way with the best possible result, which was Glasser's (1986) second assertion.

Glasser (1986) continued by asserting that the individual chooses what is most satisfying to do, thus exerting control over one's own actions. Control, he asserted, is hopeful as the individual realizes that one not only can do anything, but can do what needs to be done to fulfill needs immediately. Control removed dependence upon the past. The final assertion was that to truly apply the previous assertions, a student must have in mind what would be a satisfying class, which would then provide intrinsic motivation to do well in a specific class or subject.

An effort to change individual behavior and actions was initiated in 1935, prior to the appearance of control theory in the form of the Cambridge-Somerville Project. The goal was to assist and counsel boys who had a criminal history in an attempt to change their attitude and behavior for the better. The entire project was an effort at eradicating juvenile delinquency. Follow-up studies did not reveal much success and some possible negative results (McCord and McCord, 1959; McCord, 1978). Much later a study and intervention effort to attempt to control or reduce the number of teen pregnancies and promiscuous behavior (Lonczak H.S., 2002) that cited control theory as a source of thought. The follow-up studies in this project did not reveal much difference between the treatment and control group.

In a different setting, during a five-year period from 1985 to 1990, the State of Tennessee attempted a project to increase student achievement, primarily through the use of reduced student/teacher ratios called STAR (Word, 1990). The project attempted to use some assertions of the control theory, and did exhibit some success. A follow-up study on this project revealed moderate success, but also found the reduced class size led to more individualized instruction (Zahorik, 1999). The question remains if the academic successes were due more to the reduced class size or the efforts to develop intrinsic motivation in each of the students. A critical review of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000) suggests that while intrinsic motivation is good for personal pleasure or enjoyment, most accomplishments are in response to extrinsic motivations or expectations. This dichotomy is not bad and, unlike control theory, suggests extrinsic motivation has its place in the development of a human. The key for the individual is how extrinsic motivation is handled by the person.

A longer term social intervention that cited control theory as one a theoretical base was the Seattle Social Project (Lonczak, 2002). This intervention was different than other interventions or studies in that the project included parents and teachers. Training was given to teachers on regular time schedule, and parents voluntarily participated. The goal of the intervention was to reduce teen and unwed pregnancy, as well as limit the spread of sexually transmitted diseases. The review showed that the intervention did produce significantly positive results. The present study had different goals, but the Seattle Social Project provides optimism that interventions could produce positive results.

Since social theory and the various derivatives were presented, the focus has been on observing or producing positive attitudes related to positive self-concept. Depression theory (Joiner & Timmons, 2009), on the other hand, suggests that for someone with low self-concept,

negative feedback is a positive result. Depression theory continues by suggesting that someone

with low or a negative self-concept seeks out situations that will produce negative feedback,

which reinforces the negative self-concept and produces what could become a downward spiral

emotionally. A person with such a poor self-concept will avoid conflict, although one could

argue that conflict avoidance is not necessarily a result of low self-concept. Depression theory

also posits that a person who is depressed or views the self in a negative light is simultaneously

experiencing a complex life situation, which could be triggered by such traumatic events such as

a divorce. Depression theory seeks to explain, not necessarily provide remediation or change.

Sowislo and Orth (2013) studied depression theory and its possible relation to low self-concept

and depression. The study shows a significantly strong correlation between the tenets of the

theory and the emotional effects of low-self-concept and depression.

   The theory itself has its roots in the social theoretical writings of Baumeister and Leary

(1995), and Harter (1995), all of whom took a more positive view of self-concept. Kernis (2009)

cited the study as examples of a positive mindset. Joiner (1995) took a more negative approach

as he began development of the theory. Depression theory has been cited as an explanation for

serious emotional issues such as suicide (Chapman, Brown, Shrivastava, Kimbrell, Megan, &

Lester, 2012) and its prevention, as part of a meta-analysis regarding low self-concept and

anxiety (Joiner & Timmons, 2009; Sowislo & Orth, 2013).

   Citing the works of theorists Beaumeister and Rosenberg as a starting point, later

theorists began viewing self-concept as a form of terror management (Greenberg, Pyszczynski,

& Solomon, 1986). Self-concept viewed as a buffer or defense against death was a little out of

the ordinary, but the construct grew out of social theory and the world view of the latter half of

the 20th century. The theorists suggested that a high self-concept comes from an internalized

world view and the belief that one is a valued member of society. In this sense, high self-concept

also became a buffer against death, which was first suggested in 1987 (Metalsky, et al., 1993;

Pyszczynski, et al., 2004; Schmeichel, Gailliot, Filardo, McGregor, Gitter, & Baumeister,2009).

According to these theorists, the thought of death increases the need for higher self-concept and

the person who does not have a high self-concept has no emotional buffer against death or the

possible impending occurrence of death. The terror management theory defines a person's

reaction to or actions during a potentially lethal situation, such as a car accident or armed combat

in the military. A person with higher self-esteem will be able to take action to attempt to avoid

death.

During the last quarter of the 20th century, gender identity theory was presented as one

explanation for differences in self-concept between males and females (Bem, 1981).   At the

time Bem (1981) stated, "there appears to be no other dichotomy in human experience with as

many entities assimilated to it as the distinction between male and female" (p. 354). She

suggested that a child will evaluate his or her adequacy in relation to the vision or *schema* of

gender and gender roles the child believes. How one behaves, thinks, plans, and acts are all

related to gender. As a result, according to Bem (1981), self-concept is held captive by the

concept of gender, or, more simply, one's self-concept is shaped by one's gender.

The importance of Bem's (1981) gender schema is evident in the large number of

citations of her work. In 2015, a study of an adaptation of a dating violence program to the

specific population of adolescents who had witnessed domestic violence was undertaken

(Foshee, Dixon, Ennett, Moracco, Bowling, Chang, & Moss, 2015) which cited Bem's (1981)

work. Although not specifically quoting or referencing Bem (1981) in the text of the article,

gender identity was evident as the intervention sought to change the behavior of those

adolescents who believed that violence directed against a partner, or potential partner, was the norm. The study also noted that culture was involved in the behavior of the adolescents and those raised in a violent culture would perpetrate that violence.

Gender theory and the influence it had on pre-school girls were evident during play and with computer games (Coyle & Liben, 2016).   The results indicated that girls with high gender identification were more interested in Barbie type characters, and those without as high of gender identification characteristics were not. What was not affected so much was the choice of future occupations the girls voiced. Bem's (1981) work was cited in a study of the relationship of sex roles and mental health (Juster, et al., 2016). The study began with the premise that sex roles, gender identification and gender socialization are separate constructs from genes and anatomy. The study also suggested that men and women are more androgynous than the other in various circumstances. Bem (1981) suggested the concept of androgyny in her theory and related it to the ability of men or women to change how they react based on gender perceptions and the ability to use both male and female thought processes.

Bem's (1981) work included the development of a measuring instrument for sex roles and androgynous thought patterns. A series of 36 questions to which the participant answered "like me" or "not like me" produced the profile of sex role concept and androgyny. It is mentioned here solely to note how the concept was measured in the studies referenced.

The behavioral theories referenced above barely scratch the surface of the various thought processes and explanations proposed by behavioral theorists. Google Scholar found 42,600 references to articles and theories that have been published during 2016 alone. The theories cited above were chosen to provide a basis of thought and history of the development of these theories. In the theories cited in the current study, there is another commonality, that of

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs. While Maslow (1943) wrote that his theory was not

intended to be a behavioral theory, he does note that behavior is often driven by the desire to

fulfill the needs of the individual. Behavior theorists (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) began noting

that the desire for improved self-concept was addressed by Maslow (1943) in the center of his

hierarchy with the safety and love needs. More recently, writers have noted that self-concept is

directly related to the middle of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy (Poston, 2009; Simons, Irwin, &

Drinnien, 1987). Self-concept is the individual meeting the individual needs. Maslow (1943)

further noted that his theory incorporates the dynamics of Freud (Strachey, 1969) and Adler

(1931) along with Gestalt (Smith & Mulligan, 1988) psychology and other theorists, thus the

reader is brought full circle to the beginning of the discussion.

Benjamin Bloom (1956) developed what he called a taxonomy of educational objects in

an effort to improve teaching techniques and did not involve behavioral issues. However,

researchers since the inception of the taxonomy have noted that self-esteem does fall in the

middle of Bloom's (1956) taxonomy (Forehand, 2010). Forehand contends that self-esteem or

self-concept is a manner of thinking, what Bloom (1956) considers to be the affective domain, in

the center of Bloom's taxonomy. By considering the entire revised version of the taxonomy as

presented by Forehand (2010) of remember, understand, apply, analyze, evaluate and create, one

has a model for learning and for thinking about the self as well as about a particular academic

subject.

Measuring Self-Concept

With the various theories of self-concept, a need for some method of measuring self-

concept became necessary. The Rosenberg Measure of Self-Esteem (1965), also known as the

Rosenberg self-esteem scale was one of the first measurement instruments of its type. According

to Google Scholar, the instrument has been cited over 250 times, more recently in a study on the improvement of character and cognition (Heckman & Kautz, 2013), the experiences of mentors and mentees (Prycea, Giovannetti, Spencer, Elledge, Gowdy, Whitley, & Cavell, 2015), and in a study of the psychometrics properties of the scale as they relate to various ethnic and racial groups across the United States (Sinclair, Blais, Gansler, Dandberg, Bistis, & LoCicero, 2010).

Rosenberg's (1965)scale was cited and used in a study of the correlation of self-esteem and internet addiction among university students (Niemz, Griffiths, & Banyard, 2005) that found self-esteem to be lower among students showing symptoms of pathological internet use or internet addiction. In Ontario, the Rosenberg scale was cited in a health study of adolescents and depression (Fleming, 1993). A study of adolescent depression (Gotlib, Lewinsohn, Seeley, Rohde, & Redner, 1993) included the use of the Rosenberg scale to search for possible self-concept elements to adolescent depression. In a comparison study of pregnant and non-pregnant teenaged girls, the Rosenberg scale was used comparing self-concept of the two groups (Hockaday, 2000). Rosenberg's (1965) view of self-esteem as a view of self-worth was cited in a study of Mexican-American adolescents and their academic achievement (Carranza, You, Chhuon, & Hudley, 2009), and the effect that acculturation and family have on them. The study did find that parents who were more involved did have students with higher self-concept as measured on the Rosenberg scale, which resulted in better academic progress.

Rosenberg's (1965) work has been applied to studies concerning the psychological impact of cancer (Osborn, 2007), emotions that occur during the treatment of depression (Pos, Greenberg, Goldman, & Korman, 2003), and even the study of type-A behavior in administrators and the effects of marital conflict (Burke, Weir, & DuWors, 1979).

In 1985, Harter (2012) developed the self-perception profile for children with a revision in 2012. This measurement instrument has proven to be widely accepted and has been referenced at least 3187 times, per Google Scholar. Because it has proven reliability and validity as well as the emphasis on how one views one's self, it is also the instrument of choice for the current study. The subject is presented with 36 statements in the form of dichotomies. Then a decision must be made as to how the statement applies to the self or to others. The six subscales present a well-rounded picture of the self-concept one has.

Harter's (1985/ 2012) scale has been used as a predictor of self-esteem in various ethnic groups (Phinney, Cantu, & Kurtz, 1997) in a meta-analysis of peer victimization over a 20-year span (Hawker, & Boulton, 2000), and in a study of how obesity might affect academic achievement and global self-esteem (Strauss, 2000). One's view of self-worth or self-concept can have serious effects. Strauss also found that, particularly amongst obese Hispanic and White females, self-esteem, as measured on Harter's (1985/ 2012) instrument, decreased dramatically during the four-year span from age nine to age thirteen. A meta-analysis of gender differences used Harter's (1985/ 2012) self-perception instrument as one measure of self-esteem and found a statistically significant difference between the genders (Kling, Hyde, Showers, & Buswell, 1999). The same study also considered ethnic differences, but no conclusive decision could be drawn.

As fundamental as Rosenberg's (1956) work and philosophy regarding self-concept seemed to be, the terms self-esteem and self-concept have been parsed and redefined through time. Researchers have linked the terms to specific theories or thought processes that people seem to have about themselves, and have developed specific measuring scales or methods to fit the parameters proposed. Blascovich and Tomaka (1991), for example, list nine other methods

of measuring self-esteem besides Rosenberg (1956) and Harter (1985/ 2012). These measures examine areas such as one's view of inadequacy, self-concept, body image, and social behavior. The difficulty in measuring this psychological construct was observed by the authors when they noted that self-esteem was a highly subjective matter, which then made self-reporting the only feasible way to collect data. The development of any instrument was made even more difficult by that issue (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). Some examples of such instruments will be discussed in the following section.

The Texas Social Behavior Inventory was developed in 1974, and validated for shorter version of the instrument, proved to be an accurate predictor of social interaction behavior among college students as well as self-esteem (Helmreich & Stapp, 1974). The instrument consisted of a series of statements describing a social characteristic and the subject would respond on a Likert type of scale from "Not at all like me" to "Very much like me." The instrument seems to have been primarily used at the University of Texas, Austin, and appears to fall within the theory of social self-esteem. It was also cited in Greenwald & Farnham's (2000) work on the implicit association test, which will be discussed later, and by Blascovich and Tomaka (1991).

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept scale was developed in 1969, and then used in a study of self-concept in gifted children (Karnes & Wherry, 1981). The study seemed to confirm that gifted children had a higher self-esteem than students considered to be of normal intelligence. There was no difference between sexes or other classes of the same program level. The scale was designed for use with students in gifted or talented types of programs, as evidenced by the citations in Google Scholar, of which Carr (2011), Damon & Hart (1988), and Shavelson et al. (1976) are only a few. Any sample of the scale itself is not publicly available.

Blascovich and Tomaka (1991) also cited the Tennessee Self-Concept scale (Fitts &
Warren, 1988) as another instrument used to determine self-esteem. Originally developed in
1964 as a quick way to survey student self-esteem, the scale has been used in a variety of ways
since that time. The scale was used to assess self-esteem of alcoholics in an attempt to determine
a specific cause for the addiction (Gross & Adler, 1970), to determine a cause and possible
course of action to combat student depression and loneliness (Goswick & Jones, 1981), and it
was cited as a reference in a study of a songwriting protocol developed to help patients with
neurological injuries (Tamplin, Baker, McDonald, Roddy, & Rickard, 2016). Self-concept is a
factor in a great many studies and treatments, yet despite the number of studies, the number of
instruments for measurement seems to be relatively small.

Organization-based self-esteem and well-being (Pierce, Gardner, & Crowle, 2013) seems
to find its roots in the social theories of belonging and group identity. The authors then
suggested that self-esteem and well-being have what they term as a *spillover effect* on each other
(Pierce et al., 2013). Self-esteem affects one's concept of well-being and, conversely, the
concept of well-being affects one's self-esteem. These concepts seem to be formed from
personal experiences at work or some other organizational activity. The research suggests the
influence, but existing measures of self-esteem appear to be used (Hui & Lee, 2000).

The Implicit Association Test compares responses to questions associating actions or
stimuli and was used to measure self-esteem (Greenwald & Farnham, 2000). This test had been
used to measure associations involving race, age, and gender associations and the strength of
those associations. The results of these tests uncovered biases and prejudices between various
groups but had not really been tested in the area of self-concept (Greenwald & Farnham, 2000).
The difference between implicit and explicit self-esteem is how one expresses or exhibits self-

esteem. A question may ask for a self-report to a specific type of prompt and the answer would then measure the explicit self-esteem. Implicit describes how the subject actually does feel about the prompt and the two may not be the same. Greenwald and Farnham (2000) developed a five-step method to measure these two types of self-esteem. The results not only found a positive correlation between the two types of self-esteem tested, but also found a positive correlation with other measures such as Rosenberg (Greenwald & Farnham, 2000). The difference seems to be that this test also reveals underlying feelings or biases.

The self-esteem among school administrators and the effectiveness of these administrators exhibit illustrates another example of applying self-esteem research (Jafari & Nezhad, 2013). In this case, the measuring instrument was a set of two questionnaires that were developed from the work of Coopersmith (1959) and Parsons (Owens, 2010), who published a large number of articles in the 1940's and 1950's on social and family interactions. The Coopersmith-based questionnaire was administered to students and measured their self-esteem, while the Parsons-based work was administered to the staff and measured their social effectiveness and self-esteem. The results differed from previous studies, so more work needed to be done on this subject.

A study of self-esteem in students diagnosed with attention deficit/hyperactive disorder (ADHD) who had undergone therapy treatment compared with those who did not receive treatment showed that those treated had a higher self-concept (Harpin, Mazzone, Raynaud, Kahle, & Hodgkins, 2016). Once again, however, the instrument used to draw this conclusion was more a review of results from other studies. No original instrument was developed.

The relationship of body mass, self-esteem, and depression was studied in India and the work cites Rosenberg as part of the underlying philosophy studied (Deepthi, Praveen,

Chandrashekhar-Rao, Vincent, & Kishore, 2014). This study did not try to invent another measure, but did use the Binge Eating Scale, developed in 1982 by Gormally, Rosenberg's self-esteem scale, and the Birleson Depression Self-Rating Scale for Children (Birleson, 1981) in different combinations. The correlation among the three scales proved to be significant as lower self-esteem, binge eating, and depression seemed to predict each other. The results were then combined with the therapy strategies of Rogers (1979) to help students stop the destructive behavior. How the individual feels about one's personal body will be revealed with The Body Esteem Scale (Franzoi & Shields, 1984). Self-concept has so many different applications that even one's concept of body strength, shape, effectiveness, physical condition, and upper body strength can be revealed on an esteem scale designed for physical self-concept. This measure includes male and female view as separate dimensions.

In a departure from all previous theories and measures, Tafarodi and Swann (2001) equated global self-esteem and self-liking and developed a theory which they later named Two-Dimensional Self-Esteem (Tafarodia & Swann, 2001). The two dimensions of self-esteem they posited were self-competence and self-liking. They then developed an instrument to measure self-concept within the framework of this theory. Swann the co-authored a defense of considering self-esteem important and presented research that supported the need for helping individuals improve their self-concept (Swann, Chang-Schneider, & Larsen McClarty, 2007).

Self-concept has been a factor in therapeutic endeavors, particularly those with neurological injuries, and the treatment has been shown to be effective (Tamplin, et al., 2016). Self-concept has even been considered a factor in the psyche of performing or professional musicians (Swart, 2016). Although these last two studies did not propose a new measurement

instrument, the elements of self-concept do factor into psychological measurements and treatment.

The current study explored the use of videos, not video games, to help bolster or increase the self-esteem of Hispanic fifth-grade students. Therefore, an effort was made to discover if research exists that might help to predict the positive or negative outcome of the current research project. While it was impossible to individually review all 17,000 sources that could be accessed on the internet, the research efforts scanned did not use any type of video to try and increase feelings of self-worth or self-concept. There were a large number of studies using video games or virtual reality video, such as the study on health changes when the subjects were placed in a religious atmosphere using video virtual reality that did not match the subject's own beliefs (Ysseldyka, Haslamb, & Morton, 2016). Another study presented evidence that high use of video games and less physical activity were simultaneous predictors and evidence of low self-esteem (Wu, Kirk, Ohinmaa, & Veugelers, 2016). Studies of the effects of violence from video games, virtual reality video, media, and real life were mounted to study desensitization to violence (Mrug, Madan, & Windle, 2016), and on adolescent anxiety (Madan, 2014), with conflicting results. Specific video games have also been studied, such as Warcraft, to attempt to discover evidence that self-identification or self-esteem translated into the real world from the virtual world (Watts, 2016). While no significant link was found between the Warcraft virtual world and real-world behaviors, Watts (2016) did find that the strength of the player's identification with the virtual character did affect the player's self-concept. What was more significant was that a player's self-concept did affect his/her interactions in the real world, apart from the Warcraft interaction.

Videos have been used in cases of psychotherapy. Just the production of videos might be considered therapeutic (Cohen, Johnson, & Orr, 2015), and videos have even been used to teach life lessons (Little, 2015), some of which have appeared on national television. Videos, particularly video gaming, have been lauded for making great progress in learning, seemingly with research support; particularly by commercial interests. In one such effort, the ability of video games to teach was supported by a quote from a research paper that indicated learning was enhanced by playing video games (Dennis, 2016). However, a more detailed excerpt from the referenced paper suggested that the learning effectiveness may not be significant and that the wide variety of evaluative instruments actually impeded a clear conclusion regarding learning effectiveness (Perrotta, Featherstone, Aston, & Houghton, 2013). A Department of Defense study (Blunt, 2007) supported game based learning, while a more recent study of media-based learning, although not directly targeting video or games based learning, suggested that media delivery does not make a significant difference in the learning of students, with no significance regarding gender, race, or ethnicity (Hunt, Trent, Jackson, Marquis, Barrett-Williams, Gurvitch, & Metzler, 2016)). The use of videos to help children understand the gifts, talents, and responsibilities that they have does not seem to have been tried, thus creating a gap in the literature.

Prior to continuing, it is necessary to step back from the theoretical review to take a longer view of purpose. All of the latter theories and subsequent citations, whether qualitative or quantitative in nature, appear to examine or describe either the effects of high or low self-concept or what might be the cause of the particular view of self. What these theorists do not attempt is a way to intervene to change a view of self that is detrimental to a person's well-being or life goals. In a word, these theories are descriptive or diagnostic in the approach used. With the

focus on diagnostics, the change, prescription, or intervention was left to others. Three examples cited above were the Cambridge-Somerville Program (McCord & McCord, 1959), the Seattle Social Project (Lonczak, 2002), and the Tennessee STAR project (Word, 1990), which attempted to affect a change using a variation of social theory. The theories are action neutral, or form a framework for thought, and attempted to provoke innovation for change. The innovations sought are either scarce, or they have not been reported.

One important feature of both the Cambridge-Somerville Program and the Seattle Social Project was the introduction of values and values education. Ethrington (2013) defined this type of education as presenting truth as an absolute, not a situational or variable quality. The subject of values in education also causes education leaders to avoid discussion of such education through such techniques as letting the teacher model values (Alejandro, personal interview, 2015) and quickly changing the subject. Ethrington (2013) continued by contending that today's social climate demands that people find a universal moral ground, find universal truths, and let values guide one's actions. Continuing an attitude of relativity in accepting the guidance of values simply gets a person lost. The Seattle Social Project was also unique in that it attempted to work with family and community to achieve the goal of reduced unwed mother pregnancies.

Splitter (2011) further defined values as a guide or basis to how one acts. Moreover, the values one exhibits are gained from citizenship, or one's group identity. One's values demonstrate the inner self, thus revealing one's true identity, no matter how one attempts to act in society to present a different impression (Splitter, 2011). Batista (2011) would agree with Splitter's (2011) view of values as he contends that values form our identity.

Importantly, none of the authors cited concerning values link any specific religious thought to the values examined. They took the view that there are certain universal values that

one should adopt and display in society and family, which in turn enhances the ability to interact successfully and without rancor. This view also addresses the resistance that might occur due to concerns that values associated with religious doctrine might be introduced into the school curriculum. Values-based theories are, by nature, prescriptive or action oriented. These theories intend to seek improvement in the thought and action processes of the individual, much as the STAR, Seattle Social Project, and the Cambridge-Somerville Project attempted to do. A review of values-based theories follows.

Values Based Theories

Values based theories are different from the theories reviewed above in that they not only attempt to describe social interaction and the consequences or benefits that develop as a result of specific actions. These often prescribe specific courses of action that one could follow to improve the interpersonal relationships that one encounter, such as Batista (2011) or Covey (1989). These theories could be described as more person-oriented than the various theories cited above in that the individual and the individual's actions are more important to the researcher or theorist than a broad global view. Scholars could argue that these types of theories are not truly theories because they do not meet the classical description of theory or research data presentation. This argument might be true for some theories, yet, specifically in the case of Batista (2011), any research data developed from the application of these theories might be useful to describe the population of the current study, or might be based on data developed in another country, rendering any generalization from that data inconsequential. As will be shown in the case of Batista (2011), the definitions of some important terms have a different nuance, which makes comparisons to the previously cited theories difficult. A review of some values-based theories follows.

Seven Habits of Highly Effective People (Covey, 1989) begins with a classical theoretical view of social interaction. The description of successful personal interaction includes a prescription for changing one's actions to create a more successful environment for one's self and the others with whom one interacts. Covey (1989) described the theory as a plan for leadership and, according to Google Scholar, has been cited in other works at least 9,743 different times. One could consider his work a theory as he also describes, as other theories do, what makes someone a successful leader. The theory begins, however, with an introspective examination of the individual (Covey, 1989). Covey (1989) even points out that he is taking what he terms an inside-out view. The first habit, therefore, begins with a principles or values of a personal vision. The seventh habit also focuses on the individual through his view of spiritual renewal. Spiritual in this sense refers to the human spirit, not a religious spiritual belief. Covey (1989) extended his theory directly into management theory, but continued his theme of beginning with the individual and the identity or values held by that individual. Finally, he applied the theory to families and family life, but still began with the individual and an examination of the values held by that person (Covey, 1997).

Covey's (1989) theory was applied to public school students by his son, Sean (Covey, 2008). Following the same thematic pattern as the original work by his father, Sean Covey (2008) presented the theory in a format that allows younger children to engage with the concepts. The work uses cartoon style characters and vocabulary to which students can relate. In an effort to improve student achievement and reduce the disciplinary encounters with teachers and administrators, schools are adapting Covey's (2008) theory for use in elementary and secondary schools. A school district in South Texas has begun its second year in the application of the

theory and is in the process of developing empirical data that might guide further use (WISD staff, 2017).

Blackaby & Blackaby (2011) created a different view or theory of leadership that focuses on the individual values and how these values help to create success. The authors cited research figures that they had developed, but did not seem to be corroborated by any independent source. The work is included in this review because the focus is on the individual. The values held by the individual provide the basis for action and interpersonal relations.

Client-centered therapy, or person-centered therapy, by Carl Rogers (1979) is another theory that looks directly at the individual and seeks to bring the individual to recognition of self and how the self can affect the surrounding social atmosphere. This theory, developed for professional counselors, begins much as Covey (1989) began his work, with an introspective look at what one believes and understands. The original work has been referenced at least 200 times, according to Google Scholar, and is one of the foundations of clinical counseling. The client must understand how one's actions and/or beliefs affect the self and interpersonal reactions (Rogers, 1979; Rogers, Smith, & Coleman, 1978).

Batista (2011) bases his identity theory on three principles or values; dignity, integrity, and freedom. His approach is much like Covey (1989) in that he begins with the individual and the dignity that each person possesses, but the term *dignity* is difficult to define. As literature is reviewed, dignity means different things to different constituencies. The medical profession seems to be nearly obsessed with dignity. The research includes human dignity and how this concept relates to human rights as defined by the United Nations (Andorno, 2009). Treating patients with dignity and recognition of worth and autonomy is another concept (Haddock, 1996). The concept of dignity is the ability to make decisions, maintaining self-esteem and self-

respect (Mairis, 1994). Batista describes dignity as the recognition of self-worth and value, the understanding that all one needs to have to accomplish one's dream or life goal is already deposited within a person. Essentially, to Batista (2014), recognition of dignity is the base of identity.

Integrity appears to be an easier concept for many to describe, yet there are many views of integrity, and little theoretical literature to provide support (Palanski & Yammarino, 2007). Informal conversation uses integrity for honesty, sound construction, and agreement within arguments. Batista (2014) used the term integrity to describe honesty and truthful interactions with others in society.

Freedom is yet another concept that means different ideas to different people. A quick glance at all the possibilities in an online search reveals freedom of choice (Klemisch-Ahlert, 1993), freedom of speech (Smolla, 2018; Chander & Lê, 2015), the ability to do whatever one wants (Wagner, 2017), to name a few. Many years ago, the current researcher was taught that freedom was the ability to do anything until it interfered with someone else's freedom to do anything. This definition implies that freedom shows respect for other people and, perhaps more importantly, respect for authority (Batista, 2011). Together, the values of dignity, integrity, and freedom form the core of Batista's (2011) identity theory. Once one recognizes one's identity one's self-concept not only grows, but also becomes strong.

Perhaps several of the oldest literary examples of self-concept and the value of dignity can be found in the Christian Bible or in the ancient Hebrew writings. The first example occurs in the book of Exodus with a man named Moses. Born of Hebrew slaves and raised by the daughter of Pharaoh, with the help of his natural mother, Moses grew to become a ruler in the land of Egypt. One day he killed a slave master who was mistreating the Hebrews and was

forced to flee into the desert. He meets a young woman named Zipporah; they raise a family and tend the sheep with her father, Jethro. In chapter four of Exodus, the reader discovers the self-concept of Moses. He understands that he has been selected to lead the Hebrew slaves to freedom, but he is full of doubt and fear and has a speech impediment of some type (Ex. 4:1; Ex. 4:10, NKJV). He was not confident that the Israelites would listen to him at all. In short, Moses had a low self-concept. It was so low, in fact, that his brother Aaron was sent to speak for him.

As the narrative progressed, Moses finally realized who he was. He spoke to Jethro to allow release from the sheep (Ex. 4:15, NKJV) and was given the task of performing the signs of God to the Pharaoh (Ex. 4:17, NKJV). Throughout Exodus 5 the narrative referred to "they" or "them" speaking to the Pharaoh, but beginning in Exodus 6 only Moses spoke, only Moses led, only Moses performed what the Egyptians saw as magic tricks and only Moses spoke face to face with God. The difference was that Moses finally discovered his identity and self-worth. He had the talent and the knowledge he needed deposited in him at birth, yet he had to come to the realization of what he had. The students in school need to know their potential and worth.

The biblical book of Judges relates a story of a man named Gideon who was of the least of the clans in his tribe of Manasseh (Judges 6:15, NKJV), yet he is greeted as a mighty man of valor (Judges 6:12, NKJV). Once again, low self-concept appeared. Gideon questioned why he would be the one chosen to lead the army against the oppressors; he is the least of tribe and family. He went on to lead a band of 300 as they defeated a much larger army and he became known as a judge or ruler in Israel. He discovered his identity and his dignity.

David, another biblical figure, had no real problem with dignity or identity. He went from tending sheep to being a king and was known as a "man after God's own heart" (1 Samuel 13:14, NKJV). David, however, is also an example of how integrity, or lack thereof, can affect

one's future. The story of David and Bath-Sheba has been told over and over, recounting that

David, as king, arranged for Bath-Sheba's husband to be killed in battle. What has not

emphasized is the fact that a trusted advisor to David, Ahithophel, was one of the first to defect

to support Absalom, David's rebellious son (2 Samuel 16:20, NKJV). Ahithophel was the father

of Bath-Sheba and had hatred for how David had treated Bath-Sheba and her husband (Douglas,

2009). David's lack of integrity had damaged a relationship's future. Awareness of possible

future consequences due to actions must be considered. David's actions had consequences that

extended beyond himself to his household and nation.

The central figure in the book of Daniel serves as another example of someone who knew

his identity and maintained a high self-concept. Throughout the narrative, one reads of the work

and faith that Daniel maintained. More importantly, is the sense of self-concept that he

exhibited. One could not blame Daniel if he had given into the demands of the king with the

threat of being placed in a lion's den, yet, he exhibited his integrity by standing by what he

believed and taught, triumphing over the situation (Daniel 6:16–24, NKJV). Because he was

strong in his self-concept and integrity, he was able to positively influence his companions when

they faced the choice of bowing to the king as a deity or maintaining their own integrity and

belief in their God (Daniel 3, NKJV). Daniel also serves as an example of how one's identity,

integrity, and dignity affect the future. In Daniel 1:3-21 (NKJV), one reads that Daniel and his

companions were tested, found to have integrity, and went on to serve the king with wisdom ten

times better than all of the other advisors. Because he demonstrated these qualities, he was

placed in a position that would enable him to teach the Persians about Jewish prophecy, thus

providing one possible explanation about the magi or wise men who came from the East to

celebrate the birth of Jesus (Matt. 2:1, NKJV). One never knows how one's actions will affect the future.

Zacchaeus (Luke 19:2-8, NKJV) provided one last lesson in self-esteem. The story relates that he was not a tall person, and climbed a tree just to see Jesus as he was passing through Jericho. As a tax collector, he was considered the lowest of the low and was someone who had cheated the people with excessive tax burdens (Luke 19:5, NKJV). Yet he recognized, finally, that he had to make amends for his deeds. The comment by Jesus that salvation had come to Zacchaeus (Luke 19:9, NKJV) implied that his self-concept also changed dramatically for the better. Students today must realize that their self-concept can improve, change, and propel them toward success.

The consideration of biblical examples of self-concept is not to teach a Bible lesson, but to illustrate how important one's self-concept truly can be to the life success of any individual. Studying the history of the Jewish people one more time, one can observe how social theory, group identity theory, and personal identity theory all play a part in the development of the Israelites into the nation of Israel, and how self-concept affected the development of the nation. In Numbers 13:33 (NKJV), all the spies that Moses sent into the Promised Land, except Joshua and Caleb, came back with a report of giants and how the spies viewed themselves as grasshoppers. Their low self-concept caused the Israelites to stay in the desert for 40 more years. The Bible is replete with examples of people making mistakes, yet finally discovering the gift within them and using that gift in a powerful way. Moses had a speech problem; Aaron led the people to a false god; David committed adultery; Solomon lost his way; Jacob was a deceiver; Rahab was a prostitute; Noah got drunk; Gideon was timid; Noah was filled with fear and doubt; Zacchaeus was a dishonest tax collector; Peter had a hot temper; Paul was a murderer of

Christians; yet each one of them eventually discovered the gift that was inside, the strength of purpose to move forward and confidence to act in the face of personal danger. All displayed high self-concept and achieved their purpose.

Summary

Behavioral theory, although widely researched, does not present any more than reasons or ideas as to why children behave or think the way they do, as the literature shows. Theory does not provide avenues of help. All of the prescriptive or descriptive theories are certainly necessary to help understanding, but the teacher, parent, therapist, or friend is left with no clear direction to find what will help the student, client, or friend. The additional question of moving beyond current behavior and thought patterns is not adequately addressed in all the literature.

The focus of the identity theory is to demonstrate that all the people have purpose and gifts deposited within them. The individual must not only accept that truth, but discover the purpose, potential, and greatness for life that is within. Everyone, no matter what talent is possessed, has the ability to make a positive difference in society. The videos used in the current study are designed to help that discovery.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

The study took place in two elementary schools of a larger South Texas school district located four to 10 miles north of the border between the United States and Mexico. The focus of the study was to determine if a brief animated video series on self-concept would help to improve the self-concept of Hispanic fifth-grade students. The district assigned the schools from which the convenience sample was taken. The individual building principals randomly assigned individual classrooms to either the control or treatment group.

Design

The current study used a quasi-experimental, non-equivalent control group design (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). This design was appropriate because participants in the treatment groups were chosen from a convenience sample and not randomly chosen or assigned by the current researcher (Gall et al., 2007). In addition to the study on self-concept, the school district encouraged a positive atmosphere and creativity through an emphasis on leadership (WISD staff, 2017), by using 7 Habits of Highly Effective People (Covey, 1989), 7 Habits of Happy Kids (Covey, 2008) and Principle Centered Leadership (Covey, 1990). The control and treatment groups were both given a self-concept measurement questionnaire using Harter's (2012) Self Perception Profile for Children, or SPPC, before and after the treatment period. The questionnaire was originally developed prior to the creation of the animated videos by Batista (2014); however, the concepts measured by the SPPC, particularly the global worth domain, measured the concept Batista was trying to develop in the videos, an understanding that the individual has worth and talents unique to one's self.

The independent variable was the self-concept video series on self-perception produced by Batista (2015). The video series shown, part of a much longer series, concentrated on dignity and self-concept and consisted of five video lessons. The first video introduced the concept of purpose and identity through the metaphor of a seed. The second video continued the idea of uniqueness of each person. Videos three through five continued to stress the uniqueness of each person and the understanding that each person has value. Video four specifically discussed how the concept of dignity enables one to resist bullying by other students. Video five reinforced video four while addressing self-worth and importance of excelling in school. The dependent variable was the score on the Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC) given to the control and treatment groups at the end of the treatment. Self-perception is a term that is used to define self-esteem and self-concept, which, in turn, are used to define self-perception (Conner & Wynne, 2016). Ultimately, self-perception is how one thinks and perceives the value of one's self.

The classrooms not viewing the video series continued the district's specified curriculum: Covey's (2017), *The Leader in Me*. The only difference in their schedule was the administration of the SPPC at the beginning and end of the treatment period.

The quasi-experimental, non-equivalent control group design allowed the comparison of changes that might have occurred during the experiment to either the treatment or control groups. This design further allowed the parsing out of individual groups based gender.

The independent variable was the video series on self-concept. The dependent variable was the score on the Global Self-Concept domain of the SPPC. In the study population, six students self-identified as non-Hispanic. The scores of those students were not included in the statistical analysis. The final study population was $N = 186$. The population of the control group

was $n_c = 108$, and $n_t = 78$. This population was sufficient to achieve a statistical power of 95%, with Cohen's $d = .5$ as calculated by G*Power 3 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). Inasmuch as all non-Hispanics were deleted from the data, all subgroups were 100% Hispanic.

A few threats to the validity of the study existed. Possibly the most serious was test sensitivity. The instrument was validated in 2003 (Muris, Meesters, & Fijen, 2003); however, the developer of the test did not recommend extending a pre-/post-test scenario beyond 30 days due to the many changes that can occur within the student (Harter, personal communication December 1, 2016). The developer of the test indicated that an interval much longer than 30 days would be a greater threat than test sensitivity and relied upon internal validity as measured by Cronbach's alpha (Harter, 2012). This issue is discussed more at length later in this chapter.

Another possible threat could have been cultural. The instrument being used was validated with a Caucasian population. However, research from various countries (Bayani, 2016; Chae, 2015; Cavazos-Rehg & DeLucia-Waa, 2009; Coelho, et al., 2016) would suggest that the issues surrounding self-concept are universal. Batista's (2011) identity theory was originally developed in the Spanish language, yet, the concepts of dignity, integrity and freedom are equally applicable in English speaking societies. Due to the location of the school district close to the border of the United States and Mexico, the language and cultural threats were less due to the high percentage of Hispanic students. The videos did have to be remastered into English voices with the Spanish text left intact to meet any language barrier that might exist. The Spanish text that remained was read in English by one of the characters on the video.

Social threats caused by the daily interaction of the participants were impossible to control. Due to the rather brief duration of the treatment period, diffusion or imitation by the students due to student interaction was not a problem. The time element reduced any possible

resentment between groups that could have developed since only the treatment group saw the short-animated videos. The proposed time frame eliminated any possible attempts at equalization by the staff between the groups. The video series was offered for viewing to the classes not seeing the video series at the end of the project, but the individual teachers ultimately decided whether or not to show the series.

A potential threat to the validity of the study rested in the maturation of the students. However, the manual (Harter, 2012) pointed out that validation and consistency studies were made with a 30-day time interval. Since the current study was completed very close to the studied time frame, the threat, if it existed, was minimal.

The independent variable was the animated video series and the dependent variable was the score on the SPPC. The scores were examined on a whole group basis, and by gender to test for differences that might have occurred.

Research Question 1

RQ1: Is there a difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade students who saw a video series on self-concept at the end of the experiment when compared to the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade students who did not see the video series on self-concept.

Null Hypotheses

H$_0$1: There will be no statistically significant difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade students who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade students who did not see the video series on self-concept.

H$_0$2: There will be no statistically significant difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade girls who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade girls who did not see the video series on self-concept.

H₀3: There will be no statistically significant difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade boys who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade boys who did not see the video series on self-concept.

Research Question 2

RQ2: Is there a statistically significant difference in the Global Self Worth scores as measured on the Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC) of Hispanic fifth-grade students after seeing a video series on self-concept?

Null Hypothesis

H₀4: There is no statistically significant difference in the Global Self Worth scores as measured on the SPPC of Hispanic fifth-grade students after seeing a video series on self-concept.

Participants and Setting

The participants for the study were drawn from a convenience sample of fifth-grade students from two elementary schools of a larger South Texas school district during the 2017 school year. The district consisted of two high schools, three middle schools and eleven elementary schools (WISD staff, 2017). The total population of the district was approximately 19,000 students, with over 2,000 teachers. The district and the county met the guidelines for the school district to provide 100% free participation in the school lunch program. The district was in a county with ethnic demographic of 90% Hispanic/Mexican and 8% Caucasian. The remaining 2% population is composed of all other races and ethnicities (US Census Bureau, 2013). The state education agency reported in 2015 that 20,898 achievement tests were given in the district, which would represent the entire student population. Of those students, 20,579

(98%) reported as Hispanic, 238 (1%) reported as White, non-Hispanic, and 81 students were either African American, Asian, or American Indian (Texas Education Agency, 2017).

The total sample population consisted of 238 students, which allowed the treatment group and the control group to number approximately 119. The students were assigned by the district to 12 different classrooms in two different elementary school buildings, six classrooms in each building. The classrooms were randomly assigned by the principal to either the treatment group or the control group. Prior to beginning the study, each student took home a letter in English and Spanish, giving the parents the opportunity to opt out their child from the study.

The permission letter generated some misunderstanding, which resulted in several students not participating in the study at one school, and a few parents at the second school did wish to opt out. After removing the non-Hispanic participants, the final study population for the control group was $n_c = 104$ and $n_t = 78$ in the treatment group. Despite this issue, the study sample was still sufficient enough to show results having a statistical power of .95, using an effect size based on Cohen's $d = .5$ and an alpha level of $\alpha = .05$ as calculated using G*Power 3 (Faul et al., 2007). The average age of the control and treatment groups was 10 years.

Instrumentation

The instrumentation for the study was the Self-Perception Profile for Children (Harter 2012). The instrument, developed at the University of Denver, measured the self-worth/self-esteem of the students and has been independently validated by using Cronbach's alpha ratio (Muris et al., 2003; Van Dongen-Melman, Koot, & Verhulst, 1993). The instrument consisted of 36 statements. The participant was to read the statement and decide first if this statement described him or her. The statements were structured in a "this but that" format as shown in Figure 2 and represented opposite views of the same idea. As an example, in Figure 2, statement

12 asks how the participant views their life style. Once the participant decided if or if not he or she liked the life they led, then the participant had to determine how strongly the statement describes those views. The participant did not see the numbers, only empty boxes. The example in Figure 2 also illustrates the scoring values for recording and calculating the overall domain value. In the examples shown in Figure 2, question 11 is stated in a positive manner, while question 12 reflects a negative version of a statement.

| 11. | 4 | 3 | Some kids usually do the right thing | BUT | Other kids often don't do the right thing | 2 | 1 |
| 12. | 1 | 2 | Some kids don't like the way they are leading their life | BUT | Other kids *do* like the way they are leading their life | 3 | 4 |

Figure 2. Sample Questions with scoring values (Harter, 2012)

The Self-Perception Profile for Children was originally developed in 1985 as a method to measure the self-esteem of children and was most recently revised in 2012. The instrument is part of a suite of similar instruments designed for different age groups with age appropriate language. The purpose of the instrument was to measure the self-concept of the participant. This fit perfectly with the goal of the current study. The SPPC was designed for children in Grades 3-8.

The instrument was scored on a four-choice scale. The student read a sentence and decided if the first part of the sentence or the last part of the sentence provided the best overall self-description. The student then decided if the sentence was really true or only marginally true personally. Only one response per item was requested. The statements were set in both positive and negative wording, as shown in Figure 2. Each statement choice had a specific value from 1 to 4 assigned to it in the scoring key, as shown in Figure 2. The statements were all related to the six domains of the instrument, and were mixed to not give the student a sense of what might be expected for an answer. Figure 2 illustrates examples of positive and negative statements along

with the scoring values for each statement type. The individual statement scores ranged from 1to

4 with the items reversed scored for negative statements. The scores for each domain could then

be analyzed for differences and an indication of how the student's self-perception. Only the

domain labeled Global Self Worth was considered for purposes of the current study.

The instrument was scored following the specific instructions in the manual and followed

the scoring calculation sheet shown on page 37 of the manual (Harter, 2012). The answer values

for each question were entered in SPSSv24 program and the mean values for each domain for

each student were then calculated (IBM Corp., 2016). The mean values provided a glimpse into

what each student thought of him/herself. Since the domains are not interdependent, the Global

Self Worth domain was considered independently. The instrument also measured a student's

self-view of Scholastic, Behavior, Physical Appearance, Social, and Athletic self-competencies

(Harter, 2012). While all the domains relate to Batista's theory (2011), the Global Self Worth

domain measured self-concept specifically, which was the focus of the specific videos shown.

Each domain indicated a glimpse of how the participant viewed personal ability or confidence in

each area. The time for the test was approximately 35 minutes. If the student's name had been

revealed, the profile sheet on page 40 of the manual could have been used to report the general

strength of each domain to the parents on a graph that ranged from 1 to 4. Only the Global Self

Worth domain was used to gauge the success of the present study.

The manual reported the results for six sample groups. The mean scores for each group

hovered around 3 for both boys and girls, indicating a generally positive view of self. The

Cronbach's alpha was approximately .80 for each domain, indicating the instrument maintained a

reasonable reliability. The reliability of the instrument was reported by the manual as follows:

"We have relied primarily upon internal consistency indices of reliability (i.e., Cronbach's

alpha)" (Harter, p.12). The reliability numbers averaged approximately .80. The reliability coefficient for Global Self-Worth ranged from .78 to .87. In an independent study of the validity of the instrument, Granleese & Joseph (1993) reported averages and standard deviations at close to the same level, but the statistics showed a much more consist result. No further validation studies were performed after 2003, as confirmed by Harter (Harter, personal communication, December 1, 2016).

Procedures

The superintendent of the school district was contacted with a formal request to be allowed to do the study and school approval was obtained (Appendix A). After that approval, IRB approval was requested and granted (Appendix B). Following the established procedures of the district, approval was obtained from the principals of each building by the superintendent and the board of education prior to allowing the study to move forward. The teachers were contacted verbally by both the principals and the researcher to ensure that the study would not interfere with the established flow of the curriculum.

Following approval by the district, information letters and permission requests were given to the teachers to give to the students for the parents to sign and return only if the parents did not want their child to participate (opt out). The students were requested to give the letters to the parents and bring them back signed within three days if the parent wished to not have their child participate in the study. Those parents who did send back a letter were contacted individually by the principal to ensure they understood what they signed. Because the letters approved by the IRB did state that the parents could remove their child from the study at any time, a parent could opt out after the three-day waiting period. No parent exercised this option. The letters were in Spanish and English because some of the parents did not speak or read

English (see Appendix C for both letters).

During a one-hour period designated by each host school, the teachers were briefed on the procedure they were to follow during the research time frame. The briefing included instructions for the SPPC procedures. The instructions further included how to read the script, passing out and collecting the survey forms, and the instructions that the students were not to put their names on the page, only gender and race or ethnicity. The SPPC survey took 35 minutes at most. The forms were then placed in the envelope provided and returned to the principal from whom the researcher gathered the forms for processing.

The teachers of the treatment group seeing the videos were given instructions about showing the self-concept videos, which were made available to each classroom at both schools through the district's Google Classroom site (see Appendix D). The teachers were provided a script to read prior to showing the self-concept video each week (see Appendix E). No instruction beyond reading the script was necessary for the teacher as this study was to only observe the effect of the self-concept video series. The classrooms of the control group, those not seeing the video, continued with the specified school curriculum, interrupted only by the administration of the instrument.

On the first Monday of the project, all classes took the SPPC to provide a base score for all students. The principals chose to show the first video the next day, with the remaining videos shown on the next four Mondays. The subject of video one was recognizing that a person has an identity and purpose; video two was the values that one has, giving thoughts and advice to help one grow; video three discussed how values and dignity help protect against dangerous friendships; video four encouraged standing strong against bullying by recognizing one's dignity; video five continued video four by explaining how dignity helps one be strong and grow

healthy. Since each room had network access, the teacher only needed to play the self-concept video from the district's Google Classroom site and continue with the class when the video finished.

The classrooms not showing the video continued with the routine specified by the school district: Covey's (2017), *The Leader in Me*. The only difference to the routine that the students followed was the administration of the SPPC at the beginning and at the end of the treatment period.

The Tuesday after the five self-concept videos were played, the teachers in the classrooms of the treatment and control groups distributed the SPPC instrument and followed the script. Once the SPPC was completed, the teacher collected the questionnaire, returned the questionnaires, script and instructions to the principal and continued with class. The researcher came after school to collect the envelopes with the SPPC materials. The entire time frame for the current study was five weeks, as some accommodations had to be made to fit the school district schedule.

Data Analysis

Because the results of the control and treatment groups consisted of skewed distributions, the data analysis comparing the groups in this convenience sample was done with the Mann-Whitney U test. These skewed distributions violated the normalcy assumption and prevented the use of a *t*-test or other parametric procedures. As a result, the violation necessitated the use of nonparametric statistical procedures which are more robust in the presence of this violation (Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013). The independent variable was the five-video series on self-concept. The dependent variable was the Global Self Worth post-test score derived from the SPPC to be compared to the pre-test scores.   A histogram of the results was generated, and the Kolmogorov-

Smirnov procedure was used to test for normality, since the number of participants was more

than 50. Levene's test for equal variance was also performed, as equal variance was an

assumption for the Mann-Whitney U. The size of the sample population allowed a statistical

power of 95% at $p = .05$ as calculated by G*Power 3 (Faul et al., 2007).

Data screening procedures included boxplots of each group to examine the data for

outliers. The primary anomaly would be for averages less than 1. This would indicate a

participant did not complete all the items in the questionnaire. An average score of 1 or 4 would

be possible, although unlikely, as this would require the participant to mark all the answers with

values of either a 1 or 4.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

The study took place in two elementary schools of a larger South Texas school district located four to 10 miles north of the border between the United States and Mexico. The focus of the study was to determine if a brief animated video series on self-concept would help to improve the self-concept of fifth-grade students. The district assigned the schools and the classrooms to be used in the study. Chapter Four presents the results of the experiment.

Descriptive Statistics

The research project took place in a South Texas school district very close to the border between the United States and Mexico. The county demographics indicated that 90% of the population was of Hispanic origin (Demographics of Hidalgo County, 2013) The host district reported a demographic of 98% Hispanic (WISD, 2015). Two schools were assigned by the assistant superintendent to participate in the research. One school had a fifth-grade population of 123 and the other school and the other school of 115, or a total sample population 238, ensuring a statistical power of .95 and an effect size of $d = .05$, as calculated by G*Power 3 (Faul et al., 2007). The invitation letters were sent home with the students to inform the parents of the project in which the parents were given the option to have their child be opted out of the project. The letters strictly followed the template letter published by Liberty University (Appendix C).

Due to a misunderstanding of the project, a parent at one school attempted to stop the project through the opt out procedure. The school principal attempted to explain the project, but no contact by the researcher was allowed. Additionally, there were a few other parents at the second school choosing to opt the child out, which resulted in a final study population of 192; 114 for the control group and 78 for the treatment group. Using G*Power 3 (Faul et al., 2007), it

was determined that the resulting population, N=192, would yield results with a statistical power

of .95, and an effect size of d = .05. Based upon that criteria, the project proceeded as planned.

The research project lasted six weeks, beginning in early October and ending in

November. At the host site's direction, the classroom teachers handled gathering all the data as

well as showing the videos. The total study population taking the pre-test was N=192. The

number taking the post-test was N=192. There were 100 males and 92 females taking both tests.

After the results were tabulated, it was discovered that two female participants and four male

participants in the control group were non-Hispanic. All the participants in the treatment group

identified as Hispanic. Since the study was focused on the Hispanic participants, the scores of

the non-Hispanic participants were deleted from the database and G*Power (Faul et al., 2007)

calculated the statistical power of the remaining study population, N=186, at 95% and d = .05.

The descriptive statistics for the control group (n = 108, M = 3.336, SD = .624, Skew = -1.056)

and the treatment group (n = 78, M = 3.282, SD = .611, Skew = -1.367) are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Control and Treatment Groups Pre-Test

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Control Pre	108	3.3356	.06001	.62366	-1.056	.233
Treatment Pre	78	3.2821	.06924	.61152	-1.367	.272
Valid N (listwise)	78					

Table 2

Normality Tests for Control and Treatment Groups

Tests of Normality

|	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
Control Pre	.166	78	.000
Treatment Pre	.187	78	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 3

Equality of Variance Test Between Control and Treatment Groups on Pre-Test

Test of Homogeneity of Variance

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PreTest	Based on Mean	.588	1	184	.444
	Based on Median	.350	1	184	.555
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.350	1	183.836	.555
	Based on trimmed mean	.780	1	184	.378

In practical terms, this skewed distribution was desirable in that it indicated a higher level of self-concept in these students. Statistically, however, this skewed distribution violated the normal distribution assumption of the independent *t*-test as shown by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test in Table 3. This required the use of a non-parametric test, the Mann-Whitney U, to examine the scores on the pre-test and post-test. The histograms in Figure 3 display the distribution of the control and treatment scores used to test the pre-test condition.
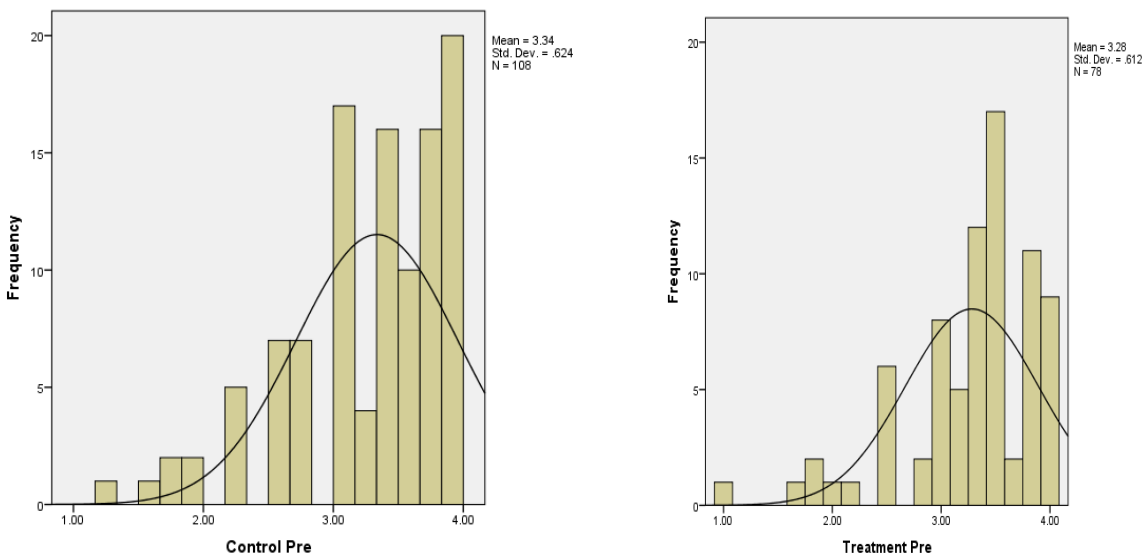
Figure 3. Score distribution of control and treatment groups at beginning of project.

Table 4

Comparison of Pretest Scores for Control and Treatment Groups using Mann-Whitney U

Ranks

	Ctrl or Treat	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
PreTest	Control	108	95.77	10343.00
	Treatment	78	90.36	7048.00
	Total	186		

Table 5

Pre-test Statistics for Control and Treatment Groups

Test Statistics[a]

	PreTest
Mann-Whitney U	3967.000
Wilcoxon W	7048.000
Z	-.681
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.496

a. Grouping Variable: Ctrl or Treat

Research Question 1

RQ1: Is there a difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade students who saw a video series on self-concept at the end of the experiment when compared to the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade students who did not see the video series on self-concept?

Null Hypotheses

H$_0$1: There will be no statistically significant difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade students who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade students who did not see the video series on self-concept.

H$_0$2: There will be no statistically significant difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade girls who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the fifth-grade girls who did not see the video series on self-concept.

H$_0$3: There will be no statistically significant difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade boys who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the fifth-grade boys who did not see the video series on self-concept.

Research Question 2

RQ2: Is there a statistically significant difference in the Global Self Worth scores as measured on the Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC) of fifth-grade Hispanic students after seeing a video series on self-concept?

Null Hypothesis

H$_0$4: There is no statistically significant difference in the Global Self Worth scores as measured on the SPPC of fifth-grade Hispanic students after seeing a video series on self-concept.

Results

The assumption of random participation assignment to either control or treatment group was met through the use of a convenience sample of fifth-grade students. The host district assigned the buildings to be used in the experiment, and the principals randomly chose the classrooms to be either treatment or control groups. The students were assigned to the classrooms on a random, heterogenous basis. Since the random assignment occurred within the district, the assumption of randomness was not violated.

The assumption of normal distribution was violated. As shown in Table 1, the skewness statistics for the Control and Treatment groups were -1.056 ($SE = .233$) and -1.367 ($SE = .272$), respectively. Table 2 shows the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, showing significant skewness ($p < .05$). The skewed results were desirable outcome for the students, but the skewed distribution prevented the use of parametric statistical analysis.

To ensure that the treatment group and control group began at the same level, an analysis of the pre-test using the Mann-Whitney U was run, as shown in Tables 3 and 4. Since part of each group was in two different elementary buildings, further assurance of equality between the groups was necessary. An assumption of the Mann-Whitney U test is that equality of variance

existed between the treatment and control groups. A nonparametric procedure of Levene's Test

of Homogeneity was used to test for equal variances between the groups. As shown in Table 4,

Levene's Statistic, based on the Median and adjusted degrees of freedom was .350 and $p = .555$.

Since $p > .05$, the researcher did not reject the assumption of equal variance for the Mann-

Whitney U test. Based upon the results for the Mann-Whitney U shown (U = 3967, $Z = -.681$,

$p = .496$), the assumption of equal variance is tenable.

<div align="center">

Null Hypothesis One

</div>

H$_0$1: There will be no statistically significant difference between the SPPC scores of the

Hispanic fifth-grade students who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC

scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade students who did not see the video series on self-concept.

To test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the control and

treatment groups, a Mann-Whitney U procedure was run using IBM SPSSv24 (IBM Corp., 2016)

because the normality assumption was violated. The descriptive data for the control group was

$M = 3.336$, $SD = .623$, and n = 108 and for the treatment group was, $M = 3.282$, $SD = .612$, and

$n = 78$, as shown in Table 5. The mean rank for the control group was 92.49, and the mean rank

for the treatment group was 94.90 as shown in Table 6. The result was ($U(185) = 4103$, $Z = -$

.303, $p = .762$) showed that since $p > .05$, there is no statistically significant difference between

the control and treatment groups.

Table 6

Descriptive Data for Control and Treatment Group Post-Test.

Summary Data

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control - Post Test	108.000	3.336	.623	.060
Treatment - Post Test	78.000	3.282	.612	.069

Table 7

Test Results Comparing Control and Treatment Group Post-Test Scores.

Ranks

	Ctrl or Treat	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Post Test	Control	108	92.49	9989.00
	Treatment	78	94.90	7402.00
	Total	186		

Table 8

Mann-Whitney Results for Control and Treatment Group Post-Test Scores

Test Statistics[a]

	Post Test
Mann-Whitney U	4103.000
Wilcoxon W	9989.000
Z	-.303
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.762

a. Grouping Variable: Ctrl or Treat

Figure 4 displays the comparison of post-test scores of the control and treatment groups. Visually, the distribution seems to be significantly different, but Table 7 demonstrates there is no statistical significance between the two groups. Based upon the data shown, the researcher failed to reject null hypothesis one ($H_0$1).
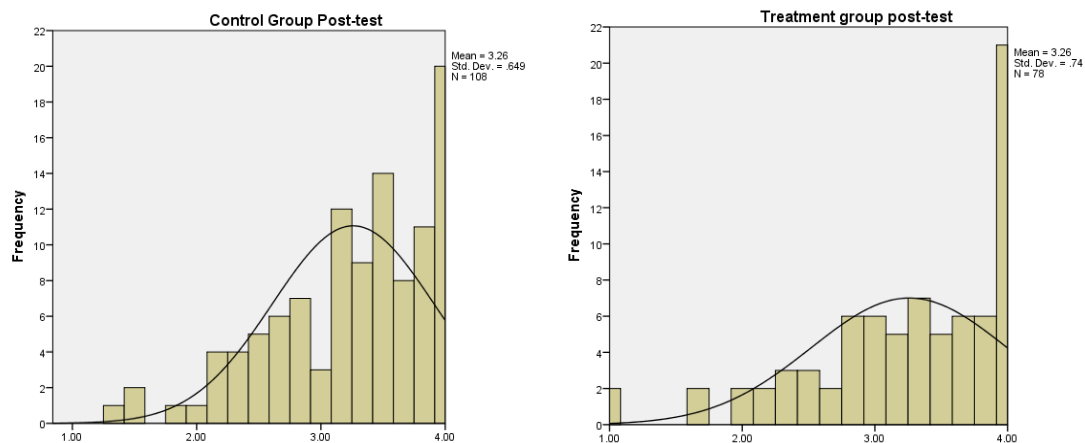

Figure 4. Graphic comparison of control and treatment post-test scores.

Null Hypothesis Two

$H_0$2: There will be no statistically significant difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade girls who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade girls who did not see the video series on self-concept.

To test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the control and treatment groups, a Mann-Whitney U procedure was run using IBM SPSSv24 (IBM Corp., 2016) because the normality assumption was violated. The descriptive data for the control group was, $M = 3.426$, $SD = .571$, and $n = 59$, and for the treatment group was, $M = 3.180$, and $SD = .865$, $n = 26$ as shown in Table 8. The mean rank for the control group was 45.07, and the mean rank for the treatment group was 41.48 as shown in Table 9. The result ($U = 727.5$, $Z = -.614$, $p = .539$) showed that since $p > .05$, there is no statistically significant difference between the control and treatment groups.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics for Female Control and Treatment Groups Post-Test

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Ctrl female post	59	1.50	4.00	3.4266	.57090	-1.190	.311
Treat female post	26	1.00	4.00	3.1795	.86528	-.962	.456
Valid N (listwise)	26						

Table 10

Mann-Whitney U Ranking for Female Control and Treatment Post-Test

Ranks

	Female Ctrl & Treat	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Female Posttest	Female Control	61	45.07	2749.50
	Female Treatment	26	41.48	1078.50
	Total	87		

Table 11

Mann-Whitney U Results for Female Control and Treatment Groups

Test Statistics[a]

	Female Posttest
Mann-Whitney U	727.500
Wilcoxon W	1078.500
Z	-.614
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.539

a. Grouping Variable: Female Ctrl & Treat

 Figure 5 displays the comparison of female post-test scores of the control and treatment groups. Visually, the distribution seems to be significantly different, but Table 10 demonstrates there is no statistical significance between the two groups. Based on the data presented, the researcher failed to reject null hypothesis two (H_02).
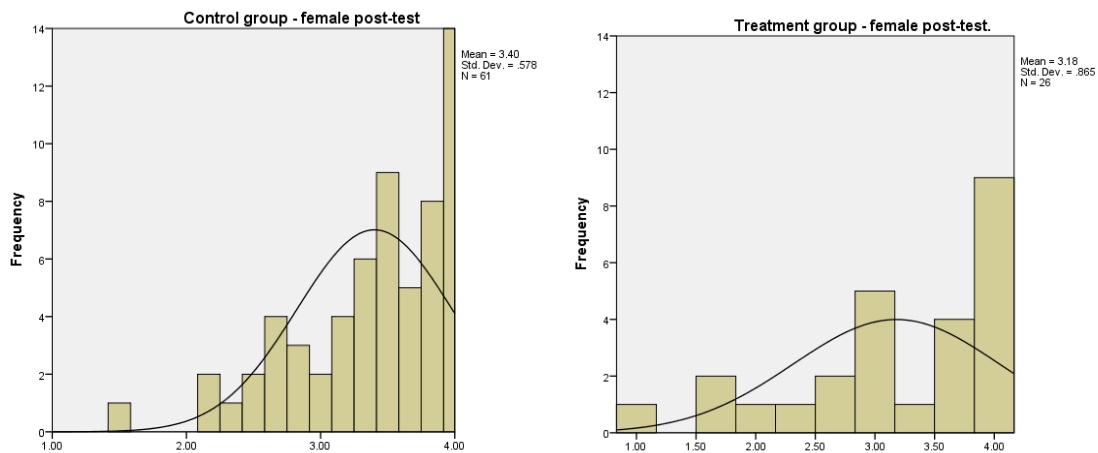

Figure 5. Histogram of control and treatment group female post-test scores.

Null Hypothesis Three

H$_0$3: There will be no statistically significant difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade boys who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade boys who did not see the video series on self-concept.

To test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the control and treatment groups, a Mann-Whitney U procedure was run using IBM SPSSv24 (IBM Corp., 2016) because the normality assumption was violated. The descriptive data for the control group was, $M = 3.064$, and $SD = .687$, $n = 48$ and for the treatment group was, $M = 3.253$, and $SD = .682$, $n = 48$ as shown in Table 11. The mean rank for the control group was 44.53, and the mean rank for the treatment group was 52.47 as shown in Table 9. The result ($U = 961.5$, $Z = -1.403$, $p = .160$) showed that since $p > .05$, there is no statistically significant difference between the control and treatment groups.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for Male Post-Test Scores of Control and Treatment Groups

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Ctrl male post	48	1.33	4.00	3.0694	.68747	-.571	.343
Treat male post	48	1.00	4.00	3.2535	.68243	-.976	.343
Valid N (listwise)	48						

Table 13

Male Post-Test Rank Statistics for Mann-Whitney U Test

Ranks

	Male Ctrl or Treat	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Male Post-Test	Male Control	48	44.53	2137.50
	Male Treatment	48	52.47	2518.50
	Total	96		

Table 14

Mann-Whitney U Results for Male Control and Treatment Groups

Test Statistics[a]

	Male Post-Test
Mann-Whitney U	961.500
Wilcoxon W	2137.500
Z	-1.403
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.160

a. Grouping Variable: Male Ctrl or Treat

Figure 6 displays the comparison of male post-test scores of the control and treatment groups. Visually, the distribution seems to be significantly different, but Table 13 demonstrates there is no statistical significance between the two groups. Based on the data presented, the researcher failed to reject null hypothesis three ($H_0 3$).
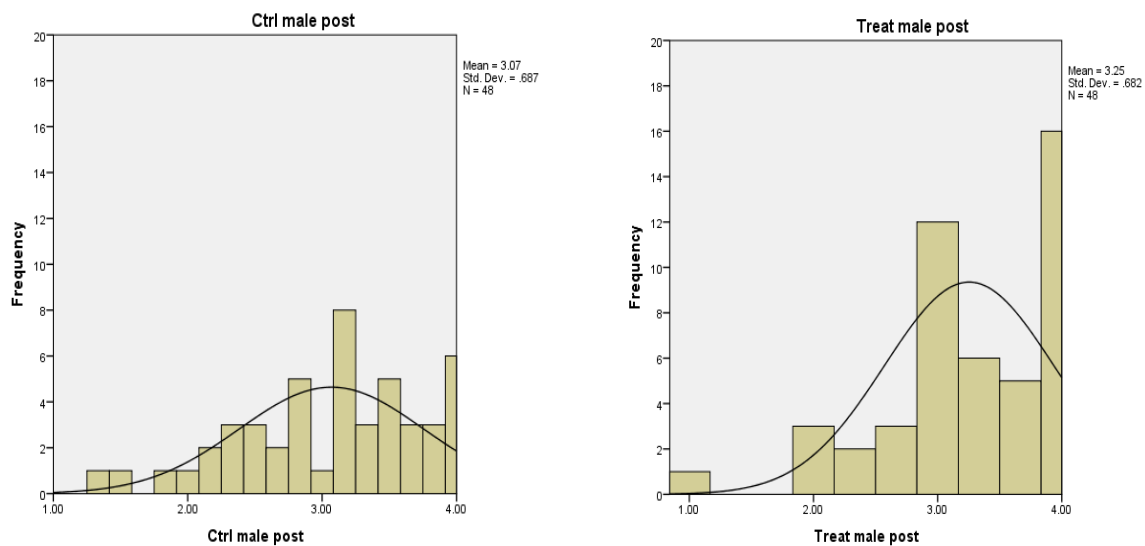

Figure 6. Male post-test scores for control and treatment groups

Null Hypothesis Four

H$_0$4: There is no statistically significant difference in the Global Self Worth scores as measured on the SPPC of fifth-grade Hispanic students who saw a video series on self-concept.

This question and hypothesis brings attention to differences between the pre-test and post-test scores within the treatment group. To test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the treatment group, a Mann-Whitney U procedure was run using IBM SPSSv24 (IBM Corp., 2016) because the normality assumption was violated as shown in Table 14. The descriptive data for the treatment group pre-test was, M = 3.282, and SD = 0.612, n = 78 and for the treatment group posttest was, M = 3.248, and SD = .737, n = 78, as shown in Table 15. The mean rank for the treatment group pre-test was 77.29, and the mean rank for the treatment group posttest was 79.71 as shown in Table 16. The result (U = 2947.5, Z = -.337, p = .736), as shown in Table 17. Since p > .05, there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores.

Table 15

Normality Tests for Treatment Group Pre-Test and Post-Test

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
Treatment Pre Test	.187	78	.000
Treatment Post Test	.154	78	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics for Treatment Group Pre-Test and Post-Test

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Treatment Pre Test	78	3.28205	.611522	-1.367	.272
Treatment Post Test	78	3.24786	.737446	-1.035	.272
Valid N (listwise)	78				

Table 17

Mann-Whitney U Ranking for Treatment Group Pre-Test and Post-Test

Ranks

	Pre/Post Treat	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Pre/Post Treat Scores	Pre-Test	78	77.29	6028.50
	Post-Test	78	79.71	6217.50
	Total	156		

Table 18

Mann-Whitney U Results for Treatment Group Pre-Test and Post-Test

Test Statistics[a]

	Pre/Post Treat Scores
Mann-Whitney U	2947.500
Wilcoxon W	6028.500
Z	-.337
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.736

a. Grouping Variable: Pre/Post Treat

Figure 7 displays the comparison of treatment group pre- and posttest scores. Visually, the distribution seems to be significantly different, but Table 17 demonstrates that there is no statistical significance between the pre-test and post-test. Based on the data presented, the researcher failed to reject null hypothesis four ($H_0 4$).
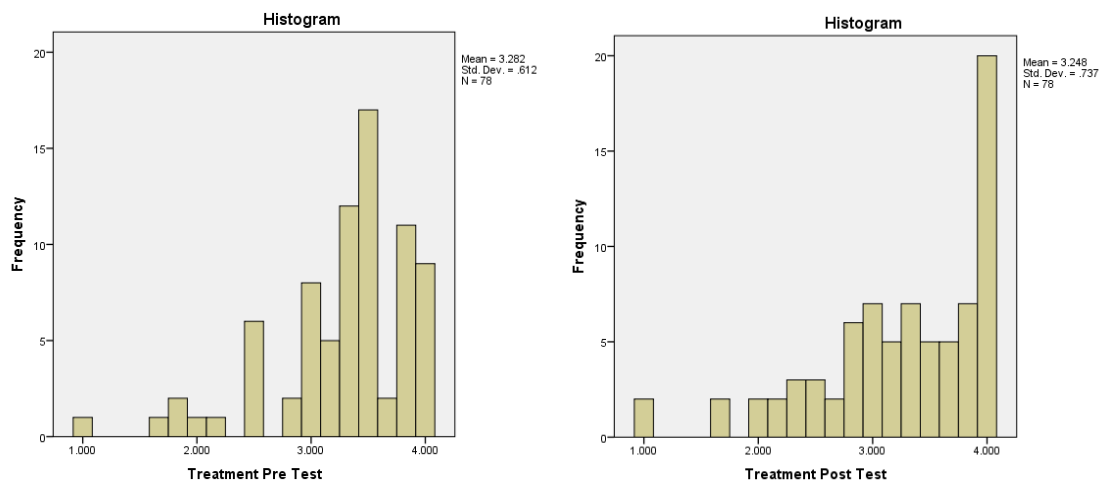

Figure 7. Treatment group pre- and posttest score distribution

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

The study took place in two elementary schools of a larger South Texas school district located four to 10 miles north of the border between the United States and Mexico. The focus of the study was to determine if a brief animated video series on self-concept would help to improve the self-concept of fifth-grade students. The district assigned the schools and the classrooms to be used in the study. Chapter Five presents a discussion of the results.

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to examine if the use of Batista's (2015) brief animated videos on the identity theory lessons one through five (Batista, 2011) shown to fifth-grade Hispanic students would help to increase the self-concept that each student possessed.

The students were then shown one short video each week in an effort to bring the students a realization of the value they already had within themselves and to improve their self-concept. The research question gave rise to the first hypothesis investigated whether or not the videos would show an increase in self-concept as measured by the SPPC (Harter, 2012). The literature review also showed that two specific demographic groups, females and Hispanics, were especially at-risk for a self-concept drop during the transition from elementary school to middle school (McClure et al., 2010). The study population was 99% Hispanic with only six students identifying as non-Hispanic. The data for these six participants was not included in any of the statistical analysis. Additionally, only Hispanic male and female participants were included in statistical analysis.

H$_0$1: There will be no statistically significant difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade students who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade students who did not see the video series on self-concept.

The results of the analysis showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups at the end of the video series. The purpose of the research was to examine the effect of the video series only.

H$_0$2: There will be no statistically significant difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade girls who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade girls who did not see the video series on self-concept.

The results of the analysis showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups at the end of the video series. The purpose of the research was to examine the effect of the video series only.

H$_0$3: There will be no statistically significant difference between the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade boys who saw a video series on self-concept compared to the SPPC scores of the Hispanic fifth-grade boys who did not see the video series on self-concept.

The results of the analysis showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups at the end of the video series. The purpose of the research was to examine the effect of the video series only.

H$_0$4: There is no statistically significant difference in the Global Self Worth scores as measured on the SPPC of fifth-grade Hispanic students who saw a video series on self-concept.

Hypothesis four was tested using the pre-test and post-test scores of the treatment group only. The group was viewed as one entity. The results of the analysis showed that there was no statistically significant difference within the treatment group at the end of the video series.

To achieve maximum results and affect the students, the teachers and, ideally, the parents need to be involved (Batista, 2011). Training both teachers and parents to overcome negative cultural, habitual, critical, and often unconscious speech habits is necessary (Hill, 2015). The recognition of one's worth, importance, talent, and intelligence are factors in the academic success of the students (Kahaola, 2014).

When considering if the current study supported or contradicted previous literature or research, one encounters a distinct lack of research using a video approach. Other than television programs such as Sesame Street, individual videos are scarce. Fat Albert and the Cosby Kids (Cosby, 1976) were actually presented as an enhancement to the elementary school curriculum in an effort to increase learning. Cosby did develop a questionnaire in which he asked the viewer to evaluate the social impact of the videos along with several other criteria (Cosby, 1976). In general, Cosby reported that the videos were positively reviewed by the sample population, but how effective they were at learning or changing attitudes was unclear.

The Covey organization has recognized the effect that self-concept has on students and developed a curriculum called, *The Leader in Me* (Franklin Covey Inc., 2017). Through this program, the student is encouraged to find the "leader within," or to develop the confidence to accomplish the dreams and desires the student has. According to the website, this program encourages each student to understand that one is in charge of one's own life (Franklin Covey Inc., 2017). The program is based upon The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People (Covey, 1989) and the Seven Habits of Happy Kids (Covey, 2008).

The present study only considered the effect that the video series alone might have on the students compared to those who did not see the videos. The video series was five episodes in length and no further interaction with the students was directed or anticipated. The worth of the

program and the identity theory in general is based upon research by Batista (2011) and

confidential reports from counselors using it. However, for purposes of the present study only,

the conclusion must be that a video series of five videos, each only one to four minutes in length,

shown once per week, had no statistically significant effect on the global self-concept of

Hispanic fifth-grade students. The treatment group scores were analyzed using a Mann-Whitney

U procedure within IBM SPSSv24 (IBM Corp., 2016) because the normality assumption was

violated. The treatment group pre-test descriptive statistics were $M = 3.282$, $SD = 0.612$, and

$n = 78$, and for the treatment group posttest, $M = 3.248$, $SD = .737$, and $n = 78$ as shown in Table

15. The mean rank for the treatment group pre-test was 77.29, and the mean rank for the

treatment group posttest was 79.71 as shown in Table 16. The result ($U = 2947.5$, $Z = -.337$, $p =$

.736), as shown in Table 17. Since $p > .05$, there is no statistically significant difference between

the pre-test and post-test scores.

Implications

The use of the identity theory in its entirety may have the potential to change or improve

the self-concept the students internalize about themselves on a broad classroom application.

That potential has been demonstrated in individual therapy sessions (Hill, 2015), but no long

term study of larger groups over the course of a school year has been undertaken. The youth

with whom the present researcher comes into contact are often adrift, wondering what abilities or

skills they have, not recognizing the gifts and talents they have. From observation, the culture in

which the students lived appeared to encourage a *win at all costs* or an *I am worthless* type of

attitude.

However, the results of the pre-test and post-test for both the control and treatment

groups showed that approximately 1/4 to 1/3 of the respondents already perceived themselves as

having a high global self-concept, potentially as a result of the pre-existing *The Leader in Me* curriculum. As such, the distribution of scores of all samples (pre-test and post-test for both the control and treatment groups) were negatively and substantially skewed. While having a large percentage of self-concept scores on the pre-test of 4 out of 4 is indicative of a pre-existing, high self-concept, this resulted in a ceiling effect related to the instrument. Therefore, the inability of the instrument to report additional increases in self-concept for many of the participants on the post-test translates to a limitation of the resulting data in the study in that first the instrument was not sensitive enough to detect an increase in self-concept scores, and secondly, the potential for a Type II error is indicated. As a result, the statistical analysis for the current study required the use of the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U due to the violation of the normal distribution assumption. Although the Mann-Whitney U is robust to violations of normal distribution, any potential effects as a result of the treatment may not have been detected. Therefore, any absence of statistical significance may, in fact, have been due to the insensitivity of the instrument due to ceiling effect rather than a lack of effect due to the treatment.

Limitations

The current study was limited by a few factors. First and foremost, the instrument used to evaluate the self-concept appeared to have been a limiting factor. The range of answers and scoring did not allow enough detail to avoid the skewing that occurred. The responses indicated a generally high self-concept for many of the students, and created a ceiling effect, which forced the use of the Mann-Whitney U nonparametric statistical procedure.

The study was also limited by the size of the population. For statistical analysis, the size of the current study was sufficient; however, a much larger and longer study could give a better indication of the effectiveness of the Batista (2014) videos when used in a large application.

The student participants themselves could present a deterrent to completely reliable information. In any survey or questionnaire situation, such as the current study, the researcher is ultimately dependent upon the participant giving a truthful, relevant answer. If the students decided that they were going to try to give irrelevant answers or approach the questionnaire with an attitude of *so what?,* then the data received is not entirely reliable. While the researcher is not suggesting this happened, it is a factor to consider.

A final factor to consider is the classroom environment and procedure. Even though the teachers were given an in-service training as to the process of the experiment, there was still no way to completely control the events in the classroom. Some teachers may have enhanced the videos, intentionally or not. It is possible that a teaching idea associated with the videos might have come to mind and the teacher used the video to help make the point of the lesson. Limitations such as this were beyond the control of the researcher.

Recommendations for Future Research

The type and length of study necessary to fully explore the possible effects of the identity theory were beyond the scope of the current study, however, the results suggest that the identity theory may help student behavioral health and academic progress, and that is an important outcome.

To fully study the possible positive results of a broadly-based application, time must be spent training the staff who will deliver the concepts and the parents who must reinforce the concepts at home. The full video series of all 21 individual episodes will need to be planned and then the concepts practiced during the day in the classroom. Initially, the current study was focused upon Hispanic students since research showed a need for improvement in that population, but the identity theory is not only applicable to Hispanic or Spanish culture. The

values of dignity, integrity, and freedom, as defined by Batista (2011), are universal in scope. The present researcher has had direct experience with several different cultures, and finds that these values are recognized interpersonal standards of behavior within the cultures. Research also suggests that these values are universal (Bayani, 2016; Cavazos-Rehg & DeLucia-Waa, 2009; Coelho et al., 2016; Chae, 2015). A culturally blind study might be considered as worthwhile to investigate any effects on a general population, regardless of ethnicity or race.

Serious consideration must be given to choosing a different instrument. Although the instrument in the current study did measure the student's self-concept, the scope of the scoring did not allow for a more detailed study. The skewing and ceiling effect that occurred is desirable in the sense that a high self-concept is a goal, but statistical analysis was problematical in that nonparametric procedures were required. A more detailed instrument might reveal significances that the current instrument could not.

The current study concentrated on Hispanic fifth-grade students. Future study on both younger and older aged youth could prove to be worthwhile. A broader based study with a larger number of participants could also prove enlightening.

Students of all ages and cultures are important. Educators, parents, and mentors need to help them develop the gifts they have. The students of today are the future.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: SITE USE PERMISSION REQUEST AND APPROVAL

May 25, 2017

Dr. Priscilla Canales, Superintendent
Weslaco Independent School District
319 W. Fourth Street
Weslaco, TX 78596-0266

Dear Dr. Canales:

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a Doctor of Education degree. The title of my research project is The Effect of Animated Self-Concept Videos on Hispanic 5th Grade Students Self-Concept and the purpose of my research is to explore the possibility of improving the self-concept of 5th grade students, particularly Hispanic students, through the use of an animated video series.

I am writing to request your permission to conduct my research at Weslaco ISD in two of the elementary schools to have a sufficient population size.

The data will be used to measure if the five weekly videos create a difference in the way the students feel about themselves. They will be asked to complete the Self-Perception Profile for Children, by Susan Harter, before and after the research period. Participants and parents will be presented with informed consent information prior to participating. Taking part in this study is completely voluntary, and participants are welcome to discontinue participation at any time.

Thank you for considering my request. If you choose to grant permission, please provide a signed statement on approved letterhead indicating your approval.

Sincerely,

Richard Hill
Doctoral Candidate

W **ESLACO INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT**

Priscilla Canales, Superintendent

319 W. Fourth Street / PO Box 266, Weslaco, TX 78599-0266
(956) 969-6503   Fax (956) 969-0201

July 3, 2017

To the Institutional Review Board (IRB):

The Weslaco Independent School District will grant Richard Hill permission to conduct his research during the fall semester of the 2017-2018 school year with principal consent and in alignment with Board policies and the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA). The research will involve participation of fifth grade students and their teachers at two elementary schools. The district will select the participating schools, and the principals will have the discretion to identify participating classes and the time of day that the video will be shown to students.

Mr. Hill will provide each school a video series created by Dr. Jose Bautista. The videos will be shown to students over a five-week period of time. Students will be asked to complete the Self-Perception Profile for Children, by Susan Harter, before and after viewing the video series. Participants and parents will be presented with informed consent information prior to participating. Taking part in this study is completely voluntary, and participants are welcome to discontinue participation at any time.

This permission is given with the understanding that Mr. Hill and Liberty University will provide assurance that they will abide with all applicable Board policies, including clearance of district visitors procedures and FERPA as well as prevent the release of any and all information that would lead to the identity of the students who will participate in this study.

Sincerely,

Priscilla Canales, Ph.D.
Superintendent

APPENDIX B: IRB APPROVAL LETTER

LIBERTY UNIVERSITY.
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

September 18, 2017

Richard Hill
IRB Approval 2954.091817: The Effect of Animated Self-Concept Videos on Hispanic 5th
Grade Students Self-Concept

Dear Richard Hill,

We are pleased to inform you that your study has been approved by the Liberty University IRB.
This approval is extended to you for one year from the date provided above with your protocol
number. If data collection proceeds past one year, or if you make changes in the methodology as
it pertains to human subjects, you must submit an appropriate update form to the IRB. The forms
for these cases were attached to your approval email.

Thank you for your cooperation with the IRB, and we wish you well with your research project.

Sincerely,

G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP
Administrative Chair of Institutional Research
The Graduate School

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APPENDIX C: INFORMATION AND PERMISSION LETTERS TO PARENTS

PARENT/GUARDIAN CONSENT FORM
The Effect of Animated Self-Concept Videos on Hispanic 5th Grade Students Self-Concept
Richard L Hill
Liberty University
School of Education

Your child is invited to be in a research study of the positive effects of a video series on self-concept. He or she was selected as a possible participant because the study concerns 5th grade students. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to allow him or her to be in the study.

Richard Hill, a doctoral candidate in the School of Education at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is to help increase the self-concept and self-confidence in 5th grade students prior to leaving elementary school to go to middle school.

Procedures: If you agree to allow your child to be in this study, I would ask him/her to do the following things:

1. Take a written survey during class about self-attitudes. This survey would be anonymous and not ask for any personal information. The survey is expected to take approximately 30 minutes and will be administered by the classroom teacher. Your child will NOT be recorded, either sound or video in any manner.

2. Once per week during class, for the next five weeks, your child will be asked to watch a brief (2 to 5 minutes) video on self-concept and dignity.

3. At the end of the video series the same written survey will be administered during class for scores to be compared to the first survey. This will take approximately 30 minutes.

Risks and Benefits of being in the Study: The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study.

Benefits to society include improved resistance to bullying, gang recruitment, and positive self-concept

Compensation: Your child will not be compensated for participating in this study.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report I might publish, I will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Research records will be stored securely and only the researcher will have access to the records.

- I will not be asking your child to disclose name or any other personal information.
- The results of the attitude surveys will be stored in a secure location for three years, as required by federal law.
- No recordings of any type will be made of your child either by sound or video.

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to allow your child to participate will not affect any current or future relations with Liberty University or Weslaco Independent School District. If you decide to allow your child to participate, he or she is free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time prior to submitting the survey without affecting those relationships.

Contacts and Questions: The researcher conducting this study is Richard Hill. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact him at 956-472-9234 or rhill34@liberty.edu. You may also contact the researcher's faculty advisor, Dr. Jaunine Fouche at FoucheJ@mhs-pa.org.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd, Green Hall 1887, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

Please notify the researcher if you would like a copy of this information for your records.

Statement of Consent: I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to allow my child to participate in the study.

(NOTE: DO NOT AGREE TO ALLOW YOUR CHILD TO PARTICIPATE UNLESS IRB APPROVAL INFORMATION WITH CURRENT DATES HAS BEEN ADDED TO THIS DOCUMENT.)

_____

Signature of Parent   Date

_____

Signature of Investigator   Date

APPENDIX D: TEACHER TRAINING AGENDA

I.   Introduction of Researcher

II.   Purpose of the project

III.   Method of project

    a. Use the Self-Perception Profile for Children as a pre-test and post-test.

    b. No personal information will be requested other than gender and Hispanic or not.

    c. Control group

        i. Will give the SPPC at the beginning of the project and at the end. No other activity will be necessary.

        ii. The SPPC is 36 questions long and should only take 30 minutes to administer.

        iii. The teacher will be asked to read the questions, and the students will give first impression only. This is not a survey for long thought.

    d. Treatment group

        i. Will follow the same sequence with the SPPC, the difference will be in between the beginning and end.

        ii. Beginning the next day after the first SPPC administration, the first video will be shown at the beginning of the day.

        iii. For the next four weeks, another video will be shown once per week, at the beginning of the day, one each week. The videos are from two to five minutes. No other requirements will be made of the teacher.

        iv. The day after the last video is shown, the SPPC will be administered as a post test.

e. The Researcher will collect the answer sheets from each teacher after each administration of the SPPC.

f. For the treatment group, please be sure that your students pay attention to what is said. It is a voice over, but what is said is important.

g. The videos are partially bi-lingual, in that the main points are summarized at the end of each video in Spanish (written) and English (spoken).

IV. Questions and Answers

APPENDIX E: TEACHER SCRIPT FOR CLASS

Control group:

First SPPC: Today we are going to spend a few minutes answering some questions about how we think about yourself.   This not a graded test and you should answer with your first impression. Do NOT put your name on the answer sheet. It only asks if you are male or female and if you are Hispanic or not. Do not put any other information on the top of the sheet. After we finish, we will continue with the class today.

Second SPPC: Today we are going to spend a few minutes answering some questions about how we think about yourself. This is the same survey you took a few weeks ago and you answer with your first impression. Just like before, do NOT put your name on the answer sheet, but only if you are male or female and if you are Hispanic or not. Do not put any other information on the top of the sheet. After we finish, we will continue with the class today.

Treatment group.

First SPPC: Today we are going to spend a few minutes answering some questions about how we think about yourself.   This not a graded test and you should answer with your first impression. Do NOT put your name on the answer sheet. It only asks if you are male or female and if you are Hispanic or not. Do not put any other information on the top of the sheet. After we finish, we will continue with the class today.

Each weekly video: Before we begin today we are going to see a short, animated video. Pay attention to what is said, and apply it to yourself. The main points made in the video will be written in Spanish and spoken in English at the end.

Second SPPC: Today we are going to spend a few minutes answering some questions about how we think about yourself. This is the same survey you took a few weeks ago and you answer with your first impression. Just like before, do NOT put your name on the answer sheet, but only if you are male or female and if you are Hispanic or not. Do not put any other information on the top of the sheet. After we finish, we will continue with the class today.

APPENDIX F: BATISTA VITA

Posición

El Dr. José D. Batista es un experto e innovador agente de cambios complejos. Es autor de las Teorías de Re-Ingeniería Humana, y de Psicología de la Identidad. Se desempeñó por varios años como Investigador del Impacto de la Tecnologia en el ser humano(en Cupertino, California, Gerente Mundial de Planificación Estratégica de Recursos Humanos, miembro del equipo de Planificación Mundial de Servicios, y Gerente de Recursos Humanos y miembro de la gerencia de los Equipo Mundiales de Servicio y Consultoría en la Corporación Digital Equipment -(que fue la segunda corporación de tecnología de computadora más grande del mundo después de IBM)- en de Boston. Su función era investigar, a nivel mundial, las tendencias económicas, educativas, tecnológicas, políticas, y comercial con el fin de recomendar estrategias de respuestas. En Digital, participo junto a Ron Smart(encargado del Management Research Office) y Ed Nevis (Director del Departamento Gruaduado de Administracion de Empresa de MIT) en el equipo combinado de MIT y Digital Equipment para la patente del procesador del conocimiento.

En la actualidad, el Dr. Batista es miembro del equipo científico de la WFTC (Grupo Consultivo de las Naciones Unidas en el área de Comunidades Sociales Terapéuticas), y del equipo científico combinado de los Centros de Integración Juvenil de México y la WFTC. Participa con el Equipo de Senadores y Gobernadores de México para el problema de la niñez migrante, y es también consultor invitado para los Departamento de Justicia, Educación y de la Familia de Guatemala, donde por dos años consecutivos ha ido a ofrecer adiestramiento sobre los problemas de la niñez. El Doctor Batista es terapista certificado, a nivel mundial, en Terapia de Familia, Terapia de adicciones, y Director de Programa de Rehabilitación de Drogas. Recorre el continente con su nueva propuesta de la Teoría de la Identidad, que se está implementando en Cárceles para hombres, mujeres y adolescentes; Escuelas públicas y privadas, Universidades, Empresas públicas y privadas, Policía, y Prácticas Psiquiátricas y Psicológicas.

Estudios
Es graduado en Ciencias de la Universidad de Upper Iowa, en Iowa. Es graduado del Colegio de Vermont, de la prestigiosa Universidad Militar de Norwich, Vermont, del Programa de Maestría en Psicología; y del prestigioso Colegio innovador Fielding Institute, Santa Bárbara California, del Programa Doctoral en Desarrollo de Sistema Humano y Cambio Cultural, bajo la Tutoría de Will Mcwhinney, fundador del Departamento de Ciencia de la Conducta de UCLA, y autor del concepto de Paradigma para Cambio Social, y de Judith Veroff, fundadora del Instituto Gestalt de Cleveland.

El Doctor Batista es graduado, además, en cursos de cambios, desarrollo, planificación, gerencia y trabajo en equipo, de entre otras Universidades, del Programa de Ejecutivos de la Universidad de New Hampshire; el Programa de Ejecutivos de Recursos Humanos de la Universidad de Boston; el Programa de Desarrollo Organizacional, de la Escuela de Gerencia de la Universidad de Michigan; de los cursos de sensibilidad humana y de cambio del National Training Lab (NTL) de Main. USA; del Tavistock Institute de Londres (fundado por Ana Freud), donde perteneció al equipo de Action Research del Dr. Harold Bridger, Melanie Klein, y Claude Fucheaux, El Instituto Tavistock, además de ser pionero en psicoanálisis fue un semillero de pensadores que impactaron a mundo, y se encuentran, entre otros: Trabajo en equipo (Alfred Bion); Sistema Socio-Técnico, hoy Reingeniería (Erick Trist); Psicología Campo (Kurt Lewin); Democracia en el trabajo (Ernie Thonsrud); Inconsciente Colectivo (Carl Jung); Democracia en el trabajo(Fred Emery); Relaciones Objetables (Melanie Klein),

Contribuciones del Dr. José Batista en las aéreas Universitarias y de Tecnología.

Experto y pionero en el área de la computación, trabajó como Ingeniero para varias Corporaciones, siendo el Ingeniero que transfirió del diseño a producción la segunda minicomputadora fabricada en el mundo, la PDP LSI11 de Digita Equipment, y la más avanzada en circuito integrado la VAX 1134.

Membrecía

> *Del consejo Vocacional y Técnico de Puerto Rico, adiestrando para el cambio de tecnología de transistores a circuito integrado a todos los Profesores de las Escuelas Tecnológicas de Puerto Rico.*

> *Del Comité de Educación Industrial del Oeste de Puerto Rico*

'

> *Del primer Instituto de la Productividad de Latinoamérica en el que como miembro inicial Profesor en círculo de calidad, y también de sistemas de calidad participó en los primeros círculos establecidos en el Continente Latinoamericano.*

Desarrollo Universitario

> *Fue Miembro de la Junta Directiva de la Conferencia para el Estudio de la Cultura y el Simbolismo de Europa, con el objetivo de entender el impacto de los cambios globales en la cultura y la conducta del ser humano. Este grupo de estudio estaba compuesto por distinguidos investigadores de Universidades de prestigio alrededor del mundo.*

➢ *Consultor para el Ministerio de Industria y Tecnología de Francia, apoyando en la investigación de nuevos conceptos de tecnología.*

➢ *Creó la primera cátedra en Diseño de Organización alrededor de Tecnología (Reingeniería) en la Universidad Graduada de Ingeniería de Francia (Ecole Centrale de Art e Ingenie), fundada por Napoleón Bonaparte.*

➢ *Miembro del Equipo de Investigación del Conocimiento Humano, en MIT (Instituto Tecnológico de Massachusetts, dirigido por Ron Sumarte de Digital Equipment y Ed Nevis Director de la Escuela Graduada de Gerencia de MIT. Como miembro de ese equipo participó en la patente del Procesador de Conocimiento (Knowdledge Processor)*

➢ *Creó el curso de Planeación Estratégica para Responder a la Globalización, y sus Impactos en los Recursos Humanos para la Universidad Central de Caracas, curso que enseñó en la Escuela Militar de Venezuela, y en la Escuela de Estado Mayor de la Marina de Venezuela.*

➢ *Creó La Cátedra de Comercio Internacional para la Universidad Tecnológica de República Dominicana (INTEC)*

➢ *Creó el Programa de Liderazgo Estratégico de la Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo.*

➢ *La Cátedra de Cultura (como vivir y trabajar juntos) para el programa de Educación Bilingüe de la Universidad de Massachusetts en Lowell, USA.*

Profesor Invitado

➢ *Programa de Estrategia Global de la Escuela de Estudios Estratégicos de Alemania, en Saarlande.*

➢ *Programa de Gerencia de la Alta Escuela de Gerencia de Barcelona (EADA)*

Otras Universidades: Colombia, Argentina, Venezuela, México, Estados Unidos

Profesor Titular

➢ *Programa Graduado de Gerencia y Administración de la Universidad Interamericana de Puerto Rico.*

➢ *Universidad de Massachusetts, Programa de Desarrollo Cultural y de Pedagogía Bilingüe para Profesores del Sistema Escolar.*

Consultor

Ha sido consultor para varias empresas en Latinoamérica, Estados Unidos y Europa, entre las que se incluyen: Empresas Mendoza (uno de los consorcios industriales más grande de Latinoamérica. Para las Empresas Petroleras y de Metalurgia de Venezuela: MARAVEN, PEDVESA, SIDOR, VENALUN. Petróleos mexicanos, Hospital Psiquiátrico, en México. Banco de Reservas, Corporación de Electricidad, Compañía de Teléfono, Industria Lavador y otras importantes industrias, en Santo Domingo. Empresas Avernas, en Italia, Director del Centro de Consultoría Etairoi, Milano, Italia. Seguros Múltiples, Electrobiology, Jonson and Jonson, Hewlett Packard, y otras importantes empresas en Puerto Rico. Además, ha sido Consultor en el Desarrollo de Modelos de Enseñanza por Valores para varias Universidades del Continente, incluyendo los Colegios Tecnológicos de Centla y UT en Tabasco, México.

Autoría

El Dr. Batista es el Autor de la serie de libros de la Colección Conciencia (18 libros), donde analiza los problemas sociales, económicos y de desarrollo de América Latina. Sus dos últimos libros están relacionados con una propuesta de un modelo económico, y cómo ayudar al ser humano en su desarrollo interior. Tiene los Derechos de Autor de la Teoría de la Identidad, y del Programa de Liderazgo Estratégico (modelo único para preparar nuevos líderes)
En sus libros, sus conferencias (que están grabadas) identificaron con propiedad, hace más de 35 anos, todos los cambios que vemos en el mundo en el área de la tecnología, política, comercio y las problemáticas sociales y del ser humano.

Con su nueva propuesta de "Cómo Desarrollar Valores" recorre el Continente invitado, entre otros, por Universidades, Hospitales, Autoridades y Empresas.

PRESENTATION RESUME OF DR. JOSE BATISTA (TRANSLATION)

Position

Dr. Jose D. Batista is an expert and innovative agent of complex changes. He is the author of the Theories of Re-Engineering, and Psychology of Identity. He served for several years as a researcher at the Impact of Technology on the Human Being (in Cupertino, California, Global Manager of Strategic Human Resources Planning, a member of the team of global planning of Services, and Manager of Human Resources and member of the management of the Global Computer Service and Consulting in the Digital Equipment Corporation (which was the second computer technology corporation in the world after IBM) in Boston. His function was to investigate, at the global level, the economic trends, educational, technological, political, and commercial property rights in order to recommend strategies for answers. At Digital, he participated along with Ron Smart (in charge of the Management Research Office) and Ed Nevis (Director of the Department of Enterprise Management Gruaduado of MIT) in the combined team of MIT and Digital Equipment for the patent of the processor of knowledge. and Ed Nevis (Director of the Department of Enterprise Management Gruaduado of MIT).

Currently, Dr. Batista is a member of the scientific team of the WFTC (Consultative Group of the United Nations in the area of therapeutic social communities), and the combined scientific team of the Centros de Integración Juvenil de México and the WFTC. He participates with the team of Senators and Governors of Mexico for the migrant problem of children, and is also a consultant for the Department of Justice, Education and family in Guatemala, where for two consecutive years has gone to provide training on the problems of children. Doctor Batista is a certified therapist, at the global level, in family therapy, addiction therapy, and Director of

Drug Rehabilitation Program. He is touring the continent with his new proposal of the Identity

Theory, which is being implemented in prisons for men, women and adolescents; public and

private schools, universities, public and private companies, police, and psychiatric and

psychological practices.

Studies

Dr. Batista is a graduate in sciences of the University of Upper Iowa in Iowa. He is a

graduate of the College of Vermont, of the prestigious Military University of Norwich, Vermont,

earning a Master's in Psychology; and the prestigious Innovative College Fielding Institute,

Santa Barbara California, with a Doctoral Degree in Development of Human System and

Cultural Change, under the guidance of Will Mcwhinney, founder of the Department of

Behavioral Science in UCLA, and author of the concept of paradigm for Social Change, and

Judith Veroff, founder of the Gestalt Institute of Cleveland. Dr. Batista is a graduate, in addition,

in courses of change, development, planning, management and team work from such

universities as the Executive Program at the University of New Hampshire, the executives of the

Human Resources of the University of Boston; the Program of Organizational Development, of

the School of Management of the University of Michigan; courses of human sensitivity and

change in the National Training Lab (NTL) of Main. USA; of the Tavistock Institute in London

(founded by Anna Freud), where he belonged to the team of Action Research of Dr. Harold

Bridger, Melanie Klein, and Claude Fucheaux, The Tavistock Institute, in addition to being a

pioneer in psychoanalysis was a hotbed of thinkers that shocked the world, and are, among

others: Team Work (Alfred Bion); Socio-Tecnico System, today Reengineering (Erick Trist);

Psychology Field (Kurt Lewin); democracy at work (Ernie Thonsrud); Collective Unconscious

(Carl Jung); Democracy at Work(Fred Emery); Foreign Objectionable (Melanie Klein).

Contributions of Dr. José Batista In the University and Technology.

As an expert and pioneer in the area of computing, he worked as an engineer for several corporations, being the engineer who transferred from design to production the second minicomputer manufactured in the world, the PDP LSI11 Digital Equipment, and the most advanced integrated circuit in the VAX 1134.

Membership

➢ Vocational and technical council of Puerto Rico, training for change of technology of transistors to integrated circuit to all the teachers of technological schools in Puerto Rico.

➢ The Education Committee of Industrial West of Puerto Rico

➢ The premier Productivity Institute of Latin America in the initial member as Professor in a circle of quality, and quality systems also participated in the first circles laid down in the Latin American Continent.

University Development

➢ Was a member of the Board of Directors of the Conference for the study of the culture and the symbolism of Europe, with the aim of understanding the impact of global change in the culture and human behavior. This study group was composed of distinguished researchers from prestigious universities around the world

➢ Consultant for the Ministry of Industry and Technology, supporting the research of new concepts of technology.

➢ Created the first professorship in Design Organization around Technology (Engineering) at the University of Engineering Graduate of France (École Centrale de Art and Engineering), founded by Napoleon Bonaparte.

➢ Member of the Research Team of human knowledge, at MIT (Massachusetts Institute of Technology, directed by Ron Join of Digital Equipment and Ed Nevis Director of the Graduate School of Management at MIT. As a member of that team participated in the patent of the Knowledge Processor.

➢ Created the Strategic Planning to respond to globalization, and its Impacts on Human Resources for the Central University of Caracas, who taught at the Military School in Venezuela, and in the School of Navy of Venezuela

➢ Created the Chair of International Trade to the Dominican Republic University of Technology (INTEC)

➢ Created the Program of Strategic Leadership of the Autonomous University of Santo Domingo.

➢ The Chair of Culture (as live and work together) for the Bilingual Education Program at the University of Massachusetts Lowell, USA.

➢ Program Professor of Global Strategy at the School of Strategic Studies in Germany, in Saarlande.

➢ MANAGEMENT PROGRAM The High School of Management of Barcelona (AES)

Other Universities: Colombia, Argentina, Venezuela, Mexico, United States

Professor

➢ Graduate Program of Management and Administration of the Inter-American University of Puerto Rico

➢ University of Massachusetts, Cultural Development Program and Bilingual pedagogy for teachers in the school system.

Consulting

He has been a consultant to several companies in Latin America, the United States and Europe, including: Companies Mendoza (one of the largest industrial consortia of Latin America. For Oil and Metallurgy of Venezuela: MARAVEN, VENALUN, PEDVESA, SIDOR,. Petróleos Mexicanos, Psychiatric Hospital, in Mexico. Reserve Bank, Corporation of Electricity, Telephone Company, Industry Washer and other major industries, in Santo Domingo. Companies Avernas, in Italy, Director of the Center for Consultancy Etairoi, Milan, Italy. Seguros Múltiples, Electrobiology, Johnson and Johnson, Hewlett Packard, and other important companies in Puerto Rico. In addition, he has been a consultant in the Development of Models of Teaching Values for several universities in the continent, including Technological Colleges of Centla and UT in Tabasco, Mexico.

Author

Dr. Batista is the author of the series of books in the Collection (18 books), where he analyzes the social, economic and development in Latin America. His last two books are related to a proposal for an economic model, and how to help the human being in your inner development. You have all the rights of the author of the theory of identity, and the Strategic Leadership Program (single model to prepare new leaders).

In his books, conferences (which are recorded) identified with property, for more than 35 years, all the changes that we see in the world in the area of technology, politics, trade and social issues and of the human being.

With his new proposal for "How to Develop Values" he crosses the continent invited, among others, by universities, hospitals, authorities and companies.

APPENDIX G: PERMISSION TO USE GRAPHICS

9/24/2016   Print

Subject: TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERNS

From: Jose Batista (batis@rocketmail.com)

To: hlwinc@yahoo.com;

Date: Saturday, September 24, 2016 12:46 PM

  I APPROVE THE ATTACHE DRAWING OF THE TREE OF LIFE GRAPHIC OF
THE IDENTITY THEORY DEVELOPED BY MR. RICHARD HILL,
DR. JOSE D. BATISTA, PH.D.

Attachments

Tree of Life Graphic.pptx (236.49KB)

APPENDIX H: COMMUNICATION CONCERNING SPPC FROM SUSAN HARTER

December 1, 2016

Thank you for your interest in our work.

1.   The reliabilities reported are from 2003. However, we have used this instrument for every year since then until 2012 (when I retired) and they have always been within the same range, not only in our own work but in other people's work with middle class, primarily White sample. However, it behooves any researchers using any instrument to report the reliabilities for their OWN sample, not for the sample that the researcher who devised the instrument reports. Your findings need to depend upon high reliabilities for YOUR sample.

2.   Pre-test, Post-test designs, using that language, are typically appropriate when the researcher feels that some intervention will *change scores*, hopefully in a positive direction, and where there are relevant hypotheses provided with some rationale. And the time frame is usually months or more, for there to be some change effect.

This is different from what some researchers call test-retest *reliability.* The idea is that if a child gives the same scores on a second testing, then the scale is reliable. IF you are giving the instrument twice, for purposes of test-retest reliability, I would not wait longer than one month to employ this procedure. However, I would not recommend it at all nor have we ever reported such data. One month is a very arbitrary choice. Two weeks might be better, but then the kids yammer "We just DID this."

The important point is that self-perceptions can legitimate change for many reasons, within even narrow time periods. So this is why we don't recommend test-retest "reliability". Because reliability is a property of an INSTRUMENT. So, if scores legitimately change within even a month's period, then one needs to claim that the INSTRUMENT is unreliable, IF you are using test-retest procedures for the purpose of reliability. This is not a reasonable conclusion, if scores really do change.

Thus, we feel that internal consistency reliability is the better index, at a given point in time, because if these values are acceptable, .80 or above, then one can proceed by asking substantive questions. Children are consistently responding at that point in time, which is what is critical.

APPENDIX I: SELF-PERCEPTION PROFILE FOR CHILDREN: MANUAL AND QUESTIONAIRE

The entire manual for Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Children can be accessed

https://portfolio.du.edu/SusanHarter/page/44210. This link includes the questionnaire, sample

populations, validation statistics, and instructions.