

INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps.

ProQuest Information and Learning
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346 USA
800-521-0600

UMI[®]

UMI Number: DP14311

Copyright 1994 by
Opitz, Trudy
All rights reserved

UMI[®]

UMI Microform DP14311

Copyright 2006 by ProQuest Information and Learning Company.
All rights reserved. This microform edition is protected against
unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.

ProQuest Information and Learning Company
300 North Zeeb Road
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

THE DIFFERENTIAL EFFECTS OF A FILM ASSISTED AND
NON FILM ASSISTED TRANSPERSONALLY ORIENTED
PSYCHOLOGY CURRICULUM ON THE SELF-ESTEEM
OF ADOLESCENTS

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

Trudy Opitz

Institute of Transpersonal Psychology

Palo Alto, California

February, 1994

© 1994

Trudy Opitz

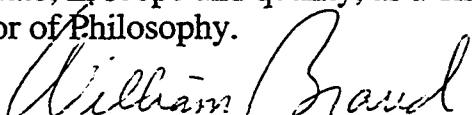
All rights reserved

THE DIFFERENTIAL EFFECTS OF A FILM ASSISTED AND
NON FILM ASSISTED TRANSPERSONALLY ORIENTED
PSYCHOLOGY CURRICULUM ON THE SELF-ESTEEM
OF ADOLESCENTS

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

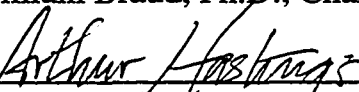
By
Trudy Opitz
Institute of Transpersonal Psychology
Palo Alto, California
February, 1994

I certify that I have read this thesis and that in my opinion it is fully
adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy.




William Braud, Ph.D., Chairperson

2/10/94
Date



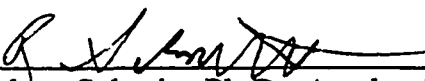
Arthur Hastings, Ph.D.

2/10/94
Date



Hillevi Ruumet, Ph.D.

2/10/94
Date



Robert Schmitt, Ph.D., Academic Dean

2/17/94
Date

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My arrival at this point in my life journey has been facilitated by far too many people to mention specifically, but I express my deep gratitude to you all. I would, however, like to recognize those whose unique gifts have helped make this experience seem, at least in retrospect, especially rich and exciting: William Braud, whose steady, caring presence calmed my fears and insecurities; Hillevi Ruumet and Arthur Hastings for their loving insistence on quality and excellence; Betty Pacheco for her unwavering encouragement; Sally Clark, whose dedicated teaching contributed immensely to the research; Sib Farrell, and Gus and Stella Roemers for their longstanding and empowering support; Diana Gross, and Carole Kennedy, my spiritual family, who held me through this process with unconditional love; and my daughters Christi and Tracy, who have been and continue to be my greatest teachers. I love you all!!

ABSTRACT

This study was created to compare the effects of exposure to positive role modeling in selected movies and literature on the self-esteem of adolescent participants. A quasi-experimental, pretest/posttest, non-equivalent, control group research design was used to study the effects upon the self-esteem of participants in a nine-week transpersonally-oriented curriculum intervention in the context of a traditional public high school psychology course. There were two treatment conditions - presentation of positive role models through film, and an alternative condition involving directed reading about positive role models. Two additional groups, used for control, pursued a traditional high school psychology curriculum. A total of 116 students were pre and posttested, using Rotter's Internal/External Locus of Control Scale (I/E), Eagley's revision of the Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (Janis), and Reasoner's Student Self-Esteem Inventory (SSEI). The major findings of this study showed a statistically significant difference, at the .05 level, among the four groups. Within-subject tests showed significant ($p < .05$) improvement from pretest means to posttest means on the I/E ($t = 2.44$) and the SSEI ($t = 2.54$) for the group exposed to positive film role models. On the Janis scale the results for the film group approached significance ($t = 2.00$, $p = .064$). An overall multivariate comparison of the film group with the other three groups using Hotelling's T-Square

procedure showed a highly significant pre-post change ($F(2,52) = 5.83, p = .0066$) on all three dependent variables, taken as a whole. In addition, the effect sizes of the film intervention (.48, .43, .37) were much stronger than those of the literature intervention (.23, .22, .18). Thus, the film group showed greater growth in self-esteem than any of the other three groups. While these findings must be considered preliminary, they indicate that the impact of film viewing may be used positively in enhancing self-esteem in adolescents.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE: THE PROBLEM

Introduction	1
Statement of the Problem	2
Background of the problem	3
Importance of Self-Esteem	3
Components of Self-Esteem	6
Characteristics of Self-Esteem	8
Population and Setting	8
Rationale and Significance of the Problem	9
Rationale of the Problem	9
Significance of the Problem	10
Goals and Objectives	11
Practical Need and Application	11
Questions for Research	12
Definition of Key Concepts and Terms	14

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Adolescence	18
Self-Esteem Theory	22
Transpersonal Perspectives	26
Transpersonal Self-Esteem	26
Transpersonal Education	28

Film Theory and Research	30
Psychological States and the Cinema	32
Attributes, Behavior and the Cinema	36
Films Used in the Current Study	39
Stories Used in the Current Study	40
Review of Studies Most Closely Related	41
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	47
Overview	47
Participants	47
Procedure	48
The Teacher	49
The Curriculum	52
Course Outline	53
Instrumentation	61
Student Self-Esteem Inventory	62
Norm Group	63
Validity of the SSEI	64
Construct Validity	64
Concurrent Validity	65
Predictive Validity	65
Reliability of the SSEI	66
Internal Consistency	66
Temporal Stability	67
Grade and gender	67

Summary	68
The Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale	69
Sample	70
Reliability	71
Validity	71
Convergent Validity	71
Discriminant Validity	72
Predictive Validity	72
Summary	73
Rotter's Internal/External Locus of Control Scale	73
Background	73
Scoring	76
Item Correlation	76
Norm Group	76
Validity	78
Construct Validity	78
Concurrent Validity	78
Reliability	79
Internal Consistency	79
Temporal Stability	79
Summary	80
Intervention	91
Research Hypotheses	83
Hypothesis I	83
Hypothesis II	83
Hypothesis III	84
Treatment of the Data	84
Statistical Analysis	85
Limitations	86

CHAPTER FOUR: THE RESULTS	88
Overview	88
Descriptive Statistics	88
Hypothesis Testing	91
Effect Size	104
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS	112
Overview of the Study	112
Overview of the Results	115
Discussion Relating to Hypothesis I	115
Discussion Relating to Hypothesis II	116
Discussion Relating to Hypothesis III	117
Limitations of the Study	118
Implications for Future Research	123
REFERENCES	126
APPENDICES	144
A: Testing Instruments	144
B: Consent Form	147
C: Sample Film and Story Lesson Plans	148

TABLES

1. Demographic Characteristics of Sample Groups	89
2. Mean Pre and Post Scores for Film, Literature, and Control Groups	92
3. Mean Pre and Post I-E Scores for Sample Groups	93
4. Mean Pre and Post SSEI Total Scores for Sample Groups	95
5. Mean Pre and Post Janis Scale Scores for Sample Groups	97
6. Mean Pre and Post SSEI Subscale Scores for Sample Groups	99
7. Pearson Correlations Among Change Scores	106
8. Pearson Correlations Among Change Scores for the Film Group	107
9. Pearson Correlations Among Change Scores for the Literature Group	108
10. Pearson Correlations Among Change Scores for Control-1 Group	109
11. Pearson Correlations Among Change Scores for Control-2 Group	110
12. Changes in Success Rates (BESD) Corresponding to Various Values of r	111

FIGURES

1. Mean Plot of Pre and Post I-E Scores	94
2. Mean Plot of Pre and Post SSEI Scores	96
3. Mean Plot of Pre and Post Janis Scores	98

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The years between childhood and coming of age in this society have been much studied and little understood. Adolescence is often seen and experienced as one of the most turbulent stages in human development, at times culminating in an "identity crisis" (Erikson, 1968). Viewed with considerable ambivalence by adults, adolescents may feel themselves adrift in a sea of confusion, desperately striving for freedom, yet terrified of striking out on their own (Bean, 1984). On the other hand, despite the complexity of the transitions which occur during adolescence, some young people experience a sense of expanding horizons and self-discovery (Elliot and Feldman, 1990).

Some psychologists have viewed the adolescent years as reminiscent of early object relations, in which the child is unconcerned about the distinction between external reality and the self. This blurring of boundaries often results, for the adolescent, in a loss of identity and a search for meaning (Keating, 1990). Concerned with the impression he or she is making on others, the adolescent often has difficulty interpreting these impressions, leading to ambiguity as to what the self is really like (Harter, 1990). Given this internal state, it is not surprising that parents and teachers have encountered enormous difficulty in meeting the needs of their teenagers.

It has become increasingly apparent in recent studies that one of the essential elements to be addressed by those charged with nurturing adolescents is the development of positive self-esteem (Battle, 1982; Bean, 1984). Indeed, providing an environment in which a positive sense of self can flourish may be the single most effective component of any program designed to benefit teenagers.

One of the most valuable resources an adolescent can have is a strong sense of self-esteem. Studies have shown that the teenager with a high sense of self-esteem will learn more effectively, develop more rewarding relationships, be more able to use opportunities, and work productively and be self-sufficient (Clark, et al, 1985, p. 2).

Designed against this backdrop of compelling need, the present study is an investigation of specific interventions in the traditional high school curriculum and their effect on self-esteem. An effort was made to use positive "modeling" (Bean, 1992), in order to make constructive use of the adolescent's tendency to emulate others. This project addresses both a long-standing personal question about the nature of self-esteem and a wish to provide a relatively simple, cost-effective means of enhancing self-esteem.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study investigated the effects of two different interventions, woven into a transpersonally-oriented high school psychology

curriculum, on the self-esteem of adolescents. Both interventions utilized the presentation of positive role models, one group viewing the models on film, and the other exploring literary models. Each group made use of follow-up exercises and discussions to enhance and deepen the effects of the interventions on the students. Both theoretically and practically, this study provides a replicable and effective program which can be implemented inexpensively with a variety of adolescent populations.

BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Importance of Self-Esteem

The development of the construct of self-esteem has played an important role in the evolution of consciousness. More than a century ago self psychology recognized the need for human beings to attain congruence between their desired goals and a belief in their capacity to achieve them (Cooley, 1902; Freud, 1900; James, 1890). Succeeding generations of theorists expanded early considerations of the nature of the self and its implications for mental health (Kohut, 1971; Rogers, 1951). The past two decades have witnessed an explosion in the number of constructs attributed to the self. Theories concerning self-perception (Kleinke, 1978), self-monitoring (Baumeister, 1986; Snyder, 1987), and self-concept (Bean, 1984), appeared on the psychological horizon. Simultaneously, sociologists and educators joined the psychological community in a concerted

effort to bring the theory of self-esteem to bear on a variety of societal concerns. The importance of this undertaking is underlined by Nathaniel Branden:

How we feel about ourselves crucially affects virtually every aspect of our experience. Our responses to events are shaped by who and what we think we are. The dramas of our lives are the reflections of our most private visions of ourselves. Thus self-esteem is the key to our success or failure. It is also the key to understanding ourselves and others. Positive self-esteem is a cardinal requirement to a fulfilling life (Branden, 1988 p. 5).

In 1988 a group of bipartisan California state legislators in conjunction with the California Department of Education convened a "think tank" of twenty-six prominent educational leaders and psychologists to address pressing social problems. The result, *Toward a State of Self-Esteem*, was an historic document containing principles, discussions, and recommendations designed to promote positive self-esteem and reduce perceived pessimism concerning our future as a state and as a nation. Synthesizing current social and educational theory, the Final Report of the California Task Force to Promote Self-Esteem and Social Responsibility (1990), states:

California is on the verge of becoming the first state with no ethnic majority. Our greatest challenge is to realize our promise as a truly multicultural democracy. We

challenge you, and every Californian, to rise to a new level of sensitivity, concern and action. Not all ideas are new, but we believe that self-esteem brings new life to them and to us, and better enables each of us to recognize and encourage and incorporate all of our people, of whatever race, nationality, or ethnicity, into every aspect of California's life and well-being (p. xv).

The task force, convened through enabling legislation by Assemblyman John Vasconcellos, received a mandate to compile research "regarding how healthy self-esteem is nurtured, harmed or reduced, and rehabilitated" (Assembly Bill 3659). One of the key findings of the task force was that the schools are second only to parents in their power to influence the self-esteem of their constituents. Since children spend a high percentage of their waking time in school, the members of the task force concluded that it is incumbent upon the educational community to incorporate self-esteem into the curriculum. Specifically, it was recommended that the State Department of Education, in partnership with the business sector, develop an "effective living skills" curriculum dealing with self-esteem and personal responsibility (California State Task Force on Self-Esteem and Social Responsibility, 1990. p. 70). The urgency of this undertaking is highlighted in the task force report:

Self-esteem is the likeliest candidate for a social vaccine, something that empowers us to live responsibly and that inoculates us

against the lures of crime, violence, substance abuse, teen pregnancy, child abuse, chronic welfare dependency, and educational failure. The lack of self-esteem is central to most personal and social ills plaguing our state and nation as we approach the end of the twentieth century (California State Task Force on Self-Esteem and Social Responsibility, 1990. p. 4).

This investigation represents an attempt to implement the recommendations of the task force regarding public school curriculum by providing new curricular options and strategic interventions. More than thirty years of personal observations in classrooms across the country have highlighted both the necessity and the possibility of reducing the drain of human resources resulting from low self-esteem in our youth. This project aims at providing the necessary stimulus to imagination and creativity needed to raise self-esteem levels in a student population.

Components of Self-Esteem

A review of current research indicates that the study of self-esteem has come of age. With a large number of authors and researchers theorizing about the nature of the construct, it is necessary to review major findings in order to provide a context for the current study.

According to William James (1890), there are three major parts of the self which are concerned with self-esteem: the "material self,

the social self, and the spiritual self". The material self includes one's body and possessions; the social self is actually a number of selves presented to various significant persons. The spiritual self is the inner subjective being, the "determiner of the felt sense of self-esteem" (James, 1890).

Abraham Maslow (1977), saw man as having a biological nature as well as a higher, transcendent nature. He thought it essential to address both aspects of man's nature in educating the person. He said specifically:

The final and unavoidable conclusion is that education - like all of our social institutions - must be concerned with its final values, and this in turn is just about the same as speaking of what have been called 'spiritual values' or 'higher values' (Maslow, 1977, p. 52).

Maslow recommended a holistic path to integration which combined self-improvement and social zeal.

In the current study, self-esteem is recognized as having implications at all levels of being. The objective is to educate in the full sense of the term, and this process of "leading out" can only occur if the student feels fully engaged physically, mentally, emotionally, and spiritually. Only then can all of his/her resources be developed in a way that produces a more integrated, more evolved human being.

Characteristics of Self-Esteem

It has been suggested that those with high self-esteem accept themselves and others (Fromm, 1939; Horney, 1937; and Rogers, 1949), and that they feel connected to and influenced by others in positive ways (Battle, 1982; Brandon, 1983; Maslow, 1977). Clemes and Bean (1981) followed the same theme by delineating four characteristics essential to the development of self-esteem: uniqueness, power, connectiveness, and models. These four qualities, defined later in the chapter, were utilized in the study to address self-esteem deficiencies within the student population.

Population and Setting

This study was carried out in a traditional high school setting in a largely middle class community. One hundred sixteen subjects, enrolled in elective psychology classes, were involved. The teacher, department head and principal were all enthusiastic about the project, viewing it as an opportunity to pilot new curricular materials, incorporate creative teaching strategies, and evaluate effectiveness of the program.

The present curriculum was written in 1972 and badly needed updating. Since financial resources were strained to the limit, the low-cost nature of the project made it a practical alternative. Its adaptability to various ethnic minorities represented in the student population addressed another compelling need. This project was

intended as a pilot study, to be expanded or replicated in the future as warranted by the findings.

RATIONALE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

Rationale of the Problem

It seems abundantly clear from reading headlines about violence, and reports of plummeting test scores, that something needs to change in our educational system. Given the current economic climate, improvements can come about only through creative innovation by the educational community. By rejecting the view of students as mere repositories of facts, we can create an educational system which restores belief in their creative power. Paulo Friere suggests that the purpose of education is freedom, that liberating education consists in a "constant unveiling of reality," not merely a transfer of information (Friere, 1973 p. 58).

This unveiling must occur in an environment which acknowledges that "the critical content of any learning experience is the method or process through which the learning occurs" (Postman and Weingartner, 1969, p. 19). The current study attempts to use film images as a stimulus to positive self- esteem in the students. The power of imagery to evoke strong feeling has long been known to psychologists and educators. The enduring power of fairy tales is evidence of this phenomenon. In recent years research studies of

imagery and school children have shown a positive correlation with improved self-esteem (Sheikh and Sheikh, 1985).

Significance of the Problem

Self-esteem has been extensively researched, and numerous studies have been conducted on the negative effects of violence in film. However, a search of several computer databases unearthed only two research studies in which movies were utilized to produce a positive outcome.

McClelland (1988) studied the effect of motivational arousal through films on salivary immunoglobulin A. After viewing the film *Mother Theresa*, the college-age subjects exhibited a rise in arousal of affiliation motivation and an increase in S-IgA, the secretion of which is associated positively with improved functioning of the immune system. These findings indicate a small but significant correlation between film viewing and physical and emotional well-being.

A second study, done by Champion (1978) compared the achievement, as measured by G.P.A., of college psychopathology classes incorporating commercial film with those using traditional methods of instruction. The film groups showed significant gains in comprehension and retention as compared with the traditional classes over a four year period.

While these studies are pertinent to the current research, they both involved college populations. There seems to be a research gap in the area of film, adolescents, and positive self-esteem. This study, using high school students, represents an attempt to fill that gap and provide a window of possibility for the use of film in raising self-esteem.

Goals and Objectives

The goal of this study was to investigate the effects of a transpersonally-oriented psychology curriculum, outlined in Chapter Three, and further delineated in Appendix C, using positive film role models. The results were compared with the effect of the same curriculum delivered using literary role models, together with relevant activities and discussions. A third group was used for control.

The objectives of the study were to:

1. Determine whether these particular curriculum and film interventions would change the level of self-esteem of high school students.
2. Measure the relative effectiveness of two different methods of presenting positive role models in changing self-esteem.

PRACTICAL NEED AND APPLICATIONS

The social applications of this project are:

1. This study was an initial attempt to quantify information concerning the use of film in raising adolescent self-esteem. The replication of the design in future projects may provide crucial assistance to beleaguered educators and scholastically endangered students.
2. The information contained in the transpersonally oriented psychology curriculum, outlined in Chapter Three, may be of considerable value to all those searching for a holistic approach to the educational process.
3. The findings of this study may be useful to those seeking to implement the recommendations of the California Task Force on Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility.
4. Since cost-effectiveness is of vital importance to financially strapped school districts, this study provides a strategic use of film intervention and group setting.

QUESTIONS FOR RESEARCH

Under investigation in this study is the effectiveness of specific curricular interventions designed to raise self-esteem. Two groups of adolescents were presented with a nine-week psychology curriculum

which was transpersonally-oriented and emphasized the use of positive role models. This curriculum, outlined in Chapter III, addresses psychological health as inclusive of physical, emotional, intellectual, and spiritual well-being in the following ways: Students were introduced to psychoneuroimmunology and its relationship to bodymind health. The effects of exercise on energy states were experienced through Tai Chi. Guided imagery was utilized to enhance creativity and access higher states of consciousness. Student-generated ritual emphasized the experiential and cooperative nature of the curriculum. These techniques, taken together, provided a vehicle for delivering traditional topics such as communication skills, goal-setting, and decision-making.

Two different media were used to present positive role models, specifically film and literature, within the transpersonally oriented curriculum. The effects on student self-esteem were measured against those of a third group used for control. At the completion of the study, students who had not viewed the films were given an opportunity to do so. The curriculum was structured to allow replication.

It was hypothesized that the sample of students receiving the film presentations would increase their self-esteem measures on Reasoner's Student Self-esteem Inventory, attain higher internal locus of control scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Inventory, and lower scores on the Janis Feelings of

Inadequacy Scale. It was further hypothesized that those students viewing the films would manifest greater positive change than those who were exposed to literary models. It was anticipated that both groups receiving the Transpersonally-oriented curriculum would display more positive change than the control group. Of secondary interest was the degree of relatedness found among scores on the three instruments.

DEFINITIONS OF KEY CONCEPTS AND TERMS

Definitions of key concepts and terms as follows:

Adolescence: A stage of human development occurring between the ages of twelve and eighteen years, and characterized by complex physical and emotional changes.

Bodymind: A view of the self which acknowledges that the body "reflects all the historical and present conflicts of the mind, and that the reorganization of one helps reorganize the other. Intervention in the dynamic bodymind loop affects the whole" (Ferguson, 1980 p. 102).

Connectiveness: A sense of belonging to someone or something. A feeling of being related in critical ways to other people or to a group.

A person with a strong sense of connectiveness will relate well to others and have the ability to communicate ideas, feelings, and

opinions without concern for their acceptance (Clemes and Bean, 1981).

Empowerment: The knowledge that one can influence his/her destiny. A positive sense of responsibility for personal decisions, coupled with a confidence in having the necessary resources to carry them out (Clemes and Beane, 1981). A person who is empowered feels in charge of his/her life, while retaining the capacity to depend on others.

Locus of Control: A dimension of personality which ranges from one extreme of a belief by an individual that whatever happens to him/her is not within his/her control. At the other end of the continuum the individual believes that the events of one's life are completely within one's control. The former is known as being externally controlled and the latter is known as being internally controlled (Rotter, 1966).

Self-Esteem: The degree to which a person can consistently access a sense of his or her intrinsic worth and personal power. High self-esteem is "a kind of spiritual attainment that is a victory in the evolution of consciousness. It is the foundation of that serenity of spirit that makes possible the enjoyment of life" (Branden, 1988 p. 9).

Self-esteem is evidenced on the physical level by the way one accepts, values and cares for his or her body; on the intellectual level by the development and appreciation of one's capacity for learning

and understanding; on the emotional level by an authentic and balanced expression of feelings; on the spiritual level by the development of intuition and creativity (Steffenhagen and Burns, 1987).

Self-esteem is also multi-faceted (Reasoner, 1992). For purposes of this study, empowerment, connectiveness, sense of models, and uniqueness were considered elements of self-esteem (Clemes and Bean, 1981).

Sense of Models: Human, philosophical and operational reference points which give a sense of meaning and order to one's life. People having a high sense of models have people in their lives who are worthy of emulation, and experience a consistent sense of values and beliefs within themselves (Clemes and Beane, 1981).

Transpersonal Psychology: A term used by Abraham Maslow (1971) to define a new force in psychology characterized by a holistic view of body, mind, and spirit. "Transpersonal Psychology is concerned with the study of optimum psychological health and well-being, and emphasizes consciousness as a central focus of this concern. It includes traditional areas and techniques of therapeutic concern and, where appropriate, it adds to these an interest in facilitating growth and awareness beyond traditionally recognized levels of health....." In so doing, the Transpersonal model emphasizes the importance of modifying consciousness while giving "ample consideration to the insights of such typically Western disciplines as

ego-psychotherapy, psychoanalysis, humanistic psychology, Jungian analysis, and interpersonal psychology " (Walsh and Vaughan, 1993, p. 14).

Uniqueness: An innate, internal sense that one is possessed of a composite of characteristics distinctive enough to distinguish oneself from all other human beings. A person with a strong sense of uniqueness takes delight in carrying out his/her own life patterns, and values being unlike others (Clemes and Bean, 1981).

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

ADOLESCENCE

For the first half of this century, G. Stanley Hall's (1902) belief that adolescence was a turbulent period recapitulating evolution was the dominant theory. Despite a paucity of empirical validation and numerous challenges from contemporaries (Hollingworth, 1928; Thorndike, 1904) Hall's ideas prevailed, and were later amplified by Lewin (1939) and some of the psychoanalytic writers, including A. Freud, who underscored the degree of turmoil in the development of the adolescent.

By the fifties, Piaget's work had highlighted the development of abstract reasoning in adolescence (Inhelder & Piaget, 1958), and Erikson had recognized the centrality of the search for identity in adolescent development. More recently U.S. growth studies have focused on adolescence as a normal developmental stage characterized by marked physical, social, and intellectual changes in normal adolescence (Damon & Hart, 1982). Based primarily on suburban populations, the results of these studies have been disputed by those who have researched inner city youth, especially minorities, whose adolescence could hardly be termed normal.

The adolescent stage was clearly delineated by the Committee on Adolescence, sponsored by the Group for the Advancement of

Psychiatry (Settlage, et al, 1968). The committee recognized that changes in body image and behavior, accompanied by identity-seeking and idealism, must all be thoroughly integrated in order to achieve the successful resolution of adolescence. It is evident from current research that the promotion of positive health interventions can be very effective at adolescence, when body image receives a great deal of attention and tendencies to adopt negative behavior are great (Harter, 1990).

All the changes in the body, not only in sexual development and function but also in physical size and strength, necessitate modification of the earlier established mental images of the body (Settlage, et al, 1968).

Intellectual development during adolescence, described by Piaget as a profound evolutionary process, is characterized by a delight in and fascination with "general questions, with artistic, scientific, political, philosophical, and social problems" (Osterrieth, 1970, p. 15). Adults often overlook the possibilities for growth and transformation in this evolution because of its veneer of chaos and disorder. It should be noted, however, that it is through the embrace of abstraction that the adolescent meets the self (Osterrieth, 1970).

Changes in the affective domain of the adolescent both accompany and are amplified by alterations in body image and intellectual development (Pliner, et al, 1990). Highly sensitive to the attitudes and perceptions of those around him, especially those of peers, the

adolescent may succumb to feelings of inadequacy and turn inward or act out. At the same time a loosening of parental ties, both confusing and exciting, provides him with an opportunity to develop more mature patterns of adaptation (Lerner, 1981).

With the diminution in the influence of former identifications, a re-evaluation, a reality-testing of the parents and their attitudes, follows. There is the possibility then, for desirable change in personality as a part of normal adolescent development (Settlage, et al, 1968).

Positive changes can occur if parents or other significant adults develop the necessary tolerance for the changes, sometimes puzzling and frustrating, in their youthful charges. Those capable of listening to the adolescent and taking him seriously can provide the companionship and example which are so essential at this stage of development.

One can hardly exaggerate the importance of these older people whose behavior and attitudes awaken echoes in the consciousness of the young. By an out-and-out imitation of them, by identifying with them, he draws outlines of his own personality. These identification objects are not, however, exclusively or necessarily within the realm of reality. The young person finds as many, and probably more, in literature and in the movies, as well as in the world of sports. (Osterrieth, 1970, p. 11)

The teenager's task is formidable. Dealing with the immensity of this task requires the discovery of positive images which can provide a pathway through which the adolescent can negotiate the challenge of harnessing and directing his abundant energies toward mature adulthood. Virginia Satir (1988) likens youth to energetic race horses nervously pacing at the starting gate of life. Their false starts and "hormonal storms" are part of the developmental process. She concludes that:

....adolescence has served its purpose when a person arrives at adulthood with a strong sense of self-esteem, the ability to relate intimately, to communicate congruently, to take responsibility, and to take risks. (Satir, 1988, p. 324)

There has been a dramatic increase in research on adolescence in the past decade. While earlier studies of human development had emphasized the impact of childhood experiences, recent studies on adolescence have led to the conclusion that powerful changes occur during this period as well. Alterations in family patterns and demographics, causing exposure to greater risks in the form of drugs and disease, have dramatically increased the challenges faced by adolescents (Simmons, et al, 1973; Feldman and Elliot, 1990). Despite this obvious reality much of the research still claims that, for most adolescents, indicators such as self-esteem continually become more positive (e.g., Damon and Hart, 1982). Ebata and Petersen (1987) found that only 11% of adolescents have serious chronic

psychological difficulties, 32% have occasional or situational problems, and 57% have a basically positive experience of adolescence.

Whether one concludes that adolescence is essentially turbulent or a challenging but largely manageable period may depend on the population studied. Most of the research to date, except that which highlights crime and social problems, has been done with middle income, white, mostly male, subjects. If we are to get a true picture of the challenges and opportunities of adolescence it will be necessary to choose more heterogeneous populations. Although it does not completely satisfy this need, the current study includes a more varied population than the research cited.

SELF-ESTEEM THEORY

The concept of self-esteem has a rich history, having been theorized in the writings of prominent psychologists as early as 1890. William James saw self-love as based on the performance of what each person chose as his/her true self. Only those characteristics attributed to this self would be used to measure success or failure and, therefore, self-esteem. More specifically he said that:

Our self-feeling in this world depends entirely on what we back ourselves to be and do. It is determined by the ratio of our actualities to our supposed potentialities; a fraction of which our pretensions are the denominator, and the numerator our successes; thus

successes
self-esteem = $\frac{\text{pretensions}}{\text{successes}}$. (James, 1890, p. 296)

James delineated three essential constituents of the self: the material self, the social self and the spiritual self. The material self includes the body and all of one's possessions. Success in acquiring material goods leads to a feeling of worth, while a loss of possessions or damage to the body results in a diminishment of one's personhood.

The social self is related to the reputation one chooses, and through which one wishes to be known. The positive regard of others is essential to the well-being of this part of the personality. To a young child the regard of parents is paramount, while an adolescent requires the affirmation of his peers (Brown, 1982; Brown, et al, 1986).

The inner self is referred to by James as the spiritual self: .the essence or core of one's being. He differentiated the doer, *me*, from the observer, *I*, which he saw as the seat of consciousness. This spiritual or observer self, continuous over time, is the arbiter of a felt sense of self-esteem (James, 1890).

Charles Cooley (1902) took a more social approach to the subject of self-esteem, theorizing that people define themselves in terms of how they are viewed by others, creating a "looking-glass self."

This is evident from the fact that the character and weight of that other, in whose mind we see ourselves, makes all the difference with our feeling. We are ashamed to seem evasive in the presence of a straightforward man, cowardly in the presence of a brave one, gross in the eyes of a refined one, and so on. We always imagine, and in the imagining share the judgment of the other mind. (Cooley, 1902, p. 152)

The social self generates an image through a process of perception, interpretation, and affective response to the perceived evaluation by another. This segment of the personality is the mitigating factor in the development and refinement of the internal self (Bednar, et al, 1989).

Adlerian, or individual psychology, while not referring explicitly to self-esteem, delineated a holistic view of the individual as he relates to society. Adler (1928) recognized a creative self, striving for completeness, simultaneously fighting against a sense of inferiority or helplessness. He saw individuals as using coping or avoiding mechanisms in dealing with this struggle, which formed a basis for later theorists (Branden, 1969 and Covington and Beery,

1976) to distinguish between those with high self-esteem and those with low self-esteem.

Continuing the view that significant others play a determinant role in the formation of self-esteem, Mead (1934) judged the autonomous choices of the individual to be of lesser importance. This seems to infer that individuals who have not enjoyed positive parenting will have difficulty establishing a positive sense of self.

Refuting this emphasis on the high regard of others as the central determinant of high self-esteem, and aligning with a more self-determining construct described by James (1890), Rollo May (1983) stressed the need for autonomy. He believed that:

To the extent that my sense of existence is authentic, it is precisely not what others have told me I should be, but is the one Archimedes point I have to stand on from which to judge what authorities and parents demand...The sense of being gives the person a basis for a self-esteem which is not merely the reflection of others' views about him. For if your self-esteem must rest, in the long run, on social validation, you have not self-esteem, but a more sophisticated form of social conformity. (May, 1983, p. 102)

The personality theory of Carl Rogers (1951) seems to concur. He asserts that every person inhabits a unique world of personal awareness which allows him to distinguish between the distortions of introjected parental images and the validity of direct experience.

Rejecting the concern that total acceptance of one's own valuing process will result in anarchy, Rogers insists on the reliability of the directly experienced self in the development of positive self-esteem (Rogers, 1951).

TRANSPERSONAL PERSPECTIVES

Transpersonal Self-esteem

Maslow (1968) not only acknowledges the experiential nature of self-esteem, but sees this construct as a basic human need, without which self-actualization is not possible. Thus the process of expansion and transcendence which Maslow saw as man's ultimate striving rests in part on the development of self-esteem as it is defined in this study, that is, having physical, emotional and spiritual components. He states:

Without the transcendent and the transpersonal, we get sick, violent and nihilistic, or else hopeless and apathetic. We need something 'bigger than we are' to be awed by and to commit ourselves to in a new, naturalistic, empirical, non-churchly sense, perhaps as Thoreau and Whitman, William James and John Dewey did.
(Maslow, 1968, p. iv.)

Nathaniel Branden (1988), one of the leading authorities in the field of self-esteem psychology, sees this construct as inextricably linked with "spiritual attainment" and the "evolution of consciousness." Self-esteem is "the foundation of that serenity of

spirit that makes possible the enjoyment of life" (Branden, 1988, p. 10).

Wilber (1993) developed a model of evolution of the self which is based on a Spectrum of Consciousness." Each level of the spectrum is marked by a different sense of individual identity. On the ego level, one is identified with a mental picture, or self-image, and is engaged in primarily intellectual processes. If this picture is clear and accurate, the person develops a healthy sense of self, and is able to progress to a higher state of consciousness. On the other hand, if the sphere of identity is narrowed to include only parts of the ego, while other parts are alienated, the person then identifies with an impoverished and inauthentic self-image. Wilber stressed the importance of a strong ego structure with self-esteem as a component necessary to attain higher levels of well-being.

At these higher levels, which include the transpersonal, one recognizes that "the depth of one's identity that goes beyond one's individual and separate being" (Wilber, 1993, p. 29). No longer confined to an egoic sense of self, the person can see the "symbolic, the mythic, the poetic the transcendent, the miraculous"(p.30).

The individual comes to feel, beyond any shadow of a doubt, that he is fundamentally one with the entire universe, with all worlds high or low, sacred or profane. His sense of identity expands far beyond the narrow confines of his mind and body and embraces the entire cosmos. (Wilber, 1979, p. 3)

These highest levels of the self are confirmed by Walsh and Vaughan (1980) as they describe a continuum of human development beyond ordinary states of consciousness. These transpersonal psychologists set a larger context of the self, and therefore of self-esteem. More than merely self-image, this context includes access to inner wisdom, intuition, and creativity, and the notion of a continuum of development and evolution of self-esteem.

Transpersonal Education

Human beings, if they are to become whole, must address their physical, emotional, intellectual and spiritual needs. Transpersonal education is a learning process designed to support and encourage the development of the whole person. It is "an approach that aims at the concurrent development of the logical and the mystical, the analytical and the intuitive" (Hendricks and Fadiman, 1975, p. 2).

The Phi Delta Kappan (1977), a prominent journal in the field of school administration, ascribed to transpersonal education the potential for addressing our major social ills, including juvenile drug use and criminal behavior, as well as improvement of the learning environment. This new theory was seen as a dominant trend which might well become an educational revolution.

More humane than traditional models, transpersonal education moves beyond the mere imparting of coping skills toward more transcendent realms. It is a holistic model promoting :

individual and society, freedom and responsibility, uniqueness and interdependence, mystery and clarity, tradition and innovation. It is complementary and dynamic. It is education's Middle Way. (Ferguson, 1980, p. 288)

A transpersonal model of education was constructed by Gary Bacon (1982), using an alternative educational approach within a traditional high school. Termed "The Learning Community" (p. 10), the aims of the project were to develop "the learner's inner nature" (p. 110), to use the "learner's process as curriculum" (p. 111), to develop a "psycho-philosophical view of life" (p. 116-117), and finally to carry this view into every interaction with others and with the environment. This model has grown and flourished during the past ten years and is expected to expand soon (Bacon, 1982).

A study of the influence of the Learning Community curriculum on self-acceptance, used as a criterion of self-esteem, was undertaken by Fisher (1992). Seventy-four students, representing forty-two per cent of all graduates of the program completed a questionnaire addressing personal, group, psychological, world and transpersonal elements of the program.

These categories were interpreted using the conditions of self-esteem identified by Clemes and Bean (1981): connectiveness, empowerment, uniqueness and models. Students exhibited the belief that exposure to the transpersonal curriculum had a highly positive

effect on their self esteem, most dramatically in the area of connectiveness. This study by Fisher, although exploratory, indicates a trend which warrants further investigation.

In addressing the development of self-esteem in a traditional high school setting, using transpersonal principles and methodology, the current study breaks new ground. There is no available research in which the use of positive film role models was correlated with self-esteem in any population.

FILM: THEORY AND RESEARCH

Film Theory

In the United States the study of film was first recognized as an academic discipline in the early seventies. Before that time American movies were taken seriously only by the French, who saw them as having the same aesthetic validity as a painting or symphony. Psychoanalytic interpretation of film was used to explain the introduction of sex and politics into the genre. It is interesting that during the sixties and early seventies, when psychology students were told that Freud's theories were obsolete, the portrayal of psychiatrists in the movies also took a negative turn (Gabbard and Gabbard, 1977).

In the post-Freudian era of the late seventies the psychology of Jacques Lacan, and his protege Christian Metz, who delved into the deep structures underlying movies, was adopted by American film

theorists. Using the theory of semiotics which, when applied to film, refers to the manner in which meaning is generated, Lacan also incorporated a somewhat revised Freudian theory by viewing the imaginary as the key to early understanding of image of self and image of other. It is this mirror image of self, perceived by the child as more delineated than it actually is, which is the precursor of the ego-ideal. As this ego-ideal is introjected the child experiences a desire to relate, a necessary characteristic for identification with other (Lacan, 1949, 1990). This capacity to identify accounts for the appeal of cinema.

Gabbard and Gabbard (1977) suggest that the child develops an ambivalent relationship with the projected self, which enables him to "identify alternately with the exhibitionist and the voyeur, the master and the slave, the victim and the victimizer" (Gabbard and Gabbard, 1977, p. 181). This seems to suggest that the visual images in film are a replication of our childhood experiences, which we later control and decipher through our grasp of the symbolic. It is Silverman's view that the power of these images and their origin in the unconscious makes cinema an unparalleled vehicle for symbol and meaning (Silverman, 1983).

Gabbard and Gabbard (1977), have touched on this same theme:

We would submit that media images work on us unconsciously throughout our lives, even if we consciously reject the film stereotypes that we see. The cumulative effect of viewing film is the creation of a mental warehouse full of internal stereotypes stored in preconscious and unconscious memory banks....Rather than psychoanalyzing the film makers, students of Lacan address the complex means by which the cinematic apparatus invokes the Imaginary and the Symbolic orders of the typical viewer. (Gabbard and Gabbard, 1977, p. 167)

It is the image and symbol in film with which this study deals. It is hoped that by invoking and identifying with positive images on the screen, the individual may gain a healthier sense of self—in other words, greater self-esteem.

Psychological States and the Cinema

Modern psychiatry and the cinema became aware of each other shortly before the turn of the century. As early as 1916, film was recognized as a remarkably effective means of portraying psychological states. Hugo Munsterberg, a Harvard psychologist and critic of Freudian theory, published the first psychological study of film. He vividly described the film viewer's internal process, during which

the photoplay tells us the human story by overcoming the forms of the outer world, namely space, time and causality, and by adjusting the events to the forms of the inner world, namely attention, memory, imagination, and emotion. (Munsterberg, 1970, p. 74)

More recent film theorists have expanded upon earlier views of the connection between psychoanalysis and movies. Schneider reviewed the concurrent development of cinema and psychiatry (1977) and the practice of "Movie psychiatry" (1985). Using the psychoanalytic point of view, Greenberg (1990) has explored the film as teacher and vehicle for the portrayal of archetypal symbol. Gabbard and Gabbard (1990) have observed that :

From the beginning, Hollywood films have constituted a never-ending reunion of archetypes. We suspect that the film's appeal has more to do with its ability to tap into the unconscious concerns that regularly drive audiences to the movies. Psychoanalytic theory provides the royal road to understanding American cinema. (Gabbard and Gabbard, 1990, p. 7)

Training institutions for psychiatrists and psychologists now regularly use movies to depict pathological states and illustrate their psychodynamics. In viewing the films, students are asked to evaluate "characters' symptoms and diagnoses; depiction of normal or pathological mental mechanisms; portrayal of life-stage specific psychological conflict, etc." (Greenberg, 1990, p 3). Medical

students at Columbia University taught by S. Hyler (personal communication, Feb. 6, 1993) and doctoral students at the Institute of Transpersonal Psychology taught by C. W. Lewis (personal communication, April 16 1992) are among those utilizing cinema. The efficacy of film teaching was examined in a study of several dozen films which depict a variety of psychoses and other mental disorders. While some of the films distorted the illness portrayed, the article lists a number of those which, when compared with the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders for symptom correctness, are "accurate in their representations of various disorders, and some may even be considered prototypal in their portrayal of the mentally ill" (Schneider, 1987, p. 994).

Psychiatry and the movies have demonstrated a special affinity for each other, since to an uncommon extent they share an interest in human behavior in general and deviations from the norm in particular. Movie stories and psychiatric case histories have always drawn their content from the same reservoir of heightened emotions and unusual motivations. (Schneider, 1987, p. 996)

The depiction of mental patients and of psychiatrists in film became the subject of increasing scrutiny as movies proliferated. The significance of these stereotypes was explored by several theorists, including Hyler, Gabbard, and Schneider (1991), who acknowledge

the power of the media to have a marked effect on the perception and action of individuals. They cite the following:

Some studies have suggested that media representations or reports of suicide may have contributed to an increased number of actual suicides by teenagers. It has even been suggested in the *New York Daily News* on May 23, 1990 that advertisements in the mass media for sneakers that cost \$135 a pair may have played a part in instigating several murders. (Gabbard, Hyler, and Schneider, 1991, p. 1044)

In the same article the authors discuss the stigmatizing effect of the films which stereotype mental patients as homicidal maniac, female seductress or rebellious free spirit. They feel that the trivializing effects of these portrayals are underestimated and cumulative, leaving viewers less sympathetic, and insurance companies less willing to provide mental health benefits (Gabbard, Hyler, and Schneider, 1991).

The impact of the film *One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest* on viewers' attitude toward the mentally ill was researched by Domino (1983). One hundred forty-six college students were tested before and after watching the film. Analysis of mean scores showed significant negative change in attitude toward the mentally ill in four of the five areas tested. Eight months later, some of the subjects were shown a documentary designed to mitigate the negative effects of the

film. This intervention had no significant effect, indicating the greater power of the movie to affect attitude.

After viewing this same film, a patient in a psychiatric hospital refused to undergo an electroconvulsive treatment for which he had earlier given consent. This clinical example, cited by Gabbard and Gabbard (1977), illustrates the impact of film on behavior as well as attitude, and is thus relevant to the current study.

Attributes, Behavior and the Cinema

Numerous researchers have investigated the effects of commercial films on the viewer's behavior, attitude, and emotional state. For the most part these studies have concentrated on the negative effects of movie-going, and the empirical evidence is controversial and inconclusive. At least two studies involving adjudicated adolescents have shown a positive association between viewing filmed violence and subsequent aggressive behavior (Leyens, et al, 1975; Parke, R.D., et al, 1977). On the other hand, Johnson and Lundy (1982) concluded after studying 517 incidents of disturbed behavior that their chi square analysis indicated a greater correlation with changes in routine than with film viewing.

In a study of aggressive behavior by male psychiatric inpatients, Bruce Harry (1983) analyzed the relationship between the type of film shown and the number of subsequent incidents of battery. Twenty-six films were classified as adventure, or non-adventure.

There was a statistically significant increase in disordered behavior following the showing of adventure films. This contradicts the results of Johnson and Lundy, but it should be noted that the two studies differed in statistical methods, type of subject, and the classification of movies and of incidents.

Gender issues were highlighted in a study which attempted to correlate sexual and violent films with attitudes and behaviors in women. A study by Borshert (1990) predicted that "women who view sexually explicit or graphically violent films will evidence lower self-esteem than women who are exposed to neutral films." The study further predicted that "the more overt 'victimization messages' will have a greater impact on self-esteem" (Borchert, 1990, p. 59). Overall these hypotheses proved untrue; that is, viewer's self esteem remained stable in the face of the negative portrayal of women. However, results indicated that women developed a "we-them" attitude and expressed less positive feelings toward the rape victims after watching sexually explicit, violent films. It was postulated that the female viewers experienced a need to distance themselves emotionally from the victims in the film in order to reduce the emotional impact of observed events.

The controversy over the effects of movies on viewers, especially those who are diagnosed as mentally disturbed, remains unsettled and warrants further investigation. It seems clear, however, that the attitudes and behaviors of viewers are affected in a variety of ways.

According to Bandura's Social Learning Theory, these changes occur through a four-step interrelated process in which the viewer first attends the modeling of a behavior, then encodes or remembers the event, subsequently experiences a motor reproduction of the behavior, and finally becomes motivated to engage in the behavior. If the modeled behavior results in a reward, it is more likely that the observer will engage in that behavior, especially if he perceives a similarity between himself and the model (Bandura, 1973).

Another analysis is given by Berkowitz (1974), who concludes that an event produces stimuli or cues in the observer, and that these link together, producing an associative learning experience. Later, associations can be reactivated by exposing the observer to the original stimuli. For example, cues may trigger aggression in a classically conditioned manner by focusing on weapons or blood.

Bandura's theory of modeling and Berkowitz's associative learning theory are useful tools in understanding the effect of film on the viewer. The selection of films in the current study is based on these theoretical foundations and, in particular, addresses the importance of close identification with the film role model in terms of race, culture, and gender. Cues will be reinforced in subsequent discussions and creative experiential activities in order to maximize the positive impact of the films on viewers' self-image.

FILMS USED IN THE CURRENT STUDY

Five films have been selected for use in the current research, based on the following criteria:

1. The screenplays are true stories or based on true stories.
2. Issues directly related to physical, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual self-esteem are presented in the films.
3. The primary characters in the stories bear similarity to the viewers in terms of gender, race, culture, socioeconomic status, and/or age.
4. The films contain particularly powerful stimuli which can be retrieved as symbols and anchor the memory of the viewer.

The five selected films and their salient themes are:

1. *Sam's Son*

Themes: Prejudice; integrity; body image; male bonding; death and dying.

2. *Stand and Deliver*

Themes: Self-image of minorities; cognitive development; models; goal setting; body-mind implications for health.

3. *Postcards from the Edge*

Theme: Dysfunctional family patterns; emotional development; addiction; codependence, individuation.

4. *Marie*

Theme: Addiction and dysfunction; peer pressure; developing ego; spiritual development.

5. *Love, Mary*

Theme: Adolescent turmoil, physical trauma; emotional development; self-actualization.

STORIES USED IN THE CURRENT STUDY

Five stories have been chosen for use in the current research, based on the same criteria used for the film selection:

1. **Bernard Carabello**

Themes: Race relations; integrity; body image; male bonding; self-actualization. (Rivera, 1976, p. 79-109).

2. **Erwin Ponder**

Themes: Self-image of minorities; cognitive development; models; goal-setting; emotional development. (Rivera, 1976, p. 269-299).

3. **The Party's Over: Diary of a recovering cocaine addict**

Themes: Addiction, emotional development, dysfunctional relationships; dependence; codependence; individuation. (Hendricks, 1990, p. 15-25, 41-65, 153-157)

4. **Angus Mack Gaither**

Themes: Family issues; ego development; spiritual development. (Rivera, 1976, p. 167-198)

5. **Swept to Sea (Condensed from: A Mighty Tempest)**

Themes: Physical trauma; emotional turmoil, spiritual development; self-actualization (Hamilton, 1992, p. 125-204).

REVIEW OF STUDIES CLOSELY RELATED TO THIS RESEARCH

It is hypothesized in the current research that the self-esteem of adolescents can be positively influenced by exposing them to films modeling healthy physical, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual states. The context in which the film will be shown is an experiential, transpersonally-oriented psychology curriculum. A search of available databases revealed no studies in which the modeling of positive attributes in film was responsible for enhanced self-esteem in adolescent viewers. A few studies bore a resemblance to the current research and will be reviewed here.

Timlin (1981) investigated the therapeutic use of guided imagery, based on the work of Leuner (1969), with a group of delinquent adolescents. The purpose of the study was to measure the effect of exercises in guided imagery on the locus of control and self-esteem of the subjects. Results showed that the experimental group had

lowered their scores significantly ($p < .05$), in the direction of internal locus of control, on the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale. No significant gain was found on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, but there was a significant correlation between self-esteem and locus of control scores on the two instruments ($r = .38$, $p < .01$). Since guided imagery will be an important component of the transpersonally oriented curriculum developed for this study, these results are of interest. In the current research an attempt will be made to correlate self-esteem and locus of control using the Rotter I-E Scale and the Reasoner Student Self-Esteem Inventory.

Male undergraduates were studied unobtrusively as they watched a videotape designated as stress-producing. On the basis of facial responsiveness the subjects were then divided into two groups: stressors, and natural inhibitors. Stressors were defined as those subjects whose facial expressions clearly reflected their reaction to the film, and inhibitors were those whose facial expressions showed little change. Both groups, evenly matched on self-esteem inventories, were subjected to threats of shock. Heart rate, respiration rate, skin conductance, and facial expressions were monitored, and an analysis of the reactions to subsequent threats of stress were measured for both groups. The expressors had significantly less physiological response to stress than the inhibitors, raising the possibility that expression of emotion through facial expressions reduces the effects of stress on the body.. While the

results of the study are tentative, its importance to this research is the use of film modeling in distinguishing personality styles of the viewers (Levenson and Notarius, 1979).

Another study utilizing stress films to measure changes in emotional and cognitive responses was done by Horowitz and Wilner (1976). Replicating an earlier study (Horowitz, 1969) testing the clinical theory that intrusive and repetitive thought follows exposure to stressful events, subjects watched films depicting separation, bodily injury, erotic scenes, or neutral events. Reactions indicated that repetitive intrusive thoughts can be correlated with moderately stressful events as well as with trauma. Of considerable relevance is the finding that film stimuli were used to evoke fearful, sad, pleasant, and relatively benign emotional states. This represents an extension of earlier findings to the realm of positive emotional response to film modeling, which is of interest in the current study.

The value of lectures as film supplements in the process of changing viewer attitudes was investigated by Smith and Staudohar (1956). The lectures were designed to highlight significant scenes and events related to a specific outcome in the subjects-air force military trainees. The film *Twelve O'Clock High* was chosen for its depiction of favorable attitudes toward strict discipline. Significantly greater mirroring of these attitudes was found in the those subjects who attended the supplementary lectures after viewing the film,

indicating that this combined approach is more effective than film alone.

A research study which demonstrated the power of film to produce attributional and even physiological changes was conducted on a college population (McClelland, 1988). One hundred thirty-two college students were assigned to small groups and exposed to two films: *Mother Theresa*, which was chosen to arouse affiliation motivation, and *Triumph of the Axis in World War II*, which was chosen to arouse power motivation.

Before viewing the films, the subjects were given the Thematic Aperception Test (TAT), which is used to analyze stories written or told by the subjects. The TAT assigns scores on three subscales: Power, Affiliation, and Activity Inhibition. Next they were asked to fill out a questionnaire reporting any recent illness, and a Mood Competency Profile to measure changes in mood. Finally, each subject was asked to provide a saliva sample to be assayed for concentration of immunoglobulin A (S-IgA), a substance which has been associated with increased resistance to respiratory infections (Jemmott, Borysenko, et al, 1983).

After viewing the films the subjects were post-tested, using the TAT and Mood competency Profile, and their S-IgA concentrations were measured once more. As expected, *Triumph of the Axis* raised Power scores more than the *Mother Theresa* film, which caused a greater rise in Affiliation. In terms of S-IgA levels, *Triumph of the*

Axis did not produce the expected lower concentration. However, the effects of the *Mother Theresa* film were striking, increasing S-IgA levels significantly in two separate showings.

Of additional interest is the correlation of individual mood states in viewers of *Mother Theresa* with an increase S-IgA levels. Of the 18 subjects who had positive reactions to the film, 50% gained in S-IgA levels as compared with measures taken before the film, while the 13 people who reacted negatively to the film showed a 61% gain in S-IgA. Indications are that conscious mood or reactions were not related to shifts in S-IgA.

While the results of one experiment are necessarily limited, and clearly more research is needed, these findings are important to the current study. There are indications that film has the potential to produce significant shifts in emotional and physiological states, and thus affect the bodymind in positive ways.

The only available study in which films were used in a traditional school setting was carried out in a college classroom (Champion, 1978). Entitled *Sociology Through Film*, the course was designed to expose college students to sociological concepts in a dynamic and inviting manner. Discussions and handouts were used to reinforce learning, and careful records of student achievements were kept over a four-year period. The overall GPA's for students in the film and non-film course were 3.02 and 2.49 respectively. It might be questionable to assume that higher grades constitute greater

learning, but this study does lay the groundwork for greater and more effective use of film as a principal learning modality in school settings. A finding which supports the effectiveness of film was that 76% of the students enrolled in the film courses wanted to learn more about sociology, compared with 51% in the traditional course. The current study will attempt to substantiate the belief that film is a valuable resource for the educational community, both as medium and as message.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

OVERVIEW

This chapter provides a detailed account of how the current study was conducted, including descriptions of the participants, intervention, instrumentation, and data collection procedures. The quasi-experimental nature of the design and proposed analysis of data will be discussed. The hypotheses, outlined in Chapter One, will be further elaborated, and the chapter will close with an acknowledgment of the limitations of the study.

PARTICIPANTS

Approximately one hundred psychology students took part in this study, which was conducted in a mid-sized suburban public high school. About 1400 students attend this four-year institution in a primarily blue collar community in the western region of the United States.

The demographics of the population were as follows: (1) 22% of the participants were Asian, 26% were Hispanic, 36% were Caucasian, 5% were black, and 8% were other. (2) 56% of the participants were female and 44% were male. (3) 13% were Freshmen, 5% were Sophomores, 31% were Juniors, and 51% were Seniors.

PROCEDURE

In the spring of 1992 several school districts were contacted to explore the possibility of researching the use of positive role models in commercial films as a vehicle for the enhancement of adolescent self-esteem. Although responses from the administrators were positive, there was understandably some reticence from teachers who would be asked to replace a portion of their curriculum with a research study. The school which ultimately agreed to allow the study did so after consensus was reached at all levels of administration and faculty with regard to the potential value of the project. Both the curricular needs of the school and the personal needs of the students were considered at length before this consensus was reached, an essential step in beginning research which is compatible with transpersonal education.

In order to minimize both the disruption of the existing curriculum and the burden of additional planning on the part of the teacher, it was decided that two classes of second-semester psychology students would act as controls. Two classes of beginning psychology students were designated experimental. This plan did introduce a contaminant, in that the control groups had already been exposed to psychology and were familiar with the teacher. However, the only alternative was to use more than one teacher in the study, which was deemed more problematical.

The two groups chosen for control studied a standard high school psychology curriculum, including communication skills, decision-making and goal-setting, psychological theory, and psychopathology.

The two remaining groups were considered experimental, and studied an alternative, transpersonally-oriented, curriculum. The interface of mind, body, and spirit was a focal point, and the course included an investigation of altered states of consciousness, utilizing such vehicles as Tai Chi and guided imagery. Didactic, media, discussion, and experiential exercises were designed to promote physical, mental, emotional, and spiritual self-esteem.

One of the experimental groups was called the Film Group, since the media portion of their curriculum utilized commercial movies. The other was called the Literature Group, and used stories instead of films. In all other respects these two groups studied the same transpersonally- oriented curriculum. Each of the films and stories were presented over three fifty-minute class periods to allow time for written exercises and discussion.

The Teacher

Most teachers are aware of the need to provide the student with positive reinforcement, and may be familiar with self-enhancement activities designed to raise self-esteem levels (Canfield and Wells, 1976; Canfield, 1986; Reasoner and Dusa, 1991). This does not guarantee that the teacher is able to appreciate the degree to which

she herself impacts the process of building self-esteem. The personality and communication skills of the teacher are an essential component in this process; a vital link which is often underestimated.

Burns (1979), for example, has researched the way in which the teacher's self-esteem impacts the student's self-esteem, finding them to be highly correlated. Rogers (1951) identifies the communication skills which teachers must learn if they are to become effective. They include non-verbal cues, such as body orientation, eye contact, and tone of voice, as well as the use of words which convey valuing and acceptance. These are the same skills which are related to the development of the self-concept, and are also associated with effective counseling. It is clear then that teachers who have high self-esteem produce students who have high self-esteem, and that the converse is also true.

There is ample evidence that people who have positive attitudes toward themselves are likely to have positive attitudes towards others (Omwake, 1954; Burns, 1975). The personal characteristics of the teacher which enhance self-esteem have received specific attention by Maslow (1954).

Empathy, acceptance and genuineness are essential. The teacher must be able to accept the student even when the behavior is not acceptable (Lawrence, 1988).

The teacher will need sometimes to reflect deeply on his or her own behavior before being able to do this. Where it is difficult to accept the student the question must be asked: "What is it in me that prevents me from giving this student respect even though I do not approve of the behavior?" (Lawrence, 1988, p. 25)

Teachers who are able to delegate routine tasks, take the time to relate personally to the students, are tolerant of students' need to converse, and are generally relaxed are those who themselves possess high self-esteem. Only these teachers are able to present a model of high self-esteem with which students can identify. This essential process of identification with the teacher is strongest where the students perceive that the teacher provides a growth-enhancing atmosphere (Murray, 1972).

In addition to personal characteristics, the teacher's non-verbal cues also have an influence on the students' self-esteem. Body posture, eye contact, body orientation, tone of voice, and gestures all influence the extent to which the student feels involved or non-involved, superior or inferior to the teacher (Argyle, 1970).

The current study was conducted by a teacher who possesses, to a large degree, the qualities necessary to model high self-esteem. Her reputation as a sensitive, highly competent teacher and her holding a Master's degree in counseling psychology with a transpersonal emphasis makes her highly qualified to teach this curriculum. Her willingness to spend the necessary time to confer with the researcher

and prepare the lessons is also seen as an essential consideration in this choice.

The Curriculum

The curriculum studied by the experimental groups consisted of an overview of the transpersonal perspective, followed by four units, each covering one of the levels of self-esteem mentioned above, and a final unit summarizing all levels and providing closure. The first unit was preceded by two days of pre-testing using Reasoner's Student Self-Esteem Inventory, The Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (Eagley revision), and the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale. The sixth unit was followed by two days of post-testing, using the same three tests. These instruments are described in detail in the instrumentation section of this chapter, and a copy of each can be found in Appendix A., with permission of the author and publishers.

Each of the four units, addressing a particular level of self-esteem, contains dyadic exercises in which students explored how they are different (unique), and how they are alike (related). Weekly rap sessions were conducted in an atmosphere designed to help students increase their sense of belonging, while exploring the possibility of relating to models presented earlier in the unit, either in film or stories. It was hoped that an increasing degree of internal locus of control, associated with personal power, would be developed

descriptive information is contained in the following outline, and a sample lesson plan presenting a film and a story is available in Appendix C.

COURSE OUTLINE

Unit I - The Meaning and Importance of Self-esteem

Maslow's hierarchy of needs: Students learn to recognize the importance of satisfying basic needs prior to building self-esteem.

Four Components of Self-Esteem: Uniqueness, belonging, power and models. Subsequent to explanation of terms and discussion, students will write an autobiographical sketch entitled "Who Am I?", reflecting on their own uniqueness, sense of belonging, personal power and any modeling which has had an impact on their lives.

Unit II - Physical Self-esteem

The Wellness Quadrant: Nutrition, Exercise, Relaxation, Sleep.

Read *Choose to Be Healthy and Celebrate Life* (Jones, 1988).

- Discuss the uniqueness of physical needs.

- Complete an evaluation of nutritional habits—discuss in dyads, choosing a goal for improved eating habits.

Read *How to Get High* (Luks and Barbato, 1989).

- Discuss the value of endorphins in reducing consumption of alcohol and tobacco. Highlight the connection between physical and emotional well-being by assessing feelings while holding different physical positions. For example, observe that anger may be felt more intensely when one's fists are clenched than when they are relaxed.
- Introduce a brief guided relaxation experience.
- Discuss the physical and psychological effects of relaxation.
- Wellness journal—Students complete a daily checklist concerning nutrition, exercise, and sleep for a period of two weeks.

Film Group: Movie: *Sam's Son*

Theme: A young man learns to develop physical strength through a belief system based on a bible myth.

Literature Group: Story: *Bernard Carabello*

Theme: A young man is diagnosed as retarded when he is actually physically handicapped. He goes

to extraordinary lengths to fulfill his potential.

Both Groups: Complete discussion questions on physical self-esteem, as related to the film or story.

- Brainstorming session on physical self-esteem.
- Guided Imagery: *Accepting Body Image: Transforming your self-image, attitudes, and behavior* (Miller, 1989).

Unit III - Intellectual Self-Esteem

Power of our thoughts: $E + R = O$ (Our Response to Events influences Outcome) Kinesiology demonstration (Canfield, 1986, p. 114).

- Watch a portion of *The Healing Mind* (Moyers, 1992), including an explanation of energy as life force (chi) and a demonstration of Tai Chi.
- Demonstrate a few Tai Chi moves and have students practice, then create a routine and continue to practice. Repeat for a few minutes daily until students are comfortable.

Film Group: Movie: *Stand and Deliver*

Theme: Inner city youths react to positive role modeling from a teacher by increasing their intellectual self-esteem and their ethnic pride.

Literature Group: Story: *Ezra Ponder* (Rivera, 1976)

Theme: A black youth slowly becomes aware of his ability to learn, and uses education as a ticket out of the chaos of the ghetto.

Both Groups: Complete and discuss questions on intellectual self-esteem as it relates to the film or story.

- Experiential exercises using positive self-talk (Canfield, 1990, p. 112-120). Students are given an opportunity to work in dyads, using techniques of positive and humorous self-talk.
- Guided Imagery: *I Can: Achieving self-empowerment* (Miller, 1989).

Unit IV - Emotional Self-Esteem

Read and discuss *Those who stay healthy: How control, challenge, and commitment keep us well* (Justice, 1988).

- Students do an exercise in which they experience the power of imagery over behavior and feeling states (Canfield, 1986, p. 187).

- Explain positive risk-taking (La Meres, 1990, p. 132). Put students into triads and have them brainstorm personal examples of positive risk-taking. For the next week they will make notebook entries of their efforts at taking interpersonal risks.

Film Group: Movie: *Postcards from the edge*

Theme: This film depicts the successful struggle of a young woman in overcoming the effects of destructive parenting, her mother's alcoholism and her own addiction to cocaine.

Literature Group: Story: *The Party's Over: Diary of a Recovering Cocaine Addict*
(Hendricks, 1990).

Theme: The story follows a young graduate student as she is seduced by cocaine. After a courageous struggle she learns to overcome her addiction, one day at a time.

Both Groups: Answer and discuss questions concerning emotional self-esteem as depicted in the film or story.

- Guided imagery: *I can: Achieving self-empowerment* (Miller, 1989).

Unit V - Spiritual Self-Esteem

- Making a distinction between behavior and self.
- Explain that behavior is what we say, do, or feel at any moment in time, while self is "something that can't be represented easily in language and is greater than anything we will ever consciously comprehend" (Bandler, 1983, p. 20).
- Have students do a "Power Circle" exercise (La Meres, 1990, p. 247). This exercise helps students acknowledge qualities they like about themselves which are not related to behavior or achievement. After completing the exercise they can discuss the results in groups of four.
- Discuss core beliefs and the way in which beliefs create reality. Ask students to brainstorm examples of decisions which could be labeled "powerful" and some which could be labeled "powerless". Pair up students and ask them to share a powerful decision and the consequence. Have students be aware of all behavior over 24 hours and take two minutes the next day to jot down what they noticed about personal power. Ask them to share their observations in groups of four.

- "Internal Wisdom Fantasy" (Canfield, 1986, p. 193).

This exercise introduces students to the vast storehouse of their inner wisdom and helps expand their vision of who they are.

Film Group: Movie: *Marie*

Theme: A young single parent educates herself and becomes head of a state parole board, where she chooses to expose corruption at the cost of her fiance's life and her own near ruin. Her spiritual strength and courage are unwavering in the face of greed and evil.

Literature Group: Story: *Swept to Sea* (Hamilton, 1992)

Theme: A young woman sets out alone in a small boat and is swept far from shore into a stormy sea. She endures, storms, sharks, and internal demons, calling on inner strength and spiritual beliefs, until she is finally rescued.

Both Groups: Answer and discuss questions about spiritual self-esteem, as it relates to the film or story.

- Guided Imagery: *Inspired imagery: finding inner direction for your life* (Miller, 1989).

Unit VI - Conclusion

Read and discuss: *The new fitness* (Leonard, 1991), which stresses the importance of integrating mind, body, and spirit.

- Have students complete a "Whole Person Health Appraisal" as a way to assess their fitness at physical, mental, emotional, social, and spiritual levels. As a follow-up they will do a "Goals for Personal Development Inventory" to facilitate setting their own goals for future development. Both of these exercises are contained in the Structural Experience Kit, written by International Authors, B.V.

Film Group: Movie: *Love Mary*

Theme: This film follows a young woman from juvenile hall through medical school. Her development of self includes stunning victories over physical, intellectual, and emotional difficulties which are staggering. Her negative experiences never quite break her resilient spirit.

Literature Group: Story: *Hugh Mark Gaither*

(Rivera, 1976)

Theme: A young boy struggles to keep his family together as death and natural disaster threaten his way of life. He uses extraordinary amounts of muscle, brainpower, emotional stability, and spiritual resources to succeed.

Both Groups: Answer and discuss questions on the holistic nature of self-esteem.

Final Ritual: Celebrating who I am. Students will each write their names on butcher paper around the walls, and then write something positive about themselves and each of their peers. A closing ritual and sharing circle will follow, including acknowledgments and good-byes. Finally, refreshments will be passed around the circle as a symbol of community.

INSTRUMENTATION

The measurement instruments which were used to provide data for this research include Gilberts and Reasoner's Student Self-Esteem Inventory (SSEI), the Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (JFS), and Rotter's Internal/External Locus of Control Inventory (LOC).

The choice of these instruments was made using the following criteria:

1. The instruments are written in clear, simple terms.
2. The cost of the tests is relatively low.
3. The tests are short and can be finished by most people in between fifteen and thirty minutes.
4. They can be scored by hand without a template.
5. All of the tests have been used extensively on adolescents.
6. The reliability of each of the tests has been established in current research, at least at the $p < .05$ level of significance.

STUDENT SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY(SSEI)

The Student Self-Esteem Inventory was designed by Reasoner and Gilberts (1990), after an extensive review of existing instruments, including those of early theoreticians: the Coopersmith Inventories (1980), Children's Self Concept Scale (Piers and Harris, 1969), Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965), and the Self-Perception Inventory (Soares and Soares, 1975). The later work of Shavelson (1975), which hypothesized that the structure of the self-concept was multifaceted and hierarchical as well as descriptive and evaluative was also reviewed, as was Marsh's SDQ (1983), stemming heuristically from Shavelson's model (Gilberts and Reasoner, 1992).

An extension of the hierarchical and multifaceted formulations of Shavelson was proposed by Reasoner in 1982. The resulting instrument, the Student Self-Esteem Inventory, was postulated on the view of self-esteem as a developmental task having five specific dimensions. Within this five factor model Reasoner perceived:

students as entering at the initial level of security, developing a sense of identity and building an awareness of belonging before progressing to the higher levels of self-esteem development. Perceiving purpose in self and establishing competence or developing personal skills to maintain the levels of self-worth were proposed as being the higher levels of self-esteem. Again, the SSEI heuristically grew out of the Shavelson model to measure the new definitions of academic self-esteem in valid and reliable ways (Gilberts and Reasoner, 1992, p. 5).

Each of the factors mentioned above comprise a subscale of the SSEI. The security scale is a measure of the student's feeling level as he experiences routine stresses at school. The identity scale assesses feelings of academic strengths and weaknesses. The belonging scale is a measure of connectedness. The final scale measures competence in the sense of inner controls.

Norm Group

The norm group for the SSEI consisted of over 10,000 subjects from California, the mid-west and the east coast. Ninety-five per cent of the subjects came from public schools. The ethnic composition of the subjects, roughly approximating that of California, was: 50.6% Caucasian, 16.9% Hispanic, 15.5% Asian, 9% Black, and 8% Filipino.

Validity of the SSEI

Data related to validity will be reported as construct, concurrent, and predictive. Construct validity relates to the ability of the instrument to obtain information within the limits of a definite concept. Concurrent validity demonstrates the ability of the instrument to measure what other known instruments measure at approximately the same time. Predictive validity, on the other hand, is concerned with demonstrating relationships which correlated with a criterion variable. In the case of the SSEI, the criterion or outside variable is academic achievement.

Construct Validity

The construct validity of the SSEI was established using a sample of nearly 7,000 students, grades 4 through 12. Starting at grade five the subscale factors (belonging, security, identity, competence, and purpose) were confirmed consistently and remained so through grade 12. A factor analysis indicated that the strongest factor was belonging (12% of variance), followed by security (7% of variance), identity (5.8% of variance), purpose (4.2% of variance) and competence (2.8% of variance).

Concurrent Validity

The SSEI has been studied for concurrent validity with the Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) and with the Behavioral Academic Self-Esteem scale (BASE), both written by Coopersmith. The correlation between the Coopersmith Inventory and the SSEI total scores was .70 ($p < .05$) with SEI and .50 ($p < .05$) with BASE (Reasoner, 1983).

A study by Crittendon (1989) on 214 elementary and middle school students demonstrated a significant relationship between BASE and SSEI composite scores ($r = .41$, $p < .05$). Further correlation was found between the BASE subscales of Student Initiative and Social Attraction and the SSEI Identity subscale ($r = .35$ and $.45$, $p < .05$).

Anderson (1991) found evidence of concurrent validity in correlational studies with Marsh's Self Description Questionnaire (SDQ), and the Harter Scale. Using a sample of 5th, 6th and 8th grade students, significant relationships were found, at the .05 level, between the SSEI subscales and the Harter Scales of Scholastic Competence, Social Acceptance, and Behavioral Conduct. A moderate degree of correlation, often at the .05 level, was found between the SSEI subscales and all seven of the SDQ scales.

Predictive Validity

A California study by Manchester (1991) found a correlation at statistically significant levels, $r = .43$ ($p = 2.61 \times 10^{-10}$, two-tailed)

and .45 ($p = 2.7 \times 10^{-10}$, two tailed) between the SSEI subscales of Security and Identity and reading achievement measured by Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores. There was a weaker, but still significant relationship between the SSEI composite score and reading achievement ($r = .27$, $p < .01$).

In his study of 214 students, Crittendon (1989) found a significant inverse relationship between negative teacher notations in cumulative school records and the SSEI Identity scores. ($r = -.60$, $p < .001$). On the other hand, positive teacher remarks correlated significantly and positively with SSEI Identity and Purpose subscores. The identity subscale seemed to be a better predictor of behavior than the composite SSEI score.

RELIABILITY OF THE SSEI

Internal Consistency

Estimates of internal consistency were computed using Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 (KR 20) equations in a study involving 5,160 students, grade 5 through 12. Internal consistency reliabilities were acceptable and reasonably strong (between .92 and .96) for an effective measure of behavior suggesting high estimates of internal consistency. The KR 20 is often chosen for this purpose because it provides an average estimate of all possible inter-item covariances without overly valuing particular combinations.

The scales of the SSEI correlated between .59 and .72 ($p < .001$) with the total SSEI score, with Identity correlating most strongly and Competence correlating the least. The size of the intersubscore, and the total score correlations measuring between .59 and .71 ($p < .01$), indicate a reasonable level of internal consistency of the SSEI (Reasoner, 1992).

Temporal Stability

In a study of 225 5th and 6th graders in Merced, California, the temporal stability of the SSEI was tested over a six-month period. Pre and post tests were administered with no treatment intervention. The composite scores from pre to posttesting held at a moderately strong level of $r = .69$ ($p = 3.82 \times 10^{-9}$, two tailed). The scale reliabilities ranged from a low of $r = .27$ ($p = 4.06 \times 10^{-5}$, two tailed) on Competence to a high of $r = .51$ ($p = 3.70 \times 10^{-9}$, two tailed) on Belonging. The composite score was more stable, by a factor of 5, than any of the subscales (Reasoner, 1992), and will be used in the current study.

Grade and Gender

Adams and Billings (1990), in their research using the SSEI with a population of 5th, 6th, and 8th graders in southern California, cited in Reasoner (1992), found almost no significant mean differences

across grade levels. One small exception was a significant difference observed on the Belonging subscale.

Crittendon (1989) found similar responses from both sexes when scoring the SSEI, and Manchester (1991) found no significant gender differences. Manchester did observe that suburban students showed somewhat higher scores than their urban counterparts, with the strongest scores on the SSEI achieved by male suburban students, and the lowest by female urban students.

SUMMARY

Although the SSEI is a new instrument, it has been normed and validated on nearly 14,000 ethnically mixed students throughout the United States, although most of the studies have been done in California. Evidence has been provided as to the efficacy of the SSEI constructs and reasonable correlation with other like instruments. Reliability has been established within the requirements of internal consistency, but the establishment of temporal validity will require more time and further study.

There are several reasons why the SSEI was chosen for the current research over other, more established, instruments. Most important was that the five subscales (identity, belonging, security, competence, and purpose) are the closest to those qualities of self-esteem on which this study is based, namely: uniqueness, connectiveness, power, and models. The relatively little time (20

minutes) needed to administer the test, and its clarity of language, appropriateness for adolescence, and ease of scoring were also considered.

THE JANIS-FIELD FEELINGS OF INADEQUACY SCALE (JFS)

The term "persuasibility," as used by Irving Janis (1959), refers to the degree to which a person responds to various types of persuasive communication. While concluding that there is no single factor of persuasibility in the sense that each person can be given a score which measures his susceptibility to changing opinions and attitudes in all situations, Janis asserts that some significant changes can be measured.

In a study conducted at Yale University as part of a coordinated program of research on communication and opinion change, Janis (1959) related the conditions of low self-esteem and neurotic anxiety to the amount of opinion change shown after exposure to a series of persuasive communications. Analysis of the study indicated that manifestations of low self-esteem are associated with high persuasibility.

The instrument used in the study was a questionnaire containing 38 items selected from standard personality inventories, grouped into five categories. The first of these scales was designed to measure social inadequacy, including: feelings of shyness, low confidence,

disinclination to speak to others unless spoken to, inability to share problems, high concern about others' opinions of one, and a fear of entering a room full of people. This subscale has become a separate instrument called the Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (Janis, 1959).

The Janis Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (JFS) is widely regarded as one of the better multidimensional scales of self-esteem (Robinson and Shaver, 1973), and has been used in hundreds of studies addressing self-regard, academic abilities and social confidence (Fleming and Watts, 1980). Some recent studies in which the Janis-Field instrument was used to confirm hypotheses related to self-esteem were those of Fleming and Watts (1980), Baumeister and Tice (1985), Campbell (1990), and Tice (1991). The items in the JFS scale have been modified a number of times (Eagly, 1967; Fleming and Watts, 1980), and it is the Eagly version which was used in this study.

The original JFS scale had 23 items concerned with esteem in social areas such as assertiveness. All but two of the items are keyed in the same direction. The revised version by Eagly contains 20 items, answered on 5-point Likert scales and balanced for response bias. Designed to control for acquiescence response set, the Eagly revisions were noted as a significant improvement by Wylie (1974).

The original Janis and Field sample consisted of 185 high school students. The scale has subsequently been used with college students by Eagly and others.

RELIABILITY

Eagly presents split-half reliability coefficients of .72 ($p = 7.69 \times 10^{-11}$, two-tailed) from a 1967 study and .88 ($p = 4.39 \times 10^{-11}$, two-tailed) in a study done in 1969. She also reported a correlation of .54 between the positive and negative halves (Eagly, 1967).

Reliability based on the Spearman-Brown formula was .91. Taylor and Teitz (1968) estimated split-half reliability at (.80 $p < .05$) for a later version of the JFS by League and Jackson (1964). Campbell, et al, (1989) showed a test-retest reliability of .92 over three months.

VALIDITY

Convergent Validity

The original JFS correlated .67 with the CPI esteem scale and .60 ($p < .05$) with self-ratings of esteem (Hamilton, 1971). It also correlated .45 ($p < .001$) with Barron ego strength and .41 ($p < .001$) with the discrepancy measure (Larsen and Schwendiman, 1969). The Eagly scale correlated .84 with the Berger scale (Eagly, 1969). More recently, O'Brien (1985) correlated the total score of the Eagley scale with the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory ($r = .82$, $p < .001$, $n = 206$), and also correlated the Rosenberg test with four separate factors derived from the Eagley scale ($r_s = .74, .71, .48, .45$, with $p < .001$). Campbell (1990) correlated the Janis with the Texas Social Behavior Inventory (TSBI) at $r = .79$ ($p = 7.14 \times 10^{-11}$, two-tailed).

Heatherton and Polivy, (1991) found significant correlations ($p < .05$) with the State Self-Esteem Scale ($r = .75$), and the Multiple Affect Adjective Check List (r 's of $-.47$, $-.53$ and $-.22$).

Using another scale derived from the Janis Field, Fleming and Courtney (1984) found correlations between their scale factors and the Rosenberg as follows: self-regard $.78$, self-confidence $.51$, school ability $.35$ ($p < .05$). It is interesting to note that, despite her earlier criticism of the Janis-Field scale, Wylie, in her most recent issue of *Measures of the Self Concept* (1991) refers to these studies by O'Brien and Fleming as demonstrating the validity of the Rosenberg scale by using the Janis Field Scale.

Discriminant Validity

Hamilton (1971) found low correlations with self-ratings of dominance and open-mindedness, indicating some divergent validity (r 's between $-.36$ and $.14$ ($p < .05$)). Greenbaum (1966) reported a correlation of only $.35$ with the Marlowe-Crowne social desirability scale.

Predictive Validity

The JFS has sometimes weakly predicted persuasibility (Hovland and Janis, 1959); however, there is considerable ambiguity in this area. Hamilton (1971) found correlations of $.24$ and $.27$ ($p < .05$)

with peer ratings of self-esteem and dominance, and $-.09$ with open-mindedness, suggesting something more than a halo effect.

SUMMARY

Despite its wide use as a measure of some aspects of self-esteem, and in norming other well respected instruments, there is a scarcity of convincing evidence demonstrating strength in validity and reliability. However, the JFS, and in particular the Eagly version, is still considered valuable by researchers as a multivariate scale. It has been chosen for this study because it fits the criteria of clarity, simplicity, ease of administration, scoring ease, availability, and low cost, and because it purports to measure facets of self-esteem relating to security and belonging, both of which are subscales of the SSEI.

ROTTER'S INTERNAL-EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE

Background

Personal experience can produce a positive or negative worldview, and result internally in states ranging from creativity to chaos. "Unique and innovative minds grow among those who can come to perceive differences between others and themselves, and who continue to hold the assumption that they are free agents, the makers of their own fates" (Lefcourt, 1976). Locus of control is that construct of the self which may be used to measure the degree to

which one feels this freedom to choose and mastery of fate. Rotter (1966) defines internal-external locus of control as follows:

...an event regarded by some persons as a reward or reinforcement may be differently perceived and reacted to by others. One of the determinants of this reaction is the degree to which the individual perceives that the reward follows from, or is contingent upon, his own behavior or attributes, versus the degree to which he feels the reward is controlled by forces outside of himself and may occur independently of his own actions.... a perception of causal relationship need not be all or none but can vary in degree. When a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his action, then, in our culture, it is typically perceived as the result of luck, chance, fate, as under the control of powerful others, or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces surrounding him. When the event is interpreted in this way by an individual, we have labeled this a belief in external control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behavior or his own relatively permanent characteristics, we have termed this a belief in internal control. (Rotter, 1966, p. 227)

The first attempt to measure individual differences in expectancies of external control as a psychological variable was begun by Phares (1957). Using a Likert-type scale with 13 statements of external attitudes and the same number of items based on internal

attitudes, he found some evidence that the prediction of behavior based on attitude was possible.

After testing the internal/external control of his subjects, Phares gave them tasks such as color matching or matching lines of varying length against standard lines. He told half the group that the tasks were skill-related, and the other half that success was decided by chance. Phares found that the increments and decrements were significantly greater under skill instructions than under chance instructions. Correlating these results with his test items, he found that the items stated in external direction gave weakly significant statistical indications that individuals with external attitudes would behave in a similar fashion.

In a dissertation completed in 1957, James revised the test, using 26 items and some fillers based on the most successful portion of the Phares study. James was able to find low but significant correlations between his test and behavior in a task situation involving extra-sensory perception (ESP). External subjects had smaller increments and decrements following success and failure, generalized less from one task to another, and recovered less following the period of extinction.

James' scale was broadened by the research done by Liverant and Scodel (1960), who designed a 60-item test including several subscales. Item analysis of this instrument failed to generate evidence that the subscales produced separate predictions, and it was

subsequently abandoned. The final version of the scale was developed by Rotter (1966) It is a 29-item, forced-choice test referred to as the I-E scale.

Scoring

In the I-E scale, internal statements are paired with external statements. One point is given for each external statement selected. Scores range from zero (most internal) to 23 (most external).

Item correlation

Biserial item correlations with total score for that item removed were presented in table form by Rotter (1966). Scores are listed for 200 males, 200 females and a separate combined score. Correlations for males and females combined ranged from $r = .164$ for item 9 ("I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.") to $r = .480$ for item 25 ("Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me." The test items deal exclusively with the subjects' belief about how reinforcement is controlled. For this reason the test is considered to be a measure of generalized expectancy.

Norm Group

A number of studies involving students at Ohio State University and the resulting normative data were presented by Rotter (1966).

The results of other studies by Hamsher, Geller, and Rotter (1968), Strickland (1970), Lefcourt and Telegdi (1971) and others were combined with Rotter's data and summarized by Owen (1972). The overall means for a total of 4,433 subjects were computed for all groups combined: males, mean = 8.2 (SD = 4.0); females, mean = 8.5 (SD = 8.9); combined, mean = 8.3 (SD = 3.9). More recent norms have been substantially higher than those reported by Rotter and early users of the I-E. For example, Strickland and Haley (1980) found I-E M = 8.3 (SD = 4.4) for 113 males and M = 12.2 (SD = 3.7) for 260 females.

Two factor analyses, one by Rotter (1966) and another by Franklin (1963) arrived at similar results. Most of the total scale variance was produced by one general factor, which accounted for 53% of the variance in Franklin's analysis. In both studies there were several factors which comprised only a few items and accounted for very little of the variance.

Additional analyses (Anderson et al., 1987, McInish and Lee, 1987) have indicated that the Rotter scale is more multidimensional. However, it was generally found that one factor, often related to belief in one's own control, was responsible for most of the variance, while a second factor, related to belief that people have control generally, seems to have the same property.

VALIDITY

Construct Validity

While construct validity studies were done on the early 60-item test, there seems to be no evidence that the I-E scale was given this attention.

Concurrent Validity

Over 50% of the internal-external locus of control studies have employed the Rotter scale. The literature indicates that there are individual differences in perception about one's control over one's destiny and that the Rotter scale is sensitive to these differences (Lefcourt, 1982).

Rotter's I-E scale has been correlated with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale with scores ranging from $-.07$ to $-.35$ ($p < .05$). Higher coefficients, ranging from $-.23$ to $-.70$ ($p < .01$), were found in later studies (Altrochi, et al, 1968; Feather, 1967; Hjelle, 1971; Mac Donald, 1972). Since the Marlowe-Crowne Scale measures a subject's need for approval, the highly negative correlation with the I-E Scale may be seen as desirable.

Altrochi, et al, (1968) also found correlation at the $p < .05$ level of significance between the I-E scale and the Repression-Sensitization scale. Bax (1966) found significant correlations between the I-E and the Thematic Aperception Test (TAT) measure of differentiation

($r = .37$, $p < .001$, $n = 96$) and a lack of assertiveness ($r = .35$, $p < .001$, $n = 96$).

RELIABILITY

Internal Consistency

Internal consistency estimates are relatively stable, with $r = .73$ ($p < .05$), according to Rotter's study of 400 Ohio State College students composed of equal numbers of males and females. Rotter (1966) notes that one explanation for the moderate scores might be the fact that scale items are not arranged in a hierarchy of difficulty, which may cause the split-half scores to underestimate internal consistency. A Kuder-Richardson coefficient of .70 was calculated on the same population, indicating reasonable internal consistency.

Temporal Stability

Test-retest reliability for one month (Rotter, 1966) seemed relatively consistent in two different samples (r 's = .72 and .78). Somewhat weaker temporal reliability was noted in a 2-month period ($r = .55$), possibly because one group received the test individually and the other in a group setting. In the studies of test-retest reliability, means typically dropped on the second administration about one point in the direction of less externality.

SUMMARY

It should be noted that, according to Robinson and Shaver (1991) there are methodological problems and a lack of purity in the Rotter I-E Scale. Despite this obvious shortcoming the scale has been, and continues to be, widely used as a measure of locus of control and is used in measuring the validity of other instruments. For example, in high, medium, and low socioeconomic level respondents, Gutterman (1982) obtained r 's of .24, .22, and .22 ($p < .05$) between the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory and a shortened form of the Rotter I-E scale. This study was used by Wylie (1991) as evidence of the strength and validity of the Rosenberg scale, indicating some trust in Rotter's I-E as a worthwhile instrument. Somewhat earlier, Lefcourt (1982) noted that the group of studies that found significant correlations between measures of social desirability response bias are typically low and results of factor analysis are varied and difficult to compare. From this it could be concluded that methodological questions concerning the I-E have been raised but not effectively answered.

The I-E scale has been used to confirm hypotheses in recent research done by Clark and Stoffel (1992), who correlated the I-E at the $p < .05$ level with the Aperceptive Personality Test (1985). Waters and Popovich (1987) found adequate ($p < .05$) congruent validity with the I-E and a multidimensional explication of the locus of control construct. A short form of the I-E was used to confirm small correlations ($p = .06$ and greater) with measures of anxiety,

self-esteem, and depression. More adequate correlations between I-E and depression, anxiety and self-esteem ($r = .36, p < .05$) were found by Parish and Nunn (1988). Lumpkin (1988) confirmed a hypothesis concerning the value of guided imagery for cancer patients ($p < .05$) using the I-E scale.

The I-E has been used consistently with college students and, to a lesser degree, with adolescents. The language used is appropriate to teenagers, the test is short, is easily scored and inexpensive. The Competence subscale of the SSEI also measures locus of control, which makes Rotter's I-E a logical choice for a companion test. In short, it was the best available instrument for this study, and yet it must be acknowledged that this instrument is multidimensional, and may not provide the desired clarity in measuring internal/external control.

INTERVENTION

The treatment variable in this study consisted of a nine-week psychology curriculum, designed as an elective course for high school students, and described earlier in this chapter. Based on the principles of Transpersonal Education, this curriculum assumes a paradigm delineated by Ferguson (1980), which:

- Emphasizes learning how to learn;
- Considers learning a process and a journey;
- Encourages autonomy;

- Builds on a structure which is relatively flexible;
- Emphasizes self-image as the generator of performance;
- Uses inner experience as the context for learning, including imagery, journal-writing, and exploration of feelings;
- Encourages creativity and divergent thinking;
- Develops intuitive and non-linear as well as rational strategies;
- Encourages the testing of outer limits, and the transcendence of perceived limitations;
- Includes both quiet and exuberant activities;
- Considers teacher as learner.

This intervention was given to two groups, each of which were exposed to positive role models. The first group saw five movies, described in Chapter Two and in Appendix C, which had been chosen for their portrayal of positive self-esteem. Each of the films was accompanied by discussions, creative writing, imagery and journaling, designed to augment their impact. The films are described in Chapter Two and the curriculum is outlined earlier in this chapter.

The second group were given five readings selected for their literary portrayal of positive modeling, and were assigned activities substantially the same as those given the film group. A third and a fourth group, used for control, studied a traditional psychology

curriculum. All of the groups had the same instructor, with whom they met daily for fifty-five minutes.

Two weeks before the start of the course, the groups were pretested, using the Student Self-Esteem Inventory, by Reasoner and Gilberts (1990), Rotter's Internal/External Locus of Control Inventory (1966) and the Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (Eagly, 1967). These same instruments were used for a posttest at the end of nine weeks.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis I:

Students exposed to positive role models via film will show significant pretest to posttest increases in self-esteem (as measured by a composite score on Reasoner's SSEI) and internal locus of control (as measured by Rotter's internality scale of the LOC), and a significant decrease in feelings of inadequacy (as measured by Janis' FIS).

Hypothesis II:

Students exposed to positive role models via film will show significantly greater increases in self-esteem (as measured by Reasoner's SSEI) and internal locus of control (as measured by Rotter's internality scale of the LOC), and a significantly greater decrease in feelings of inadequacy (as measured by Janis' FIS) as

compared to students exposed to the alternative treatment involving directed readings about positive role models.

Hypothesis III:

Students exposed to positive role models via film or through directed readings will show significantly greater increases in self-esteem (as measured by Reasoner's SSEI) and internal locus of control (as measured by Rotter's internality scale of the LOC) and a significantly greater decrease in feelings of inadequacy (as measured by Janis' FIS), as compared to students in the nontreatment control group courses.

TREATMENT OF THE DATA

A quasi-experimental research design was used to study the effects of a nine-week transpersonally -oriented curricular intervention in the context of a traditional public high school psychology course on the self-esteem of the students. There were two treatment conditions—presentation of positive role models through film, and an alternative condition involving directed readings about positive role models as well as two nontreatment control groups enrolled in a traditional psychology course with no self-esteem interventions. The dependent variables in this study included: self-esteem, as measured by the Student Self Esteem Inventory; locus of control, as measured by Rotter's I-E Scale, and feelings of

inadequacy, as measured by the Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale. Each of these scales yielded one or more numerical scores. The students were pretested before beginning the course and posttested with the same instruments upon completion of the course. Blind scoring of the tests was used.

STATISTICAL ANALYSES

For the statistical analyses, change scores were computed for each dependent variable by subtracting the pretest scores from the posttest scores for all subjects.

Hypothesis I, which involves only the changes in the pre-post scores for the film treatment group, was tested by comparing the change scores on the SSEI, the Internality scale of LOC, and the JFS against a zero change. Hotelling's multivariate T-square procedure was used to compare the change score vector, on all dependent variables taken together, against the zero change vector. In addition, single mean univariate t-tests was used to compare the change scores against zero change on each of the dependent measures separately.

Hypotheses II and III was analyzed with a series of one-way ANOVA's with four levels or groups (film treatment, literary treatment, control and control). This one-way ANOVA procedure was conducted separately on the change scores for each of the dependent variables. Hypothesis II was tested by a special contrast between the change scores for the film treatment group versus the

literary treatment group. Hypothesis III was tested by a special contrast between the combined film and literary treatment groups versus the combined control groups. All tests were conducted at the 5% level of statistical significance.

LIMITATIONS

In this quasi-experimental, pretest/posttest, non-equivalent, control group study, there were several inherent limitations. First of all, with respect to sample, there was a lack of randomization. The assignment of subjects to the four groups was computer generated, but the students had previously selected psychology as an elective. This elective status of the course also prevented generalization of the results to all students. An additional limitation was created by the fact that the two control groups were second-semester psychology students, while the film and literary groups were made up of beginning psychology students.

There is a concern about the validity and reliability of Janis' Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (Wylie, 1989), as discussed in the instrumentation section of this chapter.

Although there are limitations to this study, it is not intended to prove a theory, but rather to initiate an innovative, effective, educational curriculum. It is unfortunate that there was no opportunity to give students a voice in the curriculum design. From

the perspective of Transpersonal Education, this is a serious limitation of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This chapter will present the results of this quasi-experimental, pre-test/posttest, non-equivalent control group study comparing the effects of two different interventions on the self-esteem of a group of suburban adolescents. It was hypothesized that the sample of students exposed to the film intervention would, from pre to posttest, increase their self-esteem measures on Reasoner's Student Self-Esteem Inventory, attain lower, more internal, scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Inventory, and more favorable scores on the Janis Feelings of Inadequacy Scale. It was further hypothesized that those students viewing the films would manifest greater positive change than those who were exposed to literary models. It was anticipated that the film and the literature groups, both of which received a transpersonally-oriented curriculum, would display more positive change than the two control groups, who received a "conventional" curriculum. Of secondary interest was the degree of interrelatedness found among scores on the three instruments.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The demographics of the participants, including gender, ethnicity, and grade level, are described in Table 1. The only statistically significant difference among groups concerns grade level, and is

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Sample Groups

Variable	Film Group	Literature	Control 1	Control 2
Sex				
Female	13(48%)	15(58%)	19(61%)	18(56%)
Male	14(52%)	11(42%)	12(38%)	14(44%)
Total	27	26	31	32
Ethnicity				
Asian	3(11%)	11(42%)	5(16%)	7(22%)
Hispanic	7(26%)	5(19%)	7(23%)	11(34%)
White	13(48%)	8(31%)	12(39%)	9(28%)
Other	4(15%)	2(8%)	7(23%)	5(16%)
Total	27	26	31	32
Grade^a				
9th	5(19%)	9(35%)	1(3%)	0(0%)
10th	1(4%)	4(15%)	0(0%)	1(3%)
11th	9(33%)	6(23%)	16(52%)	5(16%)
12th	12(44%)	7(27%)	14(45%)	26(81%)
Total	27	26	31	32

Note. Percents may not add to 100% due to rounding.

^aSignificant difference between groups ($\chi^2(9) = 40.13$; $p < .001$).

specified in the footnote. Control 2 has an abundance of 12th grade students (81%), which accounts for the significant difference between groups. This potentially confounding variable was ignored because there are two controls, and because it was not expected that grade level would influence the outcome of the intervention. Means and standard deviations for pre and post tests are given in Table 2 for each subgroup (Film Group, Literature Group, and each of two control groups), for the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Inventory (I-E), the Reasoner Student Self-Esteem Inventory (SSEI), and the Janis-Field (Eagley) Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (Janis). The Film Group exhibited the most positive changes from pretest to posttest, significant at the $p < .05$ level on the I-E and SSEI. For the Janis Scale $p=.0562$.

Tables 3, 4, and 5, and their corresponding graphs (Figures 1, 2, and 3), contain the mean pre and post scores on the three instruments. In Figure 1, based on results from the I-E scale, it is clear that the Film Group exhibited more change in the favorable (downward) direction than the other three groups. The Literature Group exhibited a slightly more favorable change than either of the controls. Figure 2, based on results from the SSEI scale, shows a similar pattern, with the Film group exhibiting more positive (upward) change than the other three, and the Literature Group showing somewhat less change than the Film Group. Each of the controls showed slight negative trends. Figure 3, based on the Janis

scale, shows less clear differences. The slope of the graph of the Film Group results is slightly steeper, but not significantly so, as borne out by the numerical change scores in Table 5.

The mean pre and post SSEI subscale scores for all sample groups are shown in Table 6. Although not directly related to the hypotheses, these scores are of some interest, since they indicate the degree of change on various aspects of self-esteem measured by the SSEI. The most significant change was for the Film Group on the Security subscale ($t = 3.47, p < .01$), which measures the students' feeling in response to the routine stresses experienced at school.

HYPOTHESIS TESTING

Hypothesis I stated that students exposed to positive role models via film would show significant pretest and posttest increases in self-esteem (as measured by a composite score on Reasoner's SSEI) and locus of control (as measured by Rotter's I-E scale) and a significant decrease in feelings of inadequacy (as measured by Janis' Feelings of Inadequacy Scale).

The first procedure for testing Hypothesis I was the simple analysis listed in Table 2. To summarize, the Film Group showed significant pre-post change on the I-E scale ($t(26) = 2.44, p < .05$,

Table 2

Mean Pre and Post Scores for Film, Literature, and Control Groups

Variable			Film (<u>n</u> =27)	Lit. (<u>n</u> =26)	Cntrl-1 (<u>n</u> =31)	Cntrl-2 (<u>n</u> =32)
I-E	Pre	<u>M</u>	11.96	11.69	11.77	11.75
		<u>SD</u>	5.65	3.98	3.75	3.94
	Post	<u>M</u>	10.63	11.12	11.26	11.34
		<u>SD</u>	4.72	4.19	4.57	4.38
	<u>t</u> ^a		-2.44*	-0.90	-1.00	-0.64
SSEI	Pre	<u>M</u>	31.78	31.08	28.45	30.88
		<u>SD</u>	7.62	6.13	6.95	7.17
	Post	<u>M</u>	33.74	31.96	28.09	30.34
		<u>SD</u>	7.12	7.6	5.62	8.60
	<u>t</u> ^a		2.54*	1.12	-0.49	-0.60
Janis	Pre	<u>M</u>	71.41	66.46	62.41	67.90
		<u>SD</u>	11.40	12.76	11.56	12.87
	Post	<u>M</u>	74.26	68.31	65.10	70.22
		<u>SD</u>	10.72	15.85	11.89	12.98
	<u>t</u> ^a		2.00	1.17	1.57	1.42

Note. On I-E scale, lower scores are more favorable.

^aRepeated measures t-tests (two-tailed).

*p<.05

Table 3

Mean Pre and Post I-E Scores for Sample Groups

Group		Pre	Post	t ^a
Film Group (n=27)	<u>M</u>	11.96	10.63	-2.44*
	<u>SD</u>	5.65	4.72	
Literature (n=26)	<u>M</u>	11.69	11.12	-0.90
	<u>SD</u>	3.98	4.19	
Control 1 (n=31)	<u>M</u>	11.77	11.26	-1.00
	<u>SD</u>	3.75	4.57	
Control 2 (n=32)	<u>M</u>	11.75	11.34	-0.64
	<u>SD</u>	3.94	4.38	

Note. Lower scores on I-E scale are more favorable.

^aRepeated measures t-test (two-tailed).

*p<.05

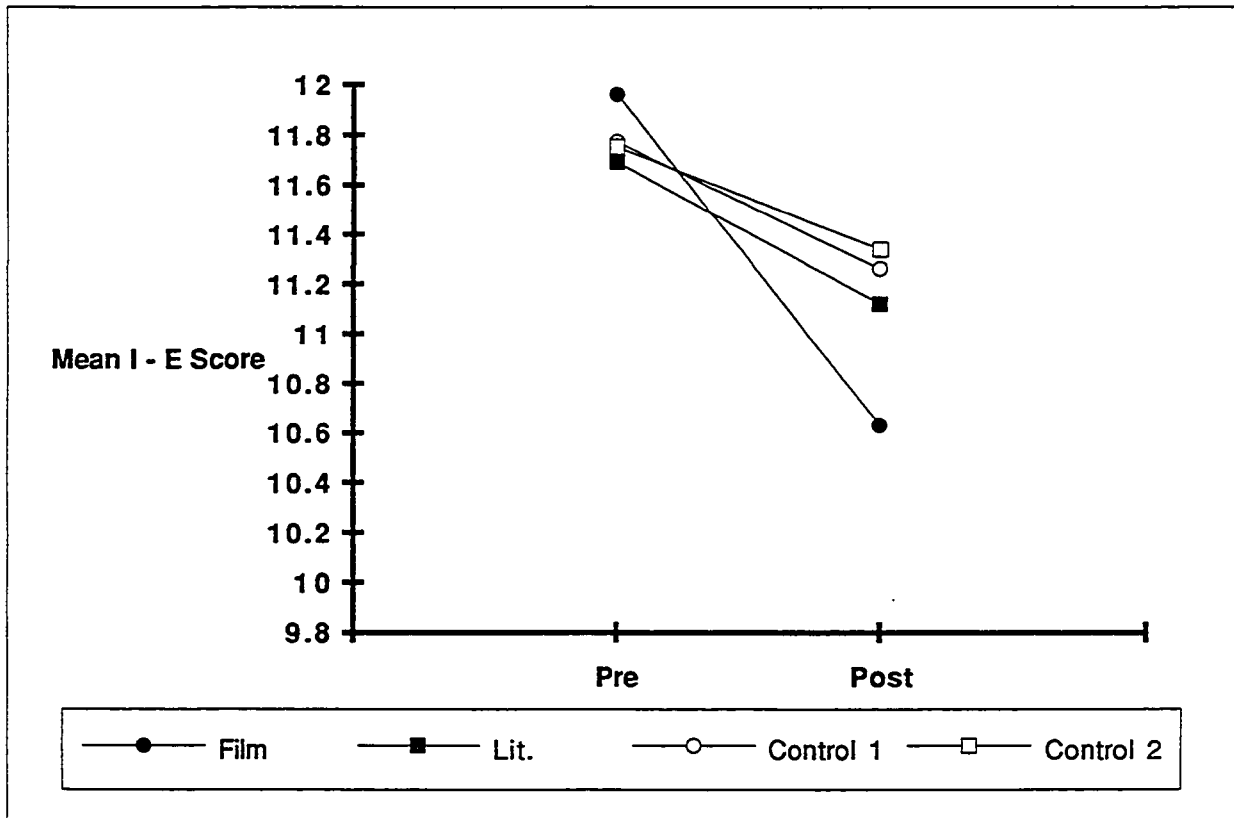


Figure 1: Mean Plot of Pre and Post Scores on Rotter's Internal/External Locus of Control Scale

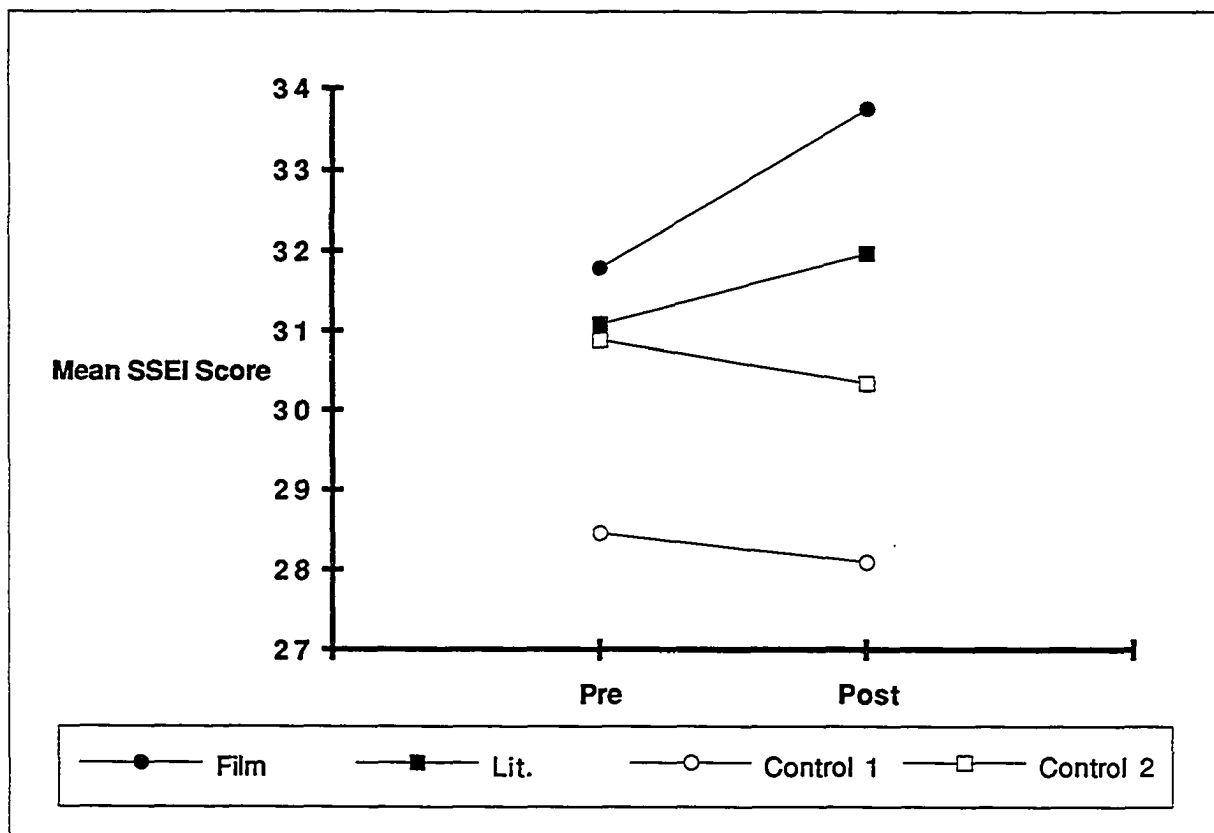
Table 4

Mean Pre and Post SSEI Total Scores for Sample Groups

Group		Pre	Post	t ^a
Film Group (n=27)	<u>M</u>	31.78	33.74	2.54*
	<u>SD</u>	7.62	7.12	
Literature (n=26)	<u>M</u>	31.08	31.96	1.12
	<u>SD</u>	6.13	7.86	
Control 1 (n=31)	<u>M</u>	28.45	28.09	-0.49
	<u>SD</u>	6.95	5.62	
Control 2 (n=32)	<u>M</u>	30.88	30.34	-0.60
	<u>SD</u>	7.17	8.60	

^aRepeated measures t-test (two-tailed).

*p<.05



**Figure 2: Mean Plot of Pre and Post Scores
on Reasoner's Student Self-Esteem
Inventory**

Table 5

Mean Pre and Post Janis Scale Scores for Sample Groups

Group		Pre	Post	t ^a
Film Group (n=27)	<u>M</u>	71.41	74.26	2.00
	<u>SD</u>	11.40	10.72	
Literature (n=26)	<u>M</u>	66.46	68.31	1.17
	<u>SD</u>	12.76	15.85	
Control 1 (n=31)	<u>M</u>	62.41	65.10	1.57
	<u>SD</u>	11.56	11.89	
Control 2 (n=32)	<u>M</u>	67.90	70.22	1.42
	<u>SD</u>	12.87	12.98	

^aRepeated measures t-test (two-tailed).

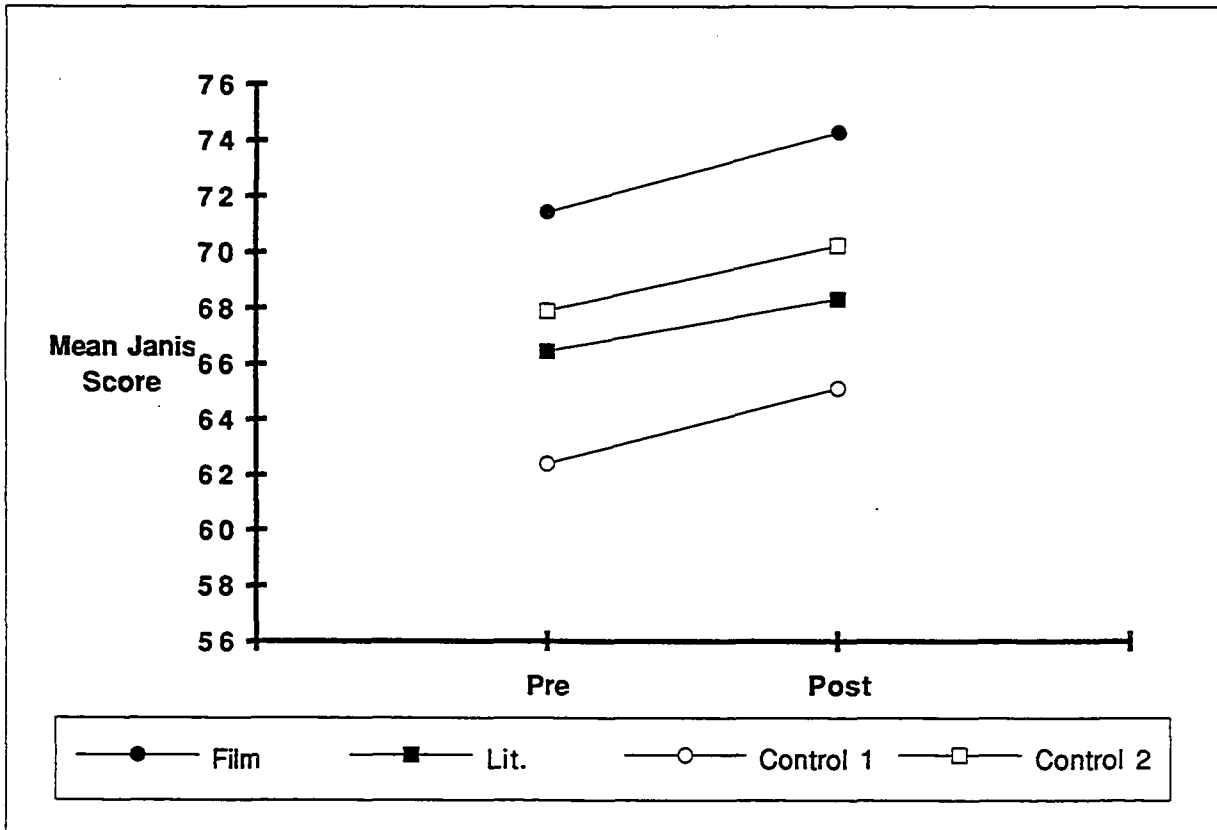


Figure 3: Mean Plot of Pre and Post Scores on the Janis Field Feeling of Inadequacy Scale (Eagley Version)

Table 6

Mean Pre and Post SSEI Subscale Scores for Sample Groups

Variable/Group		Pre <u>M(SD)</u>	Post <u>M(SD)</u>	<u>t</u> ^a
SECURITY				
Film Group (<u>n</u> =27)	<u>M</u>	6.37 (2.76)	7.56 (2.19)	3.47**
Literature (<u>n</u> =26)	<u>M</u>	5.81 (3.21)	5.85 (3.51)	0.15
Control 1 (<u>n</u> =31)	<u>M</u>	5.58 (2.63)	6.27 (2.45)	1.85
Control 2 (<u>n</u> =32)	<u>M</u>	6.67 (2.83)	6.50 (3.14)	-1.00
IDENTITY				
Film Group (<u>n</u> =27)	<u>M</u>	5.41 (2.24)	5.37 (2.68)	-0.15
Literature (<u>n</u> =26)	<u>M</u>	5.73 (2.16)	5.77 (2.46)	0.10
Control 1 (<u>n</u> =31)	<u>M</u>	5.16 (1.97)	4.52 (2.18)	-1.77
Control 2 (<u>n</u> =32)	<u>M</u>	5.69 (2.06)	5.09 (2.72)	-2.12*
BELONGING				
Film Group (<u>n</u> =27)	<u>M</u>	7.44 (2.65)	7.89 (2.53)	1.30
Literature (<u>n</u> =26)	<u>M</u>	6.54 (1.90)	6.77 (2.20)	0.54
Control 1 (<u>n</u> =31)	<u>M</u>	5.19 (3.05)	4.63 (2.89)	-1.69
Control 2 (<u>n</u> =32)	<u>M</u>	6.75 (2.55)	6.63 (3.13)	-0.26

(table continues)

Variable/Group		Pre M(SD)	Post M(SD)	t ^a
PURPOSE				
Film Group (n=27)	<u>M</u>	5.26 (2.82)	5.44 (2.67)	0.56
Literature (n=26)	<u>M</u>	6.15 (2.31)	6.08 (2.68)	-0.21
Control 1 (n=31)	<u>M</u>	5.36 (2.36)	5.04 (2.63)	-1.13
Control 2 (n=32)	<u>M</u>	4.72 (2.28)	4.88 (2.66)	0.46
COMPETENCE				
Film Group (n=27)	<u>M</u>	7.30 (1.71)	7.48 (1.70)	0.48
Literature (n=26)	<u>M</u>	6.85 (1.32)	7.50 (1.61)	2.23*
Control 1 (n=31)	<u>M</u>	7.07 (2.10)	7.63 (1.72)	1.75
Control 2 (n=32)	<u>M</u>	6.94 (1.87)	7.25 (1.90)	0.88

^aRepeated measures t-test (two-tailed).

*p<.05; **p<.01

two-tailed), on the SSEI Composite score ($t(26) = 2.54, p < .05$, two-tailed). On the Janis scale ($t(26) = 2.00, p = .0562$, two-tailed). It is noteworthy that the changes on all three instruments are in the predicted direction, and that the t-values for the Film Group are larger than for any of the other three groups for all three variables. Hypothesis I was confirmed ($p < .05$) on the bases of the SSEI and I/E. These two instruments are more direct indicators of self-esteem levels. The hypothesis was not confirmed at the $p < .05$ level for the Janis Scale. However, the Janis Scale, while measuring qualities related to self-esteem, does not produce a direct measure of the self-esteem construct.

The second procedure for testing Hypothesis I was an overall multivariate comparison of the Film Group with the other three groups, using Hotelling's T-square procedure. The Film Group showed a significant change with time (pre-post) on all three dependent variables (taken as a whole). The Hotelling's T-square procedure gives $F(2, 52) = 5.83, p = .0066$. This is a highly significant change for the Film Group on the three dependent variables. Hotelling's scores for all four groups are presented here for comparison, though only the Film Group scores are directly related to the hypothesis:

Film Group	$F(2,52) = 5.830; p = .0066$
Literature Group	$F(2,50) = 1.246; p = .2937$
Control Group 1	$F(2,60) = 2.985; p = .0767$
Control Group 2	$F(2,62) = 2.116; p = .1439$

Hypothesis II stated that students exposed to positive role models via film would show significantly greater increases in self-esteem (as measured by Reasoner's SSEI) and internal locus of control (as measured by Rotter's I-E scale), and a significantly greater decrease in feelings of inadequacy (as measured by the Janis scale) as compared to students exposed to the alternative treatment involving directed readings about positive role models.

For Hypothesis II, the independent t-test comparison of the Film Group with the Literature Group showed no significant difference on I-E ($t(51) = 0.90, p = .374$, 2-tailed) or SSEI composite score ($t(51) = 0.98, p = .333$, 2-tailed), or Janis ($t(51) = 0.47, p = .638$, two-tailed). The overall multivariate comparison of the Film Group vs. Literature Group on all three dependent variables (simultaneously), using Hotelling's T-square procedure, yielded $F(3,49) = 0.50$ ($p = .682$). Hypothesis II is clearly not confirmed.

Hypothesis III stated that students exposed to positive role models via film or through directed readings would show significantly greater increases in self-esteem (as measured by Reasoner's SSEI) and internal locus of control (as measured by Rotter's I-E scale) and a significantly greater decrease in feelings of

inadequacy (as measured by the Janis scale) as compared with students in the nontreatment control groups.

For Hypothesis III, comparing the Film Group with the controls, the two control groups were pooled. The two control groups did not differ significantly on any of the three hypothesized dependent variables (I-E, SSEI, Janis). The only variable on which the two control groups differed significantly was the Security subscale of the SSEI ($t(61) = 2.06, p < .05$). For this reason the control groups can be pooled to increase power in testing Hypothesis III.

The results show the Film Group changing significantly more than the controls only on the SSEI Composite score ($t(88) = 2.38, p = .019$, 2-tailed). The groups did not differ significantly in changes on the I-E scale ($t(88) = 1.22, p = .226$, two-tailed), or on the Janis score ($t(88) = 0.17; p = .863$, two-tailed). Although the overall Hotelling's T-square comparing the Film Group vs. controls on all three variables did not reach the .05 level of significance, its associated p value was .0645. It is noteworthy that the SSEI measure, which is the most relevant self-esteem assessment, did indeed change significantly for the Film Group.

The Literature Group did not differ significantly from the pooled controls on any of the three dependent variables: I-E ($t(87) = -0.15$); SSEI Composite ($t(87) = 1.30$); Janis: ($t(87) = 0.31$), all at the $p > .05$ level. The overall multivariate Hotelling's comparing the literature vs. controls on the three variables showed no significant

difference ($F(3,85) = 0.69, p = .562$). Hypothesis III is not confirmed.

Of secondary interest was the interrelatedness of the scoring patterns for the I-E, Janis, SSEI, and the subscales of the SSEI. In Table 7, the Pearson correlations among change scores are presented over all subjects. It should be noted that Tables 8, 9, 10, and 11 contain Pearson correlations among change scores for each of the four groups. There are no consistent patterns worthy of note. In Table 7 the Janis scores do correlate with several of the other scales ($r = .22$ and $r = .23, p < .05$), however Tables 10 and 11 show that this correlation is only true for the control groups.

EFFECT SIZE

Effect size is a measure of the degree to which an intervention or treatment has been successful. A particularly appealing interpretation of a given effect size is the "binary effect size display" (Rosenthal and Rubin, 1982). The BESD shows the effect of a treatment procedure on the success rate of the participants. It is a valuable method of displaying information in cases where the survival rate, cure rate, or improvement rate becomes a factor in the decision to use or discard the treatment because it compares the probable outcome of using or not using the treatment.. Effect size can be displayed in table form, and is used in medical and educational

research, where the measure of successful outcome as a percent is important in determining the future of the intervention.

An example may show the usefulness of this measure. The estimated effect size of the Film Group scores as measured on the Rotter scale was found to be an r of .43. This value indicates that the intervention produced a 43% increase in success rate. By distributing this increase on either side of the 50th percentile, the resulting increase in success rate would be from 29% to 72%. In other words, without the intervention 29% would succeed in raising their self-esteem, while introducing the intervention produced a success rate of 79%. Table 12 compares the changes in success rate for each of the groups in this study. The effect sizes for the film group, shown for each of the three testing instruments, were .43, .48, and .37. Since .35 is considered significant, the film intervention was shown to be effective. None of the other groups achieved significance.

Table 7

Pearson Correlations Among Change Scores

Variable	SEC	ID	BEL	PUR	CMP	TOT	Janis
I-E	.05	-.07	-.10	-.01	.06	-.04	-.04
SEC		-.02	.15	.01	.05	.48***	.22*
ID			.08	.14	-.06	.47***	.18
BEL				.02	-.09	.56***	.01
PUR					.01	.48***	.23*
CMP						.37***	-.04
SSEI-TOT							.23*

* $p < .05$; *** $p < .001$

Table 8

Pearson Correlations Among Change Scores for FILM Group

Variable	SEC	ID	BEL	PUR	CMP	TOT	Janis
I-E	.15	.12	-.10	-.28	-.14	-.13	.17
SEC		.34	.12	-.11	-.15	.48*	.34
ID			.31	-.10	.05	.59**	.34
BEL				.15	-.28	.52**	-.03
PUR					.06	.44*	.07
CMP						.36	.08
SSEI-TOT							.32

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 9

Pearson Correlations Among Change Scores
for LITERATURE Group

Variable	SEC	ID	BEL	PUR	CMP	TOT	Janis
I-E	-.34	-.15	-.16	.11	-.03	-.24	-.11
SEC		-.42*	.20	.02	-.19	.16	.17
ID			-.09	.30	-.06	.44*	.01
BEL				.20	-.18	.60***	.01
PUR					-.08	.72***	.14
CMP						.14	.06
SSEI-TOT							.15

* $p < .05$; *** $p < .001$

Table 10

Pearson Correlations Among Change Scores
for CONTROL-1 Group

Variable	SEC	ID	BEL	PUR	CMP	TOT	Janis
I-E	.27	-.22	-.26	-.26	.15	-.14	-.12
SEC		-.07	-.12	.09	.33	.53**	.53**
ID			.29	.02	-.31	.47**	.15
BEL				-.16	-.05	.47**	.09
PUR					.01	.36*	.27
CMP						.41**	.08
SSEI-TOT							.49**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 11

Pearson Correlations Among Change Scores
for CONTROL-2 Group

Variable	SEC	ID	BEL	PUR	CMP	TOT	Janis
I-E	.17	.07	.05	.24	.16	.25	-.05
SEC		.03	.35*	.05	.14	.59***	-.20
ID			-.12	.25	.13	.41*	.34
BEL				-.11	.04	.58***	-.03
PUR					.05	.44*	.36*
CMP						.52**	-.28
SSEI-TOT							.05

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 12

Changes in Success Rates (BESD) Corresponding
to Various Values of r

Variable	Group	Effect Sizes r values	Equivalent to a	
			Success rate increase from	to
I-E	Film	.43	.29	.72
	Literature	.18	.41	.59
	Control 1	.18	.41	.59
	Control 2	.11	.45	.56
SSEI	Film	.48	.26	.74
	Literature	.22	.39	.61
	Control 1	-.09	.54	.45
	Control 2	-.32	.66	.34
Janis	Film	.37	.31	.68
	Literature	.23	.38	.61
	Control 1	.28	.36	.64
	Control 2	.25	.37	.62

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

This chapter begins with an overview of the study, including a brief summary of the research project, the collection of data, the findings and the relevance of each of these to the overall field. Next, a discussion of the results will be presented in relation to the major research questions and hypotheses. Finally, the implications of the study in terms of theory, research, and practice will be presented.

Overview of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of two interventions within the framework of a transpersonally-oriented nine-week psychology curriculum presented to 116 adolescents in a suburban high school setting. The participants chose the elective psychology course and were assigned by computer to four sections. The first, which had been designated as Film Group, were exposed to positive role models in five movies. The second, called the Literature Group, received five stories containing positive role models. Both of these groups were taught from a transpersonal perspective, emphasizing experiential activities, and involving use of movement, interaction, and guided imagery to engage the whole person. The third and fourth groups were used for control, and received the traditional psychology curriculum, covering such topics as communication skills, psychological theory, and psychopathology.

This study grew out of a concern over a thirty year span about the failure of educational theory to keep pace with burgeoning technological advances, and accommodate the evolution of human consciousness. Despite such pedagogical improvements as cooperative learning and the incorporation of computerized instruction, schools have seemed unable to move from places where information is imparted into a more facilitative role in the unfolding of the human person (Friere, 1973; Ferguson, 1980). The development of a transpersonally-oriented curriculum for this study represents an attempt to move into an educational realm wherein the importance of creativity and intuition is recognized.

Mass media play a significant formative role in the lives of adolescents. Young people learn from the media, they echo themes which are commonly found in media messages, and they behave in ways that reflect the content of their media viewing. Although some research has been done on the relationship between film-assisted curricula and the retention of information (Champion, 1978), and movies have been used in some institutions of higher learning to demonstrate pathological states (Hyer, 1992; Lewis, 1992), no study was found in which movies were used to facilitate the development of healthy, more balanced internal states. This research represents a preliminary study regarding the effects of film on self-esteem in the holistic sense, having physical, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual components. These components were viewed from the perspectives

of uniqueness, connectiveness, power, and models (Clemes, et al, 1982).

Essentially, the study used a quasi-experimental, pretest/posttest, nonequivalent, control group design. The subjects were pretested and posttested using the Student Self-Esteem Inventory (Reasoner, et al, 1990), Rotter's Internal/External Locus of Control Inventory (Rotter, 1966), and the Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (Eagly revision, 1967). Individual t-tests, Hotelling's T-square tests, and Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient analyses were conducted to interpret the data. Originally, there were 125 students enrolled in the four psychology classes, but 9 withdrew from the class during the nine-week study, and so their data were excluded, leaving 116 subjects.

The major dependent variable of the study was self-esteem as measured by Reasoner's Student Self-Esteem Inventory, Rotter's I/E Scale, and the Janis Field Scale. All tests were blind scored to insure purity of the results. The independent variable consisted of the two interventions, film and literature, used as vehicles for the presentation of positive role models in relation to self-esteem.

The major findings of this study showed a statistically significant difference among the four groups on the Reasoner and Rotter scales, and a positive trend on the Janis scale. The t-test scores showed a significant difference between the pretest means and the posttest

means for the Film Group. Thus, the Film Group showed greater growth in self-esteem than any of the other three groups.

Overview of the Results

The findings of this study will first be discussed in relation to the three hypotheses. Afterward, these findings will be related to past research and current theories about self-esteem, as well as film theory.

Discussion Related to Hypothesis I:

As stated in Chapter Four, the Film Group showed significant pre-post change on the Rotter I/E Scale, and on Reasoner's SSEI. A trend toward significance was observed on the Janis Scale. The changes on all three instruments are in the predicted direction, and the t-values for the Film Group are larger than for any of the other three groups for all three variables. Therefore, Hypothesis I was partially confirmed at the .05 level. The overall multivariate comparison of the Film Group with the other three groups on all three variables simultaneously using Hotelling's T-square procedure yielded strongly significant results. In addition the effect size of the film intervention exhibited a strongly significant rise in success rate, with $r = .43$ on the I-E, $r = .48$ on the SSEI and $r = .37$ on the Janis.

Values above .35 are considered significant (Rosenthal and Rubin, 1982).

The literature suggests that, although self-esteem is normally considered a stable trait, there are fluctuations which can be measured (Heatherton and Polivy, 1991; Baumgartner, et al, 1989; Kaufman, et al, 1981). This is borne out by the results of the present study. The fact that the Film Group exhibited the greatest change in self-esteem seems to suggest that the impact of film viewing, noted in earlier studies (McClelland, 1988; Champion, 1978; Levinson, et al, 1979; Horowitz, 1969), may be used positively in enhancing self-esteem.

Discussion Related to Hypothesis II:

Hypothesis II stated that the students in the Film Group would show significantly greater increases in self-esteem, as measured on the three instruments, than the students in the Literature Group. Although the gains of the Film Group were about twice as great as those of the Literature Group on all three scales, the differences were not statistically significant. Therefore, Hypothesis II was not confirmed. It should be noted, however, that the effect size of the film intervention (r 's of .48, .43, and .37) was much stronger than that of the literature intervention (r 's of .22, .18, and .23) on the SSEI, I-E and Janis respectively. This is particularly interesting in view of the small number of participants.

Discussion Related to Hypothesis III:

Hypothesis III stated that the students in the Film Group would show significantly greater increase in self-esteem than the students in the nontreatment control groups. For the purposes of testing this hypothesis the two control groups were pooled.

The results show the Film Group changing significantly more than the controls only on the SSEI. The groups did not differ significantly in changes on the I-E Scale, or on the Janis score. These findings may result from the fact that the SSEI is a direct measure of self-esteem, while the other instruments infer information about components of self-esteem. The overall Hotelling's T-square comparing the Film Group with controls on all three variables simultaneously yielded a $p = .0645$. This "composite" test was not statistically significant, as measured by the $p < .05$ criterion. A previous discussion (see page 104) ,in terms of effect sizes, indicates the importance of changes in the individual components of this composite score.

In contrast with the statistically significant gains of the Film Group on the SSEI, the control groups exhibited change in the negative direction. One possible reason for this apparent reduction in self-esteem might be the study of psychopathology. It is well known that medical students tend to create symptoms of the disease

currently being studied, and it may be that adolescents may identify with psychological symptoms and suffer at least a temporary loss of self-esteem. Further investigation of this phenomenon might be of interest to educators, since it seems to lend credence to the belief that what is taught, and how it is taught, has a bearing on self-esteem, for better or worse.

Limitations of the Study

Shortly after the study began, an incident occurred on the high school campus which involved a gun and other weapons. The racial overtones of this incident caused ripples of unrest and tension which were disturbing to both students and staff. This contamination of the environment undoubtedly had repercussions, but the results in terms of this study are difficult to measure. All of the groups, as well as the teacher, were exposed to the contaminant, and so it is possible that all students would have shown more growth in self-esteem, had the environment been more serene. This might have meant an even more significant shift in the self-esteem of the Film Group, and therefore stronger evidence of the success of the film intervention. In another sense, the disturbance may have created an environment which is more typical of urban high schools, and the fact that the intervention still produced some positive results may be indicative of its usefulness in other than suburban populations.

The study was also unexpectedly limited by the illness of the teacher for a total of ten days during the nine-week period of research. This amounted to about 25% of the instructional time, and since she was replaced by four different substitutes, the loss was significant. Given the importance of the teacher, as stressed in Chapter Three, it is likely that her absence weakened the potential for greater gains. This may have been particularly true for the experimental groups, since they were new to the teacher, while the controls had been acquainted with her for an additional semester. The experimental groups may have exhibited even more positive change had the teacher been available for the whole period of the study. It is also worthy of note that the extended absence of the teacher may have weakened the impact of the transpersonally-oriented curriculum for both groups, since substitutes varied in their ability and their willingness to teach the experimental curriculum.

This study was conducted in a relatively short time period of nine weeks, and took place during the latter part of the school year. In order to assure that the changes registered in the self-esteem of the participants were more than short-term fluctuations, a follow-up study, perhaps after six months, would have been valuable. Since most of the students graduated shortly after the study ended, it would have been difficult to do such a follow-up. If possible, any research replicating this study could be done earlier in the school year to

allow collection of additional verifying data. It should be noted, however, that time constraints might prevent this, since each course contains required material, and school personnel are often reluctant to take time out for activities required for validating, or even conducting, research. Overcoming these constraints could be accomplished by making the experiments course part of the official curriculum.

Ethnic and gender data collected in the study were not explored. It would have been interesting to measure differences in self-esteem variations in boys and girls. Of additional interest also would have been change scores for Hispanic females, since this group was well represented in the data, and their culture does not generally support self-esteem in young women (Duda, 1985).

Further examination of the data in terms of age level might have produced indications of any differences in the malleability of self-esteem of younger students as compared with older ones. It is possible that self-esteem might be more changeable when behaviors and attitudes are less ingrained. Analysis of change scores of those students who had low initial self-esteem scores might also have provided information concerning the malleability of self-esteem for that specific population.

The three testing instruments used in this study have limitations which will be noted here. Reasoner's SSEI, despite strong construct validity and internal consistency, and appropriate and non-intrusive

item contents, has some weaknesses in the Purpose and Competence subscores. There was some breakdown of the item configuration of these subscales among the high school students in the norming group. Since only the composite score was used to test the hypotheses, this limitation was minimized.

Further study of the Identity subscale might have been valuable as a predictor of disruptive, passive, negative or positive behavior in high school students. There have been indications in past studies using this instrument that the Identity subscale was generally a better predictor of behavior than the composite score, and that this subscale is the strongest of the five (Crittendon, 1989). The statistical comparison of subgroups could have been done with a larger sample. Major emphasis in this study was placed on the composite score, although there was secondary interest in any significant correlation between the Competence subscale, which purports to measure locus of control, and the Rotter I-E scale. None was found, which may support evidence concerning the weakness of the Competence subscale.

Rotter's I-E scale has its own problems with credibility. Originally defined as a unidimensional measure of locus of control (Rotter, 1966), subsequent studies (Anderson, et al, 1987; Goodman, et al, 1987; Marsh et al, 1987; McInish & Lee, 1987; Omizo, et al, 1986; Omizo, et al, 1987; Watson, 1981) found anywhere from two to ten factors accounting for variability, and concluded that the I-E is

multidimensional. These findings certainly diminish the power of the composite score of the instrument, which was used in this study. However, Lefcourt (1986) noted that "our misgivings must be tempered by the success that has been achieved with this brief scale. For all the criticisms of its brevity and psychometric properties, it has proven to be a stimulating and useful research tool" (p. 3).

The Eagly (1967) version of the Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (Janis, 1959) has also received criticism despite its wide use in self-esteem research for over thirty years. There is a scarcity of convincing evidence demonstrating its strength in validity and reliability. However, some studies (Fleming & Watts, 1980; Heatherton & Polivy, 1991) have produced correlations with other instruments which strengthen the argument for continued use of the Janis scale, or at least one of its modifications. It was hoped that this study would find evidence for a correlation between the Janis scale and the Security and Belonging subscales of the SSEI, but this did not occur.

No effort was made to analyze changes at different levels of self-esteem among the participants in the study. In order to generalize the results it would be useful to look at individual pre and posttest scores to determine what beginning level of self-esteem led to the greatest change. This would indicate whether or not the results of this research might be applicable to urban adolescents, who have generally been found to exhibit lower self-esteem than their

suburban counterparts. It might also be interesting to look at the pre-post scores for freshmen, apart from older students who might be less susceptible to changes in self-esteem.

Implications for Future Research

Future research is needed in several areas addressed by this research. First of all, as mentioned above, replication of the research is indicated, with greater numbers and more closely related groups, given the statistical significance obtained in this preliminary study. It is suggested that the curriculum be expanded to a full semester to allow the transpersonal nature of the course to be experienced more fully. Two or three additional films could possibly strengthen the evidence that movies constitute a valuable intervention.

More research is needed concerning the types of films which are most effective in enhancing self-esteem, and which might be valuable adjuncts in other educational milieux. Teachers of English, Social Studies, and Languages could also use films to enhance the learning of subject matter, while delivering positive message concerning self-esteem. The use, or actually the misuse, of movies in schools has received much criticism. If this medium is to be removed from the realm of mere entertainment and taken seriously as a pedagogical tool, educators will need to become more creative and innovative in its use. This will take time and, perhaps, training.

A study of the effects on self-esteem of participants based solely on the transpersonal curriculum was not possible, given the present design. The Film and Literature Groups were shown to be statistically different, and could not be pooled for comparison with the Control Groups. A future study might compare the effects of the transpersonal curriculum with a traditional high school psychology curriculum.

The study of self-esteem has been plagued by "much conceptual confusion and by a lack of convergence between theory and measurement operations" (O'Brien, 1985, p. 383). Before conducting more research of the empirical evaluations of self-esteem, the theoretical constructs are in need of further clarification. Despite the fact that many studies have regarded self-esteem as a unitary construct, it appears more likely that it is multifaceted, and that the relationships between these facets are poorly defined (Crouch, 1983). Perhaps there are crucial and malleable components of self-esteem which would be important to investigate. More clarity is needed in order to relate studies such as this to the larger body of research.

Some research has been done concerning the malleability of the self-concept (Markus & Wurf, 1987; Savin-Williams & Demo, 1983), but more research is needed to determine how self-esteem is altered, and how permanent these changes are. In this study the mean pre-test scores were below the median on all instruments, indicating

that the participants had relatively low self-esteem. Some research has indicated that moderately low self-esteem is more malleable than severely low self-esteem, and the present results are consistent with this theory. However, there is no clear consensus in the research about the effects of interventions on severely low self-esteem, which is an area of deep concern in our society, and deserves more attention.

In summary, while this study is preliminary, its findings represent a small but significant contribution to the field of self-esteem. The potential contribution in educational settings may be particularly significant, since the self-esteem of adolescents is a major concern of educators. While not conclusive, the results indicate work worthy of replication, and a simple inexpensive model which can be expanded with ease. It is hoped that attempts at replication will consider the underlying premise of this study: that self-esteem is a holistic construct, and that changes in self-esteem occur at the physical, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual levels of the individual.

REFERENCES

- Adler, A. (1928). *Understanding human nature*. London: Allen & Unwin.
- Adatto, K. (1982). *American fantasy: Social conflicts and social myths in films of the 1970's*. Unpublished Dissertation: State University of New York.
- Altrochi, J., Palmer, J., Hellman, R., & Davis, H. (1968). The Marlowe-Crown repressor-sensitizer, and internal-external scales and attribution of unconscious hostile intent. *Psychological Reports*, 23, 1229-1230.
- Anderson, H. N., Madonna, S., Bailey, G., & Wesley, A. (1987). Further considerations of the multidimensionality and factor structure of the Rotter Locus of Control scale. *Psychological Reports*, 60, 1059-1062.
- Anderson, C.A. (1983). Motivational and performance deficits in interpersonal settings: The effects of attributional styles. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 45, 1136-1147.
- Argyle, M. (1970). The communication of superior and inferior attitudes by verbal and non-verbal signals. *British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 9(3), 222-231.
- Bacon, G. (1982). *Essential education:: Drawing forth the golden child*. Palo Alto, California: Rainbow Bridge.
- Bandler, (1982). Neutral control of aggressive behavior. *Trends in Neurosciences*, 5(11), 390-394.
- Bandura, A. (1973). Process governing disinhibitory effects through symbolic modeling. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 82(1), 1-9.

- Battle, J. (1982). *Enhancing self-esteem & achievement*. Seattle: Special Child Publications.
- Baumeister, R. F. (1986). *Identity*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Tice, D. M. (1985). Self-esteem and responses to success and failure: Subsequent performance and intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality* 53:3 450-467.
- Bax, E.B. (1955). *The roots of reality*. London: Richards
- Bean, R. (1984). *Self-concept, self-esteem and the curriculum*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.
- Bean, R. (1991). Sorting out the self-esteem controversy. *Educational Leadership*. 49 (1), 28-30.
- Bean, R. (1992). *The four conditions of self-esteem*. Santa Cruz, California: ETR Assoc.
- Bean, R. , & Lipka, R. (1984). *Self-concept, self-esteem and the curriculum*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.
- Bednar, R. L. , Wells, M. G., & Peterson, S. R. (1989). *Self-esteem: Paradoxes and innovations in clinical theory and practice*. Washington, D. C.: American Psychological Association.
- Berkowitz, L. (1974). Some determinants of impulsive aggression: Role of mediated associations with reinforcements for aggression. *Psychological Review*, 8(2), 165-176.
- Berger, C. R. (1968). Sex differences related to self-esteem factor structure. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*. 32, 442-446.
- Blos, P. (1962). *On adolescence*, New York: Free Press.

- Borchert, (1990). *The impact of sexual and violent films on women's personal and societal identities*. Unpublished Thesis: University of California, Riverside.
- Branden, N. (1969). *The psychology of self-esteem*. New York: Bantam Books, Inc.
- Branden, N. (1983). *Honoring the self*. New York: Bantam Books, Inc.
- Branden, N. (1988). *How to raise your self-esteem*. New York: Bantam Books, Inc.
- Branden, N. (1992). *The power of self-esteem*. Florida: Health Communications, Inc.
- Briggs, S.R. & Cheek, J.M. The role of factor analysis in the development and evaluation of personality scales. *Journal of Personality*, 54(1), 106-148.
- Brown, B. B. (1982). The extent and effects of peer pressure among high school students: A retrospective analysis. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, II, 121-133.
- Brown, B. B., Eicher, S. A., & Petrie, S. (1986). The importance of peer group ("crowd") affiliation in adolescence. *Journal of Adolescence*, 9, 73-96.
- Brown, B. B., & Lohr, M. J. (1987). Peer group affiliation and adolescent self-esteem: An integration of ego-identity and symbolic interaction theories. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52, 47-55.
- Burns, R. B. (1975). Attitudes to self and to three categories of others in a student group, *Educational Studies*. vol. 1. 181-189.
- Burns, R. B. (1979). *The self-concept theory; Measurement, development and behavior*. London: Longman.

- California State Task Force on Self-Esteem (1990). *Toward a state of esteem*. Final Report of the California Task Force on Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility. Sacramento: California Department of Education.
- Campbell, J. D. (1990). Self-esteem and clarity of the self-concept. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 59: 3, 538-549.
- Canfield, J. (1986). *Self-esteem in the classroom*. Culver City, California. Self-Esteem Seminars.
- Canfield, J., & Wells, H. (1976). *100 Ways to enhance self-concept in the classroom*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Champion, D. J. (1978). Learning from the stars: Do motion pictures in the classroom make a difference in student performance? *Journal of Popular Film and Television*.
- Clark, A., Clemes, H., & Bean, R. (1985). *How to raise teenagers' self-esteem*. Los Angeles: Price, Stern, Sloan, Inc.
- Clark, J. & Stoffel, V.C. (1992). Assessment of co-dependency behavior in two health student groups. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 46(9), 821-828,
- Clemes, H., & Bean, R. (1981). *Self-esteem: the key to your child's well-being*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
- Cooley, C. H. (1902). *Human nature and the social order*. New York: Charles Scribner's.
- Coopersmith, S. (1980). *Coopersmith Inventories*. Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologist Press.
- Covington, M. V., & Beery, R. G. (1976). *Self-worth and school learning*. New York: Holt, Rhinehart & Winston.

- Crittendon, K. (1989). *A study of student behaviors and the SSEI*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of San Francisco.
- Crouch, M.A. (1983). future needs for self-esteem research and services. *Family and Community Health*, August, 79-81.
- Damon, W. & Hart, D. (1982). The development of self understanding from infancy through adolescence. *Child Development*, 53(4), 841-864.
- Domino, G. (1982). "Get High on Yourself": The effectiveness of a T.V. campaign on self-esteem, drug use, and drug attitudes. *Journall of Drug Education*, 12(2), 163-171.
- Donnerstein E., & Berkowitz, L. (1981). Victim reactions in aggressive erotic films as a factor in violence against women. *Journal of Personlity and Social Psychology*. vol. 41 (4), 710-724.
- Dornbusch, S., Peterssen, A. C., & Hetherington, S. M. (1991). Projecting the future of research on adolescence. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 1(1) 7-17.
- Eagly, A. (1967). Involvement as a determinant of response to favorable and unfavorable information. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. Monograph vol. 7(3), 1-15.
- Eagly, A. H. (1969). Sex differences in the relationship between self-esteem and susceptibility to social influence. *Journal of Personality*. 7, 581-591.
- Elliott, R., & Feldman, S. (1990). Capturing the adolescent experience. In Feldman, S. and Elliott, (eds.) *At the threshold: The developing adolescent*. (p. 1-7). Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Erikson, E. H. (1968). *Identity, youth and crisis*. New York: Norton.

- Feather, N. T. (1967). Some personality correlates of external control. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 19, 253-60.
- Ferguson, M. (1980). *The aquarian conspiracy: Personal and social transformation in the 1980's*. Los Angeles: J. P. Tarcher, Inc.
- Fisher, C. L. (1992). *Self-acceptance as a criterion of self-esteem: Effects of a transpersonally oriented alternative high school curriculum*. Unpublished PhD dissertation, Institute of Transpersonal Psychology, Palo Alto, California.
- Fitts, W. (1965). *Tennessee Self-Concept Scale*. Nashville, Tennessee: Counselor Records and Tests.
- Fleming, J. S., & Watts, W. A. (1980). The dimensionality of self-esteem: Some results from a college sample. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 39: 5, 921-929.
- Fleming, J. & Courtney (1984). The dimensionality of self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 46, 404-421.
- Franklin, M.E. (1963). Effect of a change in mode of presentation on recall. *Psychological Reports*, 8, 431-438.
- Freud, A. (1958). Adolescence. *Psychological Study of the Child*, 13, 255-278.
- Freud, S. (1900). *The interpretation of dreams*. Standard Edition, vol. 5. London: Hogarth Press.
- Friere, P. (1973). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: The Seabury Press.
- Fromm, E. (1939). Selfishness and self-love. *Psychiatry*, 2, 507-523.
- Gabbard, G., & Gabbard, K. (1977). *Psychiatry and the cinema*. University of Chicago Press.

- Gabbard, G., & Gabbard K. (1990). Play it again, Sigmund: Psychoanalysis and the classic hollywood text. *Journal of Popular Film and Television*. 18 (1) 7-17.
- Gilberts, R., & Reasoner, R. (1992). *The Student Self-Esteem Inventory*. A research paper read at the CASP Annual Convention, San Francisco, California.
- Golin, S., Hartman, S., Klatt, E., Munz, K., & Wolfgang, G. (1977). Effects of self-esteem manipulation on arousal and reactions to sad models in depressed and non-depressed college students. *Journal of American Psychology*. vol. 86 (4) 435-439.
- Goodman, S.H., & Waters, L.K. Convergent validity of the five locus of control inventories. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 47 743-747.
- Greenbaum, C. (1966). Effect of situational and personality variables on improvisation and attitude change. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 31, 441-452.
- Greenberg, H. R. (1990). Celluloid and psyche. *Journal of Popular Film and Television*. 18 p. 3-5.
- Hall, G.S. (1904). *Adolescence: Its psychology and its relation to physiology, anthropology, sex, crime, religion, and education*. Volume 1-2 New York: Appleton-Century-Croft.
- Hamilton, D. (1971). A comparative study of five methods of assessing self-esteem, dominance, and dogmatism. *Educational and Psychological Measurements*. 31. 441-4452.
- Hamilton, M. (1992). *Swept to Sea*. Condensed from *A mighty tempest*. Texas: Word, Inc.
- Hamsher, J., Gelley, J., & Rotter, J., (1968). Interpersonal trust, internal/external locus of control, and the Warren Commission

- Report. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 9(3), 210-215.
- Harry, B. (1983). Movies and Behavior among hospitalized mentally disordered offenders. *Bulletin of the American Academy of Psychiatry and Law*. vol. 11 (4) 359-364.
- Harter, S. (1990). Self and identity development. In Feldman, S. and Elliott (eds.), *At the threshold: the developing adolescent*. (p. 364-387) Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Heatherton, T. F., & Polivy, J. (1991). Development and Validation of a Scale for Measuring State Self-Esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. vol. 60 (6) 895-910.
- Hendricks, G., & Fadiman, J. (1975). *Transpersonal Education; A curriculum of feeling and being*. Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Hendricks, K. (1990). *The party's over: Diary of a recovering cocaine addict*. Washington, D. C.: American University Press.
- Hjelle, L. A. (1971). Social desirability as a variable in the locus of control scale. *Psychological Reports*, 28, 807-816.
- Hollingworth, H.L. (1928). Effect and affect in learning. *Psychological Review*, 38, 153-159
- Horney, K. (1937). *The neurotic personality of our time*. New York: Norton.
- Horowitz, M., & Wilner, N. (1976). Stress films, emotion, and cognitive response. *Archives of General Psychiatry*. vol. 33, 1339-1344.
- Horowitz, I, (1969). Effects of volunteering, fear arousal, and number of communications on attitude change. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 11(1), 34-37.

- Hovland C. I., & Janis, I. L. (1959). *Personality and Persuasibility*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Hylar, S. E. (1988). DSM III at the cinema: Madness in the Movies. *Comprehensive Psychiatry* 29(2), 195-206.
- Hylar, S., Gabbard. G., & Schneider, S. (1991). Homicidal maniacs and narcissistic parasites: Stigmatization of mentally ill persons in the movies. *Hospital and Community Psychiatry* . 42(10), 1044-1048.
- Inhelder, B. & Piaget, (1958). *The growth of logical thinking from childhood to adolescence*. New York: Basic Books.
- James, W. H. (1967). *Internal versus external control of reinforcement as a basic variable in learning theory*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University.
- James, W. (1890). *Principles of psychology*. Magnolia, Mass.: Peter Smith.
- Janis, I. L. (1959). *Personality and Persuasability*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Janis, I. L., Mahl, L. H., Kagan, J., & Holt, R. (1969). *Personality: dynamics, development and assessment*. New York; Harcourt Brace & World, Inc.
- Johnson, R., and Lundy, B. W. (1982). Disruptive Behavior by hospitalized patients following movie viewing. *Hospital and Community Psychiatry* vol. 33, 1015-1017.
- Justice, B. (1988). Those who stay healthy. *New Realities*. September, p. 16-22.
- Kaufman, L., & Murphy, N.C. (1981). Validation through self and other ratings on dimensions of six non-stressful multi-scaled

- personality inventories. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 45(1), 86-89.
- Keating, D. P. (1990). Adolescent thinking. In Feldman, S. and Elliott, G. (eds.), *At the threshold: The developing adolescent*. (p. 54-89). Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Kleinke, C. L. (1978). *The psychology of personal awareness*. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman.
- Kohut, H. (1971). *The analysis of the self*. New York: International Universities Press.
- Lacan, J. (1949). The mirror state: Source of the I function. *International Journal of Psycho-Analysis*. vol. XXX, part 3, p. 203.
- Lacan, J. (1990). *The language of the self*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
- La Meres, C. (1990). *The winner's circle: Yes, I can*. Newport Beach, California : La Meres Unlimited.
- Larsen, K. & Schwendiman, (1970). Perceived aggression training as a predictor of authoritarianism. *Journal of Practical Research*, 1, 69-71
- Lawrence, D. (1988). *Enhancing self-esteem in the classroom*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.
- League, B. J., & Jackson, D. (1964). Conformity, veridicality, and self-esteem. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*. 60, 105-111.
- Lefcourt, H., & Silverman, I. (1968). Internal versus external locus of control and attention in a decision-making task. *Journal of Personality*, 36(4), 663-682.

- Lefcourt, H. M. (1976). *Locus of control: Current trends in theory and research*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Lefcourt, H. & Telegdi, M. (1971). Effects of congruence between locus of control and field dependence on interpersonal behavior. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 5(1), 65-71.
- Leonard, G. (1991). The new fitness. *Self*, September, 142-145.
- Lernwe, R. (1981). Adolescent development: Scientific study in the 1980's. *Youth and Society*, 12, 251-275.
- Leuner, H. (1969). Guided affective imagery: A method of intensive psychotherapy, *American Journal of Psychotherapy*. 23, 4-22.
- Lewin, B.D. (1939). Some observations on knowledge, belief, and the impulse to know. *Psycho-Analysis*, 20, 426-443.
- Leyens, J. (1975). Aggressive slides can induce a weapons effect. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 5(21), 229-236.
- Liverant, S. & Scodel, A. (1960). Internal and external control as determinants of decision-making under conditions of risk. *Psychological Reports*, 7, 59-67.
- Luks, A., & Barbato, J. (1989). How to get high. *New Realities*. May, 31-34.
- Lumpkin, J. (1988). Establishing the validity of an abbreviated locus of control scale: Is a brief Levinson;s scale any better? *Psychological Reports*, 63(2), 519-523.
- Mac Donald, A.P. (1972). *An Ashe-type conformity scale with control for acquiescence response set*. West Virginia University Press.

- Manchester, A. (1991). *A comparative study of eighth graders in catholic elementary and middle schools in reading achievement and attitudes toward school*. Unpublished PhD dissertation, University of San Francisco.
- Markus, H. & Kunder, Z. (1986). Stability and Malleability of the self concept. *Journal of Personality and social psychology*, 51(4), 858-866.
- Markus, H. & Wurf, E. (1987). The dynamic self concept. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 38, 299-337.
- Marsh, H. , Smith, I., & Barnes, J. (1983). MTMM analyses of the self- description questionnaire: Student-teacher agreement on multidimensional ratings of student self-concept. *American Educational Research Journal*. vol. 20 (3), 333-357.
- Marsh, H. & Richards, G.E. (1987). The multidimensionality of the Rotter I/E scale and its higher order structure: An application of confirmatory factor analysis. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 22, 36-69.
- Maslow, A. H. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. New York: Harper and Roe.
- Maslow, A. (1968). *Toward a psychology of being*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Co.
- Maslow, A. (1971). *The farther reaches of human nature*. New York: The Viking Press.
- Maslow, A. (1977). *Religion, values, and peak-experiences*. New York: Penguin Books.
- May, R. (1983). *The discovery of beings*. New York: Norton.

- Mc Clelland, D. C. (1988). The effect of motivational arousal through films on Salivary immunoglobulin A. *Psychology and Health*, 2 31-52.
- Mc Inish, T. H. & Lee, M. Y. (1987). Multidimensionality of Rotter's Locus of Control Scale. *Psychological Reports*, 61, 273-274.
- Mead, G.H. (1934). *Mind, self and society*. University of Chicago Press, 401-412.
- Metz, C. (1986). *Problems in denotation in the fiction film in narrative apparatus, ideology: A Film Theory Reader*, ed. Phillip Rosen. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Miller, E. (1989). *Accepting your body-image: Transforming your self-image, attitudes & behavior*. Audiocassette.
- Miller, E. (1989). *I am: Awakening self-acceptance*. Audiocassette.
- Miller, E. (1989). *I can: Achieving self-empowerment*. Audiocassette.
- Miller, E. (1989). *Inspired imagery: Finding inner direction for your life*. Audiocassette.
- Miller, E. (1989). *The power of true self-esteem: discovering the beauty of your essential nature*. Audiocassette.
- Mirels, H. L. (1970). Dimensions of internal versus external control. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*. 34, 226-228.
- Munsterberg, H. (1970). *The film (A psychological study)*. New York: Dover.
- Murray, E. (1972). Students' perception of self-actualizing and non self-actualizing teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education*. vol. 23, 383-387.

- Notarium, C. I., & Levenson, R. W. (1979). Expressive tendencies and physiological response to stress. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. vol. 37 (7) 12004-1210.
- O'Brien, J. (1985). Global self-esteem scales: Unidimensional or multidimensional? *Psychological Reports*. 57, 383-389.
- Omizo, M.M. Fuang-Luan, G.L., & Williams, R.E. (1986). Rational-emotive education, self-concept, and locus of control among learning-disabled students. *Journal of Humanistic Education and Development*, 25(2), 58-69.
- Omizo, M.M., Omizo, S.A., & Michael, W.B. (1987). Relationship of locus of control inventory for three achievement domains (LOCIDAD) to two other locus of control measures: a construct validity study. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 47, 737-742.
- Omwake, K. (1954). The relation between acceptance of self and acceptance of others. *Journal of Consulting Psychologists*. vol. 18, no. 6, 443-446.
- Osterrieth, P. A. (1970). Adolescence, some psychological aspects in *Adolescence: Psychosocial perspectives*. Caplan, G. & Lebovici, S. (eds.). New York: Basic Books, Inc.
- Owen, N. (1972). Response, depression, and facilitation of the frustration effects in children's behavior. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 13(3), 478-487.
- Parish, T. & Nunn, G.D. (1988). The importance of the family in forming life values and personal values. *Journal of Psychology*, 122(5), 519-521.
- Phares, E. J. (1957). Expectancy changes in skill and chance situations. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*. 54, 339-352.

- Piers, E., & Harris, D. (1969). *A Manual for the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale*. Nashville, Tennessee: Counselor Records and Tests.
- Pliner, P., Chaiken, S., & Flett, G. (1990). Gender differences in concern with body weight and physical appearance over life span. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*. vol. 16 (2), 263-273.
- Postman, R., & Weingartner, C. (1969). *Teaching as a subversive activity*. New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc.
- Reasoner, R. (1983). Enhancement of self-esteem in children and adolescents. *Family and Community Health*. 46, 407-441.
- Reasoner, R., & Dusa, G. (1991). *Building Self-esteem in the secondary schools*. Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.
- Reasoner, R., & Gilberts, R. (1992). *Student Self-esteem manual*. San Jose, California: Educational Data Systems.
- Rivera, G. (1976). *A special kind of courage*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Robinson, J., Shaver, P. & Wrightsman (1991). *Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes*. San diego: Academic Press
- Robinson, J. & Shaver, P. (1973). *Measures of social psychological attitudes*. Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research.
- Rogers. C. R. (1949). A coordinated research in psychotherapy. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 13, 149-153.
- Rogers, C. R. (1951). *Client centered therapy*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

- Rogers, C. R. (1969). *Freedom to learn*. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill.
- Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs*, 80 (whole no. 609).
- Satir, V. (1988). *The new peoplemaking*. Mountain View, California: Science and Behavior Books, Inc.
- Savin-Williams, R.C. & Demo, D.H. (1983). Situational and transitional determinants of adolescent self-feelings. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 44(4), 824-833.
- Schneider, I. (1977). Images of the mind: Psychiatry in the commercial film. *American Journal of Psychiatry*. 134:6 613-620.
- Schneider, I. (1987). The theory and practice of movie psychiatry. *American Journal of Psychiatry*. 144: 996-1002.
- Settlage, C. F., Gadpaille, W. J., Hawkins, M. O., Noshpitz, J. D., Rakoff, V., & Wermer, H. (1968). *Normal adolescence: Its dynamics and impact*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.
- Shavelson, R. J. (1975). Self-concept validation of construct interpretations. *Review of Educational Research*. 46, 407-441.
- Sheikh, A., & Sheikh, K. (1985). *Imagery in education*. New York: Baywood Publishing Company.
- Silverman, R. (1983). *The subject of semiotics*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Simmons, R. G., Rosenberg, F., & Rosenberg, M. (1973). Disturbance in the self-image at adolescence. *American Sociological Review* 38, 553-568.

- Simmons, R., Brown, L., & Blyth, D. (1979). Self-esteem and achievement of black and white adolescents. *Social Problems*. 25, 86-96.
- Snyder, M. (1987). *Public appearances, private realities: the psychology of self-monitoring*. New York: W. H. Freeman.
- Soares, A., & Soares, I. *The self-perception inventory*. Trumbull, Connecticut: Soares Associates.
- Staudohar, F. T., & Smith, R. G. (1956). The contributions of lecture supplements to the effectiveness of an attitudinal film. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*. vol. 40 (2) 109-111.
- Stefenhagen, R. A., & Burns, J. D. (1987). *The social dynamics of self-esteem*. New York: Praeger.
- Strickland, B.R., & Haley, W.E. (1980). Sex differences on the Rotter I-E Scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 39(5), 930-939.
- Structured Materials Kit, International Authors, B. V. San Diego, California: University Associates, Inc.
- Taylor, R. (1966). Differences in accuracy of public and private judgments. *British Journal of Sociology & Clinical Psychology*, 5(4), 241-243.
- Tice, D. M. (1991). Esteem protection or enhancement? Self-handicapping motives and attributions differ by trait self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 60: 5, 711-725.
- Timlin, M. G. (1981). *The effect of guided imagery on the locus of control and self-esteem of delinquent adolescents*. Unpublished dissertation, California Institute of Integral Studies, San Francisco, California.

- Vaughan, F. (1986). *The inward arc*. Boston: Shambala Publications, Inc.
- Walsh R. & Vaughan F. (eds.) (1993) *Paths beyond ego: the transpersonal vision*. Los Angeles: Jeremy P. Tarcher/ Perigee Books.
- Walsh, R. N., & Vaughan, F. C. (1980). Comparative models of the person and psychotherapy. In Boorstein, S. (ed.), *Transpersonal psychotherapy* (p. 14). Palo Alto Ca.: Behavior Books, Inc.
- Walsh, R. N., & Vaughan, F. C. (eds.). (1980). *Beyond ego: Transpersonal dimensions in psychology*. Los Angeles: J. P. Tarcher/Perigee Books.
- Waters, L., Popovich, P., Martelli, T. (1987). Congruent validity of the personal reaction scale. *Psychological Reports*, 6(1), 314.
- Watson, J.M. (1981). A note on the dimensionality of the Rotter locus of control scale. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 33(3), 319-330.
- Wilber, K. (1993). The spectrum of transpersonal development in *Paths beyond ego; The transpersonal vision*. Walsh, R. & Vaughan F. (eds). Los Angeles: Jeremy P. Tarcher/Perigee Books.
- Wilber, K. (1979). *No boundary: Eastern and western approaches to personal growth*. Boston: Shambala Publications, Inc.
- Wylie, R. (1989). *Measures of the self concept*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

APPENDIX A: TESTING INSTRUMENTS

REVISED JANIS-FIELD SCALE (Eagly, 1967)

1 Very often 2 Fairly often 3 Sometimes 4 Once in a great while 5 Practically never

I.

- _____ 1. How often do you have the feeling that there is nothing you can do well?
- _____ 2. When you have to talk in front of a class or a group of people your own age, how afraid or worried do you usually feel? (e.g., very afraid)
- _____ 3. How often do you worry about whether other people like to be with you?
- _____ 4. How often do you feel self-conscious?
- _____ 5. How often are you troubled with shyness?
- _____ 6. How often do you feel inferior to most of the people you know?
- _____ 7. Do you ever think that you are a worthless individual?
- _____ 8. How much do you worry about how well you get along with other people?
- _____ 9. How often do you feel that you dislike yourself?
- _____ 10. Do you ever feel so discouraged with yourself that you wonder whether anything is worthwhile?

II.

- _____ 1. How often do you feel that you have handled yourself well at a social gathering?
- _____ 2. How often do you have the feeling that you can do everything well?
- _____ 3. When you talk in front of a class or a group of people of your own age, how pleased are you with your performance? (e.g., very pleased)
- _____ 4. How comfortable are you when starting a conversation with people whom you don't know? (e.g., very comfortable)
- _____ 5. How often do you feel that you are a successful person?
- _____ 6. How confident are you that your success in your future job or career is assured? (e.g., very confident)
- _____ 7. When you speak in a class discussion, how sure of yourself do you feel?
- _____ 8. How sure of yourself do you feel when among strangers?
- _____ 9. How confident do you feel that some day the people you know will look up to you and respect you?
- _____ 10. In general, how confident do you feel about your abilities?

ROTTER'S INTERNAL/EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE

DIRECTIONS: Read the sentences lettered (a) and (b) for each number. Choose the sentence from each pair that you most strongly believe to be true. Choose ONE AND ONLY ONE sentence for each number and circle its letter. Do NOT leave any blank numbers. Make sure you choose the one you believe to be most true, not what you would like to be true or what you think you should choose, but what you really think is true. Your answers will in no way affect your treatment and are confidential.

EXAMPLE:

- a. It rains most often in winter.
 - b. Summer is the season of greatest rainfall.
-
- 1) a. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.
 - b. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.
-
- 2) a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
 - b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.
-
- 3) a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
 - b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
-
- 4) a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
 - b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.
-
- 5) a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
 - b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
-
- 6) a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
 - b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
-
- 7) a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.
 - b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
-
- 8) a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.
 - b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they're like.

- 9) a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.
- 10) a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
- 11) a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
- 12) a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
- 13) a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can take them work.
b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
- 14) a. There are certain people who are just no good.
b. There is some good in everybody.
- 15) a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
- 16) a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
- 17) a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control.
b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
- 18) a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
b. There really is no such thing as "luck".
- 19) a. One should always be willing to admit mistakes.
b. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.
- 20) a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.
- 21) a. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.

- 22) a. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.
b. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.
- 23) a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.
- 24) a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.
b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.
- 25) a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
- 26) a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you.
- 27) a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school.
b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.
- 28) a. What happens to me is my own doing.
b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.
- 29) a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.
b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

STUDENT SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

Directions: Read each sentence below and decide if the statement is usually TRUE or usually FALSE for you. If the statement is TRUE for you, darken the circle with the T. If the statement is FALSE for you, darken the circle with the F.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 1. I have many close friends at school.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 2. I expect to do better than average work in high school.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 3. Most students seem to have more friends than I do.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 4. I don't do as well in school as I could because I worry too much.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 5. In class, I forget things I know because I get too nervous.</p> <hr/> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 6. I feel that my being in school is sometimes a waste of time.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 7. I don't like to be called on in class because I'm afraid I won't have the right answer.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 8. I usually do well in arithmetic/mathematics.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 9. I always have friends I can call on for help with schoolwork.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 10. Some of my friends don't really seem to care about me.</p> <hr/> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 11. Sometimes I feel so nervous in class that I find it hard to concentrate.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 12. I plan to do well in college.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 13. I know what I want to gain from school to be successful.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 14. When I really try, I find that I get good grades even in hard subjects.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 15. I usually feel confident about how I'll do on tests.</p> <hr/> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 16. I normally try harder in class than most other students.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 17. I usually don't ask questions in class because I'm too embarrassed.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 18. My favorite part of school is recess or break time.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 19. Many students accept me as a close friend.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 20. When I'm called on in class, I get feelings of panic.</p> | <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 21. My teachers seem happy with my schoolwork.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 22. I often have trouble finishing my work on time.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 23. I really work hard to get good grades in school.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 24. Many students leave me out of their secrets and activities.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 25. I wish I had more friends.</p> <hr/> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 26. I try to be one of the best students in my class.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 27. I am usually confident that I can learn what the teachers expect me to learn.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 28. I sometimes feel lonely at school.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 29. I often worry about whether the teacher likes me or not.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 30. I'm proud of my schoolwork.</p> <hr/> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 31. I frequently give up when schoolwork gets too difficult.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 32. I usually feel good about the work I do in mathematics.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 33. I tend to worry a lot when I know a test is coming up.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 34. I don't often pay close attention in class.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 35. I'm pleased with my social studies grades.</p> <hr/> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 36. Most students include me in their activities.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 37. Whenever I do an assignment, I give it my best effort.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 38. I sometimes feel that I really don't fit in with the students in my class.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 39. I almost always turn my homework in on time.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> T <input type="radio"/> F 40. Whenever we have any tests, I worry about the grade I might get.</p> |
|--|---|

CONTINUE →

Directions: Complete each of the items below by selecting the response, either (A) or (B), that makes the item true for you. Darken the appropriate letter.

41. If I were to reach a goal I set, it would probably be because:
(A) Someone else told me what I needed to do.
(B) I knew how to make good decisions.
42. If I were to get a poor grade on a writing assignment, it would probably be because:
(A) I didn't work hard enough on the assignment.
(B) Writing is harder to grade accurately.
43. If I were to do poorly on a spelling test, it would probably be because:
(A) I didn't study for the test.
(B) The word list was too long.
44. If I were to get a good grade in math, it would probably be because:
(A) The problems were easy.
(B) I worked hard to get the grade.
45. If my art project were to be selected by the teacher, it would probably be because:
(A) I am good in art.
(B) It was different than everyone else's.
46. If I were to get a poor grade on a report, it would probably be because:
(A) I didn't understand what I was supposed to do.
(B) I didn't spend enough time on the report.
47. If my teacher were to call my parent at home, it would probably be because:
(A) Other kids got me in trouble.
(B) I did something to break the rules.
48. If I were to run for a class office and didn't get it, it would probably be because:
(A) The kids from my class just vote for their friends.
(B) I didn't know how to run a good campaign.
49. If I were to do poorly on a test, it would probably be because:
(A) I didn't study long enough for it.
(B) The test included hard questions.
50. If I weren't doing well in school, it would probably be because:
(A) The teacher didn't give me enough help.
(B) My best work was not good enough.

END OF INVENTORY

APPENDIX B: CONSENT FORM

March 30, 1993

Dear Parents,

During the coming quarter your son/daughter is invited to participate in a study of the origins of self-image. Psychology classes will be tested at the beginning and end of the quarter to measure changes in how students view themselves, in terms of their sense of identity, security, belonging, purpose, and competence.

The purpose of the study is to promote more effective means of teaching and learning about ourselves. Current research indicates that students who have a healthy self-concept achieve better in school, and tend to have better social adjustment.

Less than one hour will be required to complete three standardized tests at the beginning of the quarter, and another hour in June. The results will be strictly confidential, except in the case of those parents and students who request information. In those case~ a conference will be scheduled to review the tests.

Ms. Sally Clark, psychology teacher, will administer the tests, and the results will be used anonymously in a doctoral research project by Mrs. Trudy Opitz of the Institute of Transpersonal Psychology. Mrs. Opitz recently retired after teaching for twenty-two years in the Newark District, and has done extensive research on self-concept.

If you have any questions, or would like more information, please contact Ms. Sally Clark or Mrs. Trudy Opitz at Newark Memorial. (794-2145)

Sincerely,

Ms. Sally Clark

Mrs. Trudy Opitz

I am willing to allow my son/daughter to participate in the self-awareness study, and will let you know if I have any further questions. I understand that this participation is voluntary, and that there is no penalty for withdrawal.

Student _____

Parent _____

APPENDIX C: TEACHER'S GUIDE

This appendix contains a sample of the instruction format which the teacher used to present each film and story. Ten of these scripts were written to cover the five films and five stories. The selections which are presented here were used to highlight intellectual self-esteem, and contain specific instructions for presenting the film or story in three segments. Each day's presentation, lasting approximately 35 minutes, was followed by a twenty minute class discussion.

Discussion questions were presented to students in a handout. What follows here is a set of questions as seen by the students, together with some salient points to be covered by the teacher.

MOVIE: POSTCARDS FROM THE EDGE

Introduction

This movie is based on the life of Carrie Fisher, who played the princess role in the Star Wars movies. It is a story of dysfunctional family relationships and two generations of drug abuse. We will be focusing on the character of Suzanne, her struggle to establish her own identity apart from an overpowering mother figure and her struggle with addiction, which threatens to destroy her at every level—physically, emotional, intellectually and spiritually.

Schedule of the Film

- Day 1. 35 minutes - Scene ends after mother entertains at the party and camera shows Suzanne's mixed feelings.
- Day 2. 35 minutes - Begins with wardrobe people discussing Suzanne. Ends with Suzanne saying: "Thank God I got sober now, so I could be hyperconscious for these humiliations".

Day 3. 35 minutes - Stop and replay the scene where the director gets a Kleenex and walks over to talk to Suzanne. He talks about what she is doing as metaphor, tells her that at some point she needs to stop blaming her mother and say "It starts with me". This scene is the most important in the film and warrants a second look and some discussion.

Part I

1. What is Suzanne's reaction when the screen director faces her with her drug problem and threatens to "kill" her?

(She looks hurt and humiliated. It is interesting that he mentions that she would probably botch killing herself, which she later does. He obviously cares for her, despite his gruff manner. Discuss this dichotomy, and the fact that he is the only father she has.)

2. After she overdoses, Suzanne is dropped at the hospital by her companion. Give your impression of his behavior.

(He is obviously self-absorbed, despite her precarious physical condition. Recovering addicts often testify that drug buddies don't stay around when the party's over. Connect this with the idea that we attract people into our lives who have about the same level of self-esteem as we have. This is an excellent reason to keep growing.)

3. Comment on the following statements made by the drug counselor at the hospital:
 - a. "I want you to deal with your feelings before they deal with you"

(Refusing to deal with feelings can cause us to act out, either physically by getting sick, emotionally by dumping on others, or both physically and emotionally by becoming addicted to

substances. On the other hand, sharing feeling appropriately keeps us healthy.)

b. "Addiction is the solution, not the problem"

(People become addicts because they are looking for love and fulfillment in places where it is unavailable - in alcohol and other drugs, in food, in other compulsive behaviors. Addictions are shortcuts used to avoid the pain and hard work involved in learning to love ourselves and others.)

THE PARTY'S OVER DIARY OF A RECOVERING COCAINE ADDICT

INTRODUCTION

This story recounts the experience of a bright, talented graduate student who finds herself sliding into the oblivion of cocaine addiction. Her diary chronicles the subtle changes she experiences in her academic life, her social interactions, and most of all her relationship with herself (her self-esteem). One fateful day she realizes that she must change or she will die, and so she begins the long, slow journey to recovery.

DAY 1

1. What does it mean to "fall from grace"?

After students express their interpretations of this phrase, add the thought that fall from grace can mean the loss of access to our higher self, which is the most destructive feature of addiction. Together with the loss of physical, emotional and intellectual self-esteem, this spiritual loss is devastating. That is why the 12-

step programs have been so successful—they provide a spiritual base.

2. Does experimenting with pot lead to cocaine use?

It is clear that not all pot users turn to cocaine, but an overwhelming majority of cocaine users started their drug careers with pot, alcohol, or both. These are gateway drugs, which lower inhibition to cocaine use.

3. Katy remarks: "I thought I hated alcohol until the other kids told me how great I was under its influence. I wanted to be respected and admired." Assess her level of self-esteem.

Everyone wants to be respected and admired, but a person who has a healthy self-image is not willing to engage in self-destructive behavior in order to receive adulation. Ask students to remember how they felt when they did things which were against their own best interest in order to please others. Then ask them to recall a time when they were true to themselves and how that felt. Break into dyads and discuss.

4. During the years in high school and college when Katy did not use drugs, did she develop a healthy sense of self?

Not really. She was still obsessed (her word) with grades, body image and exercise. While these are certainly preferable to drugs, her behavior in these areas was compulsive and designed to impress others, rather than to develop herself.

DAY 2

1. Why did Katy start using cocaine? How did it affect her socially, physically, academically, spiritually?

She says "I don't know whether I wanted to do it or not, but the others did, so I went along. More people pleasing! She stopped

associating with her classmates, calling them nerds. She spent time with other users. Eventually she had heart pains and other signs of physical deterioration, but she ignored the warnings. Her relationship with her advisor slipped as she became more preoccupied with drugs. She lost her sense of purpose. In other words, every level of her self-esteem disintegrated.

2. When did Katy slip from a recreational cocaine user to an addict?

Opinions may vary, but the all-night party with Ricardo seemed to be a turning point. Both of them seemed to be totally absorbed with the drug. Addicts have relationships only with their drugs, not with other people. This is true of all drugs, including alcohol. (Students may not realize this.)

3. What was Katy's "Epiphanic Moment"—the turning point at which the addict realizes his/her powerlessness over the addiction?

This moment is often grounded in a mundane event, yet it may carry great symbolism—STRESS THIS! With Katy the symbols turn on a set of office keys and a conference in the prison. Too high to return the keys, she binges alone and then goes to the prison conference, where she is brought face to face with her hypocrisy.

4. Page 27 - Reread the paragraph beginning "Time passed...." It is an excellent description of the addicted state. Ask the students to compare this state to eating disorders when food becomes the drug of choice. Discuss "recreational" and binge eating and compare with healthy nutrition.

DAY 3

1. Page 38- Reread the paragraph beginning "and this is when things started getting out of hand....." Discuss how both positive and negative changes occur slowly at all levels of the self.

2. Page 39 - Reread the paragraph beginning "Thursday evening...."
An example of the egocentric inflation which occurs with addiction. Discuss how Katy might have viewed the same situation if they had a healthy sense of self.

Diary Excerpts for Further Discussion

May 6, 15, 16, 17, 24 (dream), 27.

June 7, July 6, Aug. 31 (dream).

March 27 (dream), Dec. 31, (end of diary).