

# Examination of Self-Esteem among Low-Income Adolescent Students in Austin, Texas

By

Jessica C. Marek

Applied Research Project  
Submitted to the Department of Political Science  
Texas State University-San Marcos



In Partial Fulfillment for the Requirements for the Degree of  
Masters of Public Administration

**Fall 2012**

## **Faculty Approval:**

---

Hassan Tajalli., Ph.D.

---

Maria de la Luz Valverde, Ph.D.

## ABSTRACT

*Purpose.* The purpose of this research is two-fold. First, this research explores the impact of four determinants of self-esteem among low-income middle school adolescents. Second, it assesses the extent to which self-esteem of low-income middle school adolescents affects their academic achievements. *Methods.* Survey research was conducted among low-income adolescents and their parents living in Austin, Texas, to obtain data on self-esteem, race, gender, family structure, and mode of parental communication. Academic performance of each student was obtained from Austin Independent School District and matched with each student's survey data. The data for academic performance consisted of math and reading TAKS scores. Multiple regression analyses were used to test the hypotheses of this research. *Results.* The results of the multiple regression show that race, family structure, and gender do not have a significant impact on self-esteem. However, positive and negative parental communication and academic performance reveal significant results. Additionally, self-esteem had a significant impact on academic performance.

### **About the Author**

Jessica Constance Marek grew up in San Marcos, Texas. She attended Texas State University, graduating cum laude with a Bachelor of Public Administration in May, 2006. After graduation, she entered the Masters of Public Administration program at Texas State University, and worked as a graduate assistant in the Political Science Department. She currently works for the Department of Aging and Disability Services in Austin, Texas. When not working or taking care of her son, Jessica can be found working out in the gym.

You may contact Jessica Marek at [jessica.marek72@gmail.com](mailto:jessica.marek72@gmail.com).

## Table of Contents

<b>Chapter One: Introduction .....</b>	<b>1</b>
Chapter Summaries .....	3
<b>Chapter Two: Literature Review .....</b>	<b>4</b>
Chapter Purpose .....	4
Introduction .....	4
Definition .....	5
Types .....	6
Determinants .....	8
<i>Race</i> .....	9
<i>Gender</i> .....	11
<i>Family Structure</i> .....	14
<i>Parental Relationships</i> .....	16
Academic Performance .....	18
Conceptual Framework .....	21
Chapter Summary .....	21
<b>Chapter Three: Methodology .....</b>	<b>23</b>
Chapter Purpose .....	23
Research Technique .....	23
Participants .....	23
Dependent Variables .....	26
<i>Self-Esteem</i> .....	26
<i>Academic Performance</i> .....	27
Independent Variables .....	27
<i>Race, Gender, and Family Structure</i> .....	27
<i>Parental Relationships</i> .....	27
Method of Data Collection .....	28
Strengths and Weaknesses .....	29
Statistical Analysis .....	30
Human Subject Protection .....	30
Chapter Summary .....	31
<b>Chapter Four: Results .....</b>	<b>32</b>
Chapter Purpose .....	32

Results.....	32
Chapter Summary .....	35
<b>Chapter Five: Conclusion and Discussion .....</b>	<b>36</b>
Chapter Purpose .....	36
<b>Bibliography .....</b>	<b>40</b>
<b>Appendix A: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale .....</b>	<b>52</b>
<b>Appendix B: Parent Adolescent Communication Inventory .....</b>	<b>53</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table 2.1: Conceptual Framework .....</b>	<b>22</b>
<b>Table 3.1: Operationalization of Variables .....</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>Table 3.2: Demographics of the Sample .....</b>	<b>26</b>
<b>Table 4.1: Average Self-Esteem by Race .....</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>Table 4.2: Determinants of Self Esteem.....</b>	<b>33</b>
<b>Table 4.3: Determinants of Academic Performance.....</b>	<b>35</b>
<b>Table 5.1: Summary of Findings .....</b>	<b>37</b>

## **Chapter One: Introduction**

Self-esteem affects every aspect of a person's life. It plays an important role in behavior, thoughts, and is even directly related to an individual's potential to achieve overall success in life. Fox News recently reported that self-esteem is important to achieving a healthy, happy life (Fox News Website). ABC News online has a page dedicated specifically to self-esteem (ABC News Website). It has been well documented that self-esteem is an important part of life for all ages.

However, the development of self-esteem starts at an early age. One of the greatest factors affecting self-esteem is the experiences encountered in childhood. From an early age, children are strongly influenced by those caring for them (Harter 1998). Parents influence the self-esteem of children at an early age. They teach their children to share and play well with others, encouraging a pleasing personality. Educators also influence the self-esteem of children. In school, children are encouraged by their teachers to develop academic skills, which contribute to self-esteem. Coaches, team leaders, and instructors of extracurricular activities help children establish and achieve goals in order to build their confidence. Teaching children self-control and recognition of personal achievements aids in building self-esteem. Making children feel valued and accepted teaches them to accept and appreciate themselves. The opinion a child has about his or her-self can determine many aspects of the child's future including self-confidence, self-competence, and self-respect, and can affect other institutional areas such as educational, political, and even economic arenas (Harter 1998, 1999).

### **Research Purpose**

The focus of this research is the development of self-esteem in adolescents and the correlation with race, gender, family structure, parental relationships, and academic performance. Examining the impact these determinants on self-esteem is important in understanding and developing interventions to help improve self-esteem of adolescents.

There is a significant amount of literature comparing self-esteem among various racial groups. Many of those comparisons are between blacks and whites, most likely motivated by political and historical factors. This research however, includes comparisons among blacks, whites, and Hispanics.

Gender differences are also examined in this research. It is important to understand the magnitude of gender differences so that boys and girls are offered the best possible opportunities to develop healthy self-esteem.

Family structure has been examined in a variety of contexts including single and dual parent households, divorced and reconstituted families, and even heterosexual versus homosexual households. Given the significant role parents have in the lives of children, understanding the impact on self-esteem when one or both parents are not living with the child could prove beneficial in helping parents develop effective parenting processes that aid in healthy development of adolescent self-esteem.

Also related to family structure is the relationship between self-esteem and parental relationships. Literature scrutinizing parental communication and its relationship to self-esteem covers both positive and negative communication. Parents have influence on their children, and discerning the distinctive relationships between parents and children and the respective self-esteem consequences provides valuable information.

The correlation between self-esteem and academic performance continues to capture the attention of teachers, clinicians, and researchers (Washington 1991) as evidence continues to show that developing a healthy self-esteem in childhood is an important factor in improving the academic performance of middle school children.

Researchers and clinicians claim that gender, race, family structure, and the level of communication with parents or guardians are just a few of the elements that influence self-esteem. The purpose of this research is two-fold. First, this research explores these four determinants of self-esteem among low-income middle school adolescents. Second, it assesses the extent to which self-esteem of low-income middle school adolescents affects their academic achievements.

### **Chapter Summaries**

This study is divided into five chapters. Chapter One provides an introduction to self-esteem and the determinants covered in this research and the research purpose. Chapter Two, Literature Review, provides a comprehensive overview and evaluation of the scholarly literature that identifies determinants surrounding the development of adolescent self-esteem and includes the development of a conceptual framework and six formal hypotheses of this study. Chapter Three, Methodology, consists of detailed information regarding the research methods used, including operationalization of the variables; description of sample population, data, and collection methods; and an explanation of the statistical procedure used to test the hypotheses. Chapter Four, Results, presents the results of this research project. Chapter Five, Conclusion, summarizes the research project and findings and discusses recommendations for additional research.



## **Chapter Two: Literature Review**

### **Chapter Purpose**

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature surrounding factors that contribute to the development of self-esteem in children. The chapter begins with a discussion of the importance of self-esteem followed by a general definition of self-esteem and its various types. After that, there is a discussion of the determinants of self-esteem. The chapter concludes with the development of a conceptual framework, consisting of six formal hypotheses.

### **Introduction**

Self-esteem is important in all aspects of children's lives, having an impact on decision-making skills, academic performance, and peer relationships (Cast and Burke 2002; Dalgas-Pelish 2006). Middle school children in particular experience a number of challenges because adolescence is possibly one of the most difficult stages of development to understand. Along with the wide range of physical changes to their bodies, adolescents are developing emotionally as well. For example, adolescents wonder if they are a part of a socially acceptable group. How much influence does peer pressure have on their decision-making? As children begin to explore and answer these questions, self-esteem enters a crucial developmental stage. Children are required to make decisions that could affect them for the rest of their lives, on issues ranging from risky behaviors such as alcohol use and drug abuse to sex, youth violence, and a multitude of other peer pressures. In a perfect world, children would be inherently happy and grow up to be healthy, functioning adults. However, in the imperfect world of today, children must be

able to make good choices when facing challenges every day (Porter and Washington 1979).

A positive self-esteem is linked to a child's capability to learn and respond well to the pressures children face on a day-to-day basis. Other links that are positively correlated to self-esteem include high levels of academic achievement, independence, and overall success in life (Vernon, Green, and Frothingham 1983; Plotnick 1992; Cast and Burke 2002; Mruk 2006; Baumeister et al. 2003; Bushman and Baumeister 1998). Conversely, a lack of self-esteem has been implicated in a number of adverse societal afflictions such as criminal activity, teen pregnancy, low academic achievement, and delinquency (Bachman, et al. 2011; DuBois et al. 2002). Given the potentially profound consequences either way, continued research into self-esteem in order to gain a better understanding of the construct may have a positive influence on society in terms of promoting health and creating preventative strategies for adolescents.

### **Definition**

The fluid and subjective nature of self-esteem allows for many definitions and interpretations. Distinguishing self-esteem from self-efficacy or self-concept can present a challenge since so many researchers use the terms interchangeably. The Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary defines self-esteem as "a confidence and satisfaction in oneself. Another definition provided by the California Task Force to Promote Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility refers to self-esteem as "appreciating my own worth and importance and having the character to be accountable for myself and to act responsibly towards others" (California Task Force to Promote Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility 1990, p.17).

Morris Rosenberg provides a detailed definition of self-esteem using eight dimensions pertaining to self-belief, which include content, direction, intensity, importance, salience, consistency, stability, and clarity. Together, these eight dimensions form the basis of Rosenberg's definition, which essentially determines whether self-attitude is positive or negative (Rosenberg 1968). The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale measurement tool is one of the most widely used in modern self-esteem research.

Allan Wigfield and Jacqueline Eccles (1994) provide a broad definition, stating that self-esteem is "the individual's overall evaluation of himself or herself or how one feels about oneself" (p.107). Although the generality of Wigfield and Eccles' definition encompasses both high and low self-esteem, other research continues to find many categories of the concept. The most prevalent categories include explicit, implicit, optimal, and global self-esteem (Searcy 2007).

## **Types**

Explicit and implicit self-esteem are opposites. Explicit self-esteem is a feeling of self-worth that is based on an individual's self-reflection. It can be expressed verbally and requires an individual to make a conscious mental evaluation regarding one's self-worth. Researchers use self-reporting instruments to measure explicit self-esteem (Kernis 2003; Rosenberg 1968). Implicit self-esteem occurs without conscious thought or verbal articulation. It is only indirectly measurable through procedures that exclude self-reporting (Conner and Barrett 2005). Some ways to potentially measure implicit self-esteem are to look at how individuals cope with negative feedback, interpersonal stressors, and unpleasant thoughts and feelings (Gailliot and Schmeichel 2006; Greenwald and Farnham 2000; Spalding and Hardin 1999; McGregor and Marigold

2003). Some researchers assert that the non-consciousness of implicit self-esteem has not been demonstrated through research (Gailliot and Schmeichel 2006) and continue to explore explicit and implicit self-esteem collectively because of an inherent oppositional connection (Kernis 2003).

Another type of self-esteem, optimal self-esteem, as defined by Kernis (2003), has a number of different qualities. Kernis describes optimal self-esteem as a perfect and secure self-esteem where individuals are both aware and accepting of not only their positive qualities but their negative qualities as well. Moreover, there is no defensiveness, aggression, or anger regarding these negative qualities in individuals with optimal self-esteem. Instead, individuals with optimal self-esteem experience criticisms as an opportunity for self-improvement (Kernis 2003). Michael Kernis' (2003) description of the qualities surrounding optimal self-esteem includes a warning that this is not to be confused with high self-esteem. He emphasizes that while both optimal and high self-esteem grow from positive outcomes in life experiences, optimal self-esteem does not require positive outcomes as opposed to high self-esteem being solely dependent on positive outcomes, and existing only when the individuals "like, value, and accept themselves" (Kernis 2003). However, some researchers and professionals find it difficult to determine if optimal self-esteem truly measurable due to potential weaknesses in the data from self-reporting instruments used to measure personality qualities (Heatherton and Wyland 2003).

The fourth type of self-esteem that is most prevalent in modern research is global self-esteem. Global self-esteem is a general self-esteem that does not relate to any specific activity but rather to a combination of emotions regarding criteria such as

worthiness, value, likeableness, and acceptance. Global self-esteem represents an overall evaluation of self (Searcy 2007; Baumeister et al. 2003; Bachman, et al. 2011), a summary or a general attitude about oneself, and most of the literature on self-esteem deals with this type (Rosenberg, et al. 1995).

### **Determinants**

Self-esteem is an ever-present factor in life, but the highs and lows of self-esteem fluctuate continuously throughout life (Robins et al. 2002). In childhood, self-esteem is high because initially children do not limit themselves. It is not until their cognitive abilities expand and they begin receiving and responding to feedback from others that they begin to place limits on themselves. Adolescence marks a dramatic decline in self-esteem. This is attributed, in part, to puberty and social pressures, as well as a lack of clear direction for the future. But as adolescents move into adulthood, self-esteem increases as they find their place in society, get comfortable, and gain a sense of control over their future. However, as old age sets in, another decline in self-esteem occurs between a person's late 60s or early 70s. Potential reasons for this decline in self-esteem include retirement, declining physical and mental capabilities, and a realization of faults (Robins and Trzensniewski 2005).

Yan Dominic Searcy provides a comprehensive description of three general ways self-esteem develops (2007). First, the type of people with whom an individual associates contributes to the development of self-esteem. Individuals such as family members and friends, or groups of people such as social clubs or professional organizations, all potentially affect self-esteem. Association with a particular group needs to be socially

acceptable just as the individual associations would have to be valued in the individual's mind in order to have a positive impact (Searcy 2007).

Development of self-esteem also occurs through participation in activities. Activities can be positive, negative, or neutral. Proficiency in activities is not a requirement. Once an individual gives value to an activity, participation and completion are the only two requirements for providing an impact on self-esteem (Searcy 2007).

Third, self-esteem develops through what a person hears about oneself, which can diminish or improve self-esteem (Searcy 2007). Relationships with particular people and/or groups, activities, and conversations are aids in the development of self-esteem and are an integral part of certain factors affecting self-esteem. Factors affecting self-esteem include race, gender, academic performance, family structure, and parent-child relationships. The next five sections seek to highlight the literature surrounding determinants of self-esteem.

### *Race*

Most research regarding adolescent self-esteem explores the impact of race, especially on differences in self-esteem between African-Americans and Caucasians. There are three general focus areas in the literature regarding associations between race and self-esteem of adolescents. First, there is the suggestion that there is no difference in the self-esteem of adolescents from different races (Franco 1983; Leung and Drasgow 1986; Garner 1995). Sheri Garner's (1995) study of 460 students revealed no correlation between race and self-esteem. A more recent study consisting of African-American, Hispanic, and Caucasian adolescents also revealed no differences across racial groups in terms of self-esteem (Phares, et al. 2005). Contrary to these results, researchers hypothesize that racial

minorities would demonstrate lowered self-esteem based on factors including prejudice, stereotyping, and discrimination (Crocker and Major 1989; Zeigler-Hill 2007). Data from a number of studies indicates that minority populations do, in fact, suffer self-esteem deficits compared to non-minorities (Thomas and Hughes 1986; Martinez and Dukes 1987). Deciphering the true impact of race on self-esteem is a difficult task. Twenge and Crocker (2002) suggest that four theories predicate the differences in self-esteem among races and offer a possible explanation as to why minorities might have higher self-esteem: "internalization of stigma, stigma as self-protection, racial identity, and cultural differences in self-concept."

Historically, writers, researchers, and scholars have analyzed differences in self-esteem of racial groups in terms of the minority's acceptance of perceptions established by the majority. Twenge and Crocker's explanation of internalization of stigma, logically speaking, holds that if the majority has negative judgments of a particular race, that race would potentially internalize those judgments and the self-esteem of the minority race would decline as a consequence (2002). Sometimes this concept is also referred to as social labeling, an inherent acceptance of negative views, perceptions, and opinions created by the ethnic majority, leading to lower self-esteem (Cummings and Carrere 1975; Stager, Chassin, and Young 1983). This theory assumes that the minority considers the majority a valued individual or group. Older literature suggests that the self-esteem of African-Americans suffers because of social labeling (Cummings and Carrere, 1975; Stager, Chassin, and Young 1983). Social labeling, combined with economic and social data (e.g., data from the U.S. Census) that report African-Americans and other minority groups are disadvantaged in terms of income, education, health, and housing exacerbates

the notion of a diminished self-esteem derived from being a minority (Thomas and Hughes 1986; Stager, Chassin, and Young 1983).

The stigma of self-protection is another possible reason self-esteem of racial minorities is not as low as researchers and theorists have predicted (Twenge and Crocker 2002). When a minority group is treated unfairly or discriminated against, members of that group do not ascribe failures to themselves, but rather place the blame on discrimination or other negative treatment of the group to which they belong. Value that comes from being a member of the group provides for a positive racial identity, which potentially causes the members of that group to join in creating a positive group identity (Twenge and Crocker 2002; Crocker and Major 1989). Therefore, membership in a racial minority group affords a certain amount of protection for the global self-esteem of the members of that group.

Racial minority groups do not all present the same levels of self-esteem based on the aforementioned theories. Cultural differences could also offer an explanation of the variances in the self-esteem of racial minority groups (Twenge and Crocker 2002). Cultures that place a great value on the group, with less or limited focus on the individual, could potentially demonstrate lower levels of individual self-esteem (Fiske, et al. 1999).

### *Gender*

Many studies investigate the link between self-esteem and gender in an effort to better understand characteristics of successful adolescent development (Booth and Curran 2010). Although results of these studies are mixed and sometimes inconclusive, professionals look to these studies for assistance in establishing effective gender-related



initiatives that help improve self-esteem of young girls and boys and mitigate the negative outcomes associated with low self-esteem (AAUW 1990). Some evidence suggests that there is no correlation between gender and levels of self-esteem (Gray-Little and Applebaum 1979; Maccoby and Jacklin 1974; Garner 1995; Booth and Curran 2010). However, other studies do find that gender has a significant impact on levels of self-esteem among adolescents. Some research indicates that girls have higher self-esteem than boys (AAUW 1990) while other research contends that boys have higher self-esteem (DuBois et al. 2002; Carlson, Uppal, and Prosser 2000; Richman, Clark, and Brown 1985; Alpert-Gillis and Connell 1989; Hall and Halberstadt 1980; Simmons and Rosenberg 1973; Moksnes, et al. 2010).

Whether one gender experiences more significant changes during adolescence than the other is debatable, but findings indicate that the physical changes of puberty have an impact on self-esteem during this stage of life (Byrne, Davenport, and Mazanov 2007; Harter 2006; Moksnes, et al. 2010). Additional literature suggests a variety of circumstances, including physical, emotional, and cognitive changes, can affect self-esteem (Byrne, Davenport, and Mazanov 2007).

The physical development that occurs during puberty is one of many influences on the self-esteem of female adolescents (AAUW 1990). Physical changes include the onset of menses, acne, breast development, and weight gain. Due to the idealized slender body image that is promoted in the media and often perpetuated by parents and peers, the physical changes in young girls can cause body dissatisfaction, resulting in lower levels of self-esteem (Dohnt and Tiggemann 2006; Biro, et al. 2006; Fabian and Thompson 1989; Petrie, Greenleaf, and Martin 2010; Hargreaves and Tiggemann 2004). Sometimes

body dissatisfaction can also occur as a result of teasing from parents and peers (Paxton, Eisenberg, and Neumark-Sztainer 2006). The teasing is perceived as a lack of emotional support, thus creating a less-than-ideal atmosphere for young girls' self-esteem (Brutsaert 1990).

Evidence suggests that the decline in self-esteem for young boys is significantly less than that of young girls and at times indicates rising self-esteem for boys through the adolescent period (Block and Robins 1993). Boys reported more favorable views regarding the physical changes that occur during puberty, which include increased muscularity, strength, and height, representing the idealized male image (Petrie, Greenleaf, and Martin 2010; Moksnes, et al. 2010; AAUW 1990).

A number of researchers agree that sex-role characteristics are a better predictor of self-esteem than gender. Pleck's 1979 model of sex-role development suggests that females who have a clear understanding and acceptance of feminine roles and males with similar views on masculine roles will demonstrate higher self-esteem than androgynous adolescents will (Garnets and Pleck 1979). In contrast, the perspective provided by Bem (1977) and Lerner et al. (1981) proposes that masculine sex-role traits and a combined display of both masculine and feminine traits provide a higher level of self-esteem. Results of studies by Hall and Halberstadt (1980) and Alpert-Gillis and Connell (1989) support this conclusion.

Additional dynamics reported to have an impact on self-esteem included peer and family pressures to succeed academically and socially. While both genders feel pressure, results indicate that male subjects experience more pressure than females (Eskilson and Wiley 1987). Interpersonal relationships also have an impact on self-esteem, with girls

reporting higher levels of stress than boys with regard to interpersonal relationships (Hankin, Mermelstein, and Roesch 2007).

### *Family Structure*

Family structure is an important factor in the personality development and overall behavior of children and a contributor to the development of self-esteem in adolescents (Rosenberg 1968). The construct has a variety of meanings due to various factors such as divorce and separation, remarriage, death, and even financial factors causing alternative living arrangements. In the context of this paper, family structure refers to the internal composition and organization of a family. This includes a traditional family with a biological mother and father living together or adoptive two-parent household and non-traditional families with a single parent, a step-parent, or an extended family with a guardian that is not the mother or father (e.g., grandparent, aunt, uncle, sibling, etc.).

Rosenberg proposes that since parents have the ability to influence their children, there would naturally be a difference in the level of self-esteem of adolescents from single-parent households versus those from dual-parent households (1968). However, the literature on the subject reveals that outcomes differ from one study to the next. A number of studies indicate that there is no difference in adolescent self-esteem between different types of family structures (Bramlett and Blumberg 2007; Gennetian 2005; Clark and Barber 1994; Hoffmann and Zippco 1986; Gonzales et al. 1995), while other studies reveal significant differences (Rosenthal, Peng, and McMillan 1980; Nunn, Parish, and Worthing 1983; Garner 1995).

Many comparisons are made between the self-esteem of adolescents from two-parent families and those from single-parent families. There are socialization theories that

assert that single-parent households are the "most at-risk family structure" (Lansford et al. 2001). Adolescents from single-parent divorced families may experience stress because of child custody conflicts, changes in home stability, financial strains, and possibly envy of other adolescents who are living with both parents (McCurdy and Scherman 1996). Emotional stress from the aforementioned issues has the potential to affect adolescent self-esteem. In a study of 471 children in fifth through eighth grade, self-esteem of children from two-parent households was higher than the self-esteem of children from single parent homes (Amato 1994). Additionally, a meta-analysis consisting of 92 studies compared the well-being of children from intact families to children of divorced families, with the children from intact families having higher self-esteem (Amato and Keith 1991). An update to this meta-analysis, completed in 2001, used 67 studies to compare the same variables. The findings affirmed the previous study, showing lower self-esteem in children from divorced families (Amato 2001). In comparing the self-esteem of children from intact families to children from divorced families, Parish and Wigle (1985) concluded that children from intact families had a more positive view of themselves than children living with only one parent. Garner (1995) also found that the relationship between self-esteem and family structure is statistically significant and reveals that adolescents living with both biological parents have higher levels of self-esteem. Kurtz (1994) supported this conclusion in finding that children of divorced parents exhibited lower levels of self-esteem.

In another study regarding family structure, Parish (1991) compared adolescents from intact, divorced, and remarried families and found that males had higher self-esteem than females from divorced and non-remarried families (Parish 1991). Another study

indicates that children who come from happy families have higher self-esteem than children from unhappy families, regardless of family structure (Buri, et al. 1986).

### *Parental Relationships*

Whether children reside in traditional or non-traditional families, parental support is an overriding theme for adolescents who exhibit higher levels of self-esteem (Bachman 1970; Coopersmith 1967; Parke 2003; Plunket, et al. 2007). Studies have been conducted on the effects of parental relationships on the self-esteem of adolescents in order to develop programs for competent parenting skills (Cripps and Zyromski 2009). Studies show that even though family structure is important, perceived parental relationships are a much better at predictor of adolescent self-esteem (Demo and Acock 1996).

Adolescence is a critical time in the psychological development of children. With challenges of parent-child relationships during this period, effective parental involvement in adolescents' lives becomes a crucial element in developing a positive self-esteem (Gecas and Schwalbe 1986; Santrock and Yussen 1984; Santrock 2004). Adolescents form conclusions regarding their worth based on many interactions, including parental reactions towards them (Gibson and Jefferson, 2006).

The strong link between perceived parental relationships and adolescent self-esteem is demonstrated in a number of studies and includes various levels and types of involvement (Amato 1994; Cripps and Zyromski 2009; DeKovic and Meeus 1997; Gecas and Schwalbe 1986; Gibson and Jefferson 2006). Rosenberg described different types of parental involvement, including emotional, protective/overprotective, hostile, punitive, and autonomous (1963). Such characterizations of parental involvement were demonstrated through the perceptions of each child studied and acted as indicators to the

child of parental interest, informing the child's sense of his or her own importance.

Perceptions of parental involvement have the potential to positively or negatively affect the self-esteem of adolescents (Cripps and Zyromski 2009; Gecas and Schwalbe 1986; Rosenberg 1963).

A majority of studies reveal that an authoritative/democratic parenting style, as described by Baumrind (1966) provides the best environment for fostering a healthy, positive self-esteem in adolescents (Ginsburg and Bronstein 1993; Doyle and Markiewicz 2005; Gecas and Schwalbe 1986; Steinberg, 2001). Authoritative/democratic parenting consists of a supportive, nurturing environment with rules, boundaries, and consequences, yet still allows for a certain amount of independence and autonomy (Steinberg 2001). The trust factor that is inherent in this parenting style allows the child to feel trusted and capable by the child's parents (Gecas and Schwalbe 1986). Authoritative/democratic parenting can come from either or both parents and exhibit the same positive effects on adolescent self-esteem (Deutsch, Servis, and Payne 2001). In a study of 508 families with adolescents between the ages of 12 and 18, data suggested that an authoritative environment contributed to a higher level of adolescent self-esteem than other types of parenting environments consisting of little or no parental involvement, academically, socially, or emotionally (DeKovic and Meeus 1997). Doyle and Markiewicz (2005) affirmed these results showing that "parental warmth" and support along with a nurturing environment contributed to higher levels of self-esteem than controlling environments.

Alternatives to an authoritative/democratic parenting style as defined by Baumrind (1966) include authoritarian/autocratic style and permissive or indifferent style. These two styles have shown different results in studies regarding self-esteem. An

authoritarian/autocratic parenting style is very controlling and requires obedience and enforces strict rules with punishments and consequences (Chan and Chan 2005).

Research shows that children in this type of environment are not comfortable making decisions on their own (Chan and Chan 2005), are "anxious about comparing themselves with others, fail to initiate activity, and have weak communication skills" (Santrock 2004, p. 277), and show poor emotional adjustment abilities (McKinney, Milone, and Renk 2011). A permissive parenting style is one that consists of very little parental involvement, negatively or positively (Baumrind 1966). Children in this type of perceived environment seem to have the most difficulties with social adjustment and self-esteem (Santrock 2004). However, Gecas and Schwalbe (1986) caution that researchers must be careful when drawing conclusions about parental involvement as perceived by the adolescent and compare the assessments of parental involvement based on parental perceptions as well.

### **Academic Performance**

Adolescent academic performance, as measured by a variety of curriculum-based measurement tools and procedures, is important because not only does academic success promote positive outcomes with regard to risky behaviors such as premature sexual activity (Schvaneveldt, Miller, and Berry 2001) and alcohol abuse (Kasen, Cohen, and Brook 1998) and conditions such as depression (Liem, Dillon, and Gore 2001), it also produces higher levels of self-esteem (Filozof, Albertin, and Jones 1998). A question often associated with self-esteem and academic performance research is how the two constructs are related. Extensive research focuses specifically on academic performance as it relates to self-concept as opposed to self-esteem (Byrne 1984; Marsh 1987, Marsh

1990; Skaalvik and Hagtvet 1990). However, the study of self-esteem and its relationship to academic performance is also a well-documented research topic (Baumeister et al. 2003; Filozof, Albertin, and Jones 1998; Gurney 2006; Liu, Kaplan, and Risser 1992). This section will focus on self-esteem and its relation to academic performance.

Researchers often attempt to understand the relationship between academic performance and self-esteem not only from a perspective of determining if and to what extent such a relationship exists, but also from the perspective of which comes first, self-esteem or academic performance (Baumeister et al. 2003). Unfortunately, there is no definitive answer. Some researchers believe that with the enhancement of self-esteem, adolescent academic performance will improve (Gurney 1987; King et al. 2002). Peter Gurney (1987) performed an analysis of several studies investigating the theory of enhancing self-esteem for the benefit of academic performance. His study revealed that enhancement of self-esteem through such measures as increased teacher attention, relationship building between teachers and students, and parental involvement, leads to higher self-esteem and results in increased academic performance. In another study, results from a mentoring program targeting self-esteem and relationship building, students significantly increased their academic performance (King et al. 2002).

Other research contradicts the conclusions of Gurney and King et al., indicating that if you first improve academic performance, adolescent self-esteem will improve as well (Ross and Broh 2000; Rosenberg, et al. 1989). Rosenberg et al. (1989) conducted a study demonstrating that academic performance has an effect on self-esteem, while self-esteem did not play a significant role in improved academic performance. Data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study affirmed these results (Ross and Broh 2000).



Ross and Broh researched future achievements by analyzing the self-esteem and academic performances of adolescents and comparing the findings to data collected two years later. The results indicated that initial academic performance affected future self-esteem. However, self-esteem had no significant impact on future academic performance.

Additional research suggests that these two constructs, self-esteem and academic performance, are mutually reinforcing and should be developed simultaneously. A compelling demonstration of this reciprocal relationship is presented in a study by Liu, Kaplan, and Risser (1992). Data collected from 315 adolescents showed both the relational effects of self-esteem on academic performance as well as the effects of academic performance on self-esteem. Results indicate a mutually reinforcing relationship between general self-esteem and academic performance mediated by determinants such as deviance, motivation, psychological distress, illness, and absence (Liu, Kaplan, and Risser 1992).

A final view of the relationship between academic performance and self-esteem comes from researchers who believe self-esteem has no relation to academic performance. Baumeister et al. (2003) reviewed several publications regarding self-esteem and its relationship with interpersonal success, happiness, health, and performance. Conclusions from this review conceptualize the lack of evidence indicating a strong reciprocal connection between self-esteem and academic performance and further conclude that increased self-esteem does not lead to improved academic performance.

Adolescent academic performance is and will continue to be a focus for educators, scholars, researchers, and a variety of other professionals seeking to enhance

adolescent development. Whether or not self-esteem is the proper tool for the job remains to be solidly objectified. With a vast amount of research concluding differing and opposing positions regarding the relationship between academic performance and self-esteem, the relationship requires continued examination and development in order to aid in the design of effective programming for today's youth.

### **Conceptual Framework**

A review of the literature identified four factors that affect self-esteem. The literature supports gender, race, family structure, and parental relationships having an influence on the development of self-esteem. The purpose of this research is to first determine the relationship of these factors to the self-esteem of low-income middle school adolescents and, second, to assess the impact of self-esteem on their academic performance.

This research is explanatory and uses six formal hypotheses. Table 2.1 encapsulates these hypotheses and links them to the corresponding literature.

### **Chapter Summary**

Self-esteem is an important component of adolescent development. The literature presents evidence that race, gender, family structure, and parental relationships are four factors that impact the development of self-esteem in adolescents. This research project will determine if these factors do in fact impact self-esteem in adolescents, and it will determine if self-esteem has an impact on academic performance of these adolescents. The next chapter operationalizes the hypotheses and explains the data used to test the hypotheses.

**Table 2.1: Conceptual Framework**

<b>Hypotheses</b>	<b>Literature</b>
<b>H1: White students have higher self-esteem than non-white students.</b>	Crocker and Major 1989; Cummings and Carrere 1975; Fiske, et al. 1999; Franco 1983; Garner 1995; Gray-Little and Hafdahl 2000; Leung and Drasgow 1986; Martinez and Dukes 1987; Phares, et al. 2005; Simmons, et al. 1978; Stager, Chassin, and Young 1983; Tashakkori and Thompson 1990; Thomas and Hughes 1986; Twenge and Crocker 2002; Zeigler-Hill 2007
<b>H2: There is no difference between the self-esteem of boys and girls.</b>	AAUW 1990; Alpert-Gillis and Connell 1989; Bem 1977; Biro, et al. 2006; Block and Robins 1993; Booth and Curran 2010; Brutsaert 1990; Byrne, Davenport, and Mazanov 2007; Carlson, Uppal, and Prosser 2000; Dohnt and Tiggemann 2006; Dubois et al. 2002; Eskilson and Wiley 1987; Fabian and Thompson 1989; Garner 1995; Gray-Little and Applebaum 1979; Hall and Halberstadt 1980; Hankin, Mermelstein, and Roesch 2007; Hargreaves and Tiggemann 2004; Harter 2006; Moksnes, et al. 2010; Lerner et al. 1981; Maccoby and Jacklin 1974; Moksnes, et al. 2010; Paxton, Eisenberg, and Neumark-Sztainer 2006; Petrie, Greenleaf, and Martin 2010; Garnets and Pleck 1979; Richman, Clark, and Brown 1985; Simmons and Rosenberg 1973
<b>H3: Students living with both parents have higher self-esteem than students who do not live with both parents.</b>	Rosenberg 1968; Amato 2001; Bramlett and Blumberg 2007; Buri, et al. 1986; Clark and Barber 1994; Garner 1995; Gennetian 2005; Gonzales et al. 1995; Hoffmann and Zippco 1986; Kurtz 1994; Lansford et al. 2001; McCurdy and Scherman 1996; Nunn, Parish, and Worthing 1983; Parish 1991; Parish and Wagle 1985; Rosenthal, Peng, and McMillan 1980
<b>H4: The mode of parental communication significantly affects the self-esteem of adolescents.</b>  <i>H4a: Positive parental communication enhances the self-esteem of adolescents.</i>  <i>H4b: Negative parental communication diminishes the self-esteem of adolescents.</i>	Amato 1994; Bachman 1970; Baumrind 1966; Chan and Chan 2005; Coopersmith 1967; Cripps and Zyromski 2009; DeKovic and Meeus 1997; Demo and Acock 1996; Deutsch, Servis, and Payne 2001; Doyle and Markiewicz 2005; Gecas and Schwalbe 1986; Gibson and Jefferson 2006; Ginsburg and Bronstein 1993; McKinney, Milone, and Renk 2011; Parke 2003; Plunket, et al. 2007; Rosenberg 1963; Santrock and Yussen 1984; Santrock 2004; Steinberg 2001
<b>H5: Academic performance of adolescents positively impacts their self-esteem.</b>  <b>H6: Self-esteem of adolescents positively impacts their academic performance.</b>	Baumeister et al. 2003; Byrne 1984; Filozof, Albertin, and Jones 1998; Gurney 1987, 2006; Kasen, Cohen, and Brook 1998; King et al. 2002; Liem, Dillon, and Gore 2001; Liu, Kaplan, and Risser 1992; Marsh 1987, 1990; Rosenberg, et al. 1989; Ross and Broh 2000; Schvaneveldt, Miller, and Berry 2001; Skaalvik and Hagtvet 1990

## **Chapter Three: Methodology**

### **Chapter Purpose**

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the methodology used to test the hypotheses presented in Chapter Two. There are two dependent variables and four independent variables presented in Table 3.1, the operationalization table. Patricia Shields and Hassan Tajalli explain in the "Intermediate Theory: The Missing Link in Successful Student Scholarship" that the operationalization of the variables moves from abstract concepts presented in the conceptual framework to "measurements and modes of evidence collection" (Shields and Tajalli 2006). The following section describes each of these variables, addresses the operationalization of these variables, describes the data and collection techniques, and explains the statistical evaluations used to test the hypotheses. A discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of the research methods and a review of human subject protection are also presented.

### **Research Technique**

Survey research was used to obtain data for the dependent variable, self-esteem, and the four independent variables of race, gender, family structure, and parental relationships. According to Earl Babbie, surveys are an effective means of collecting data from, and analyzing questions of, large populations (Babbie 2001, p. 268).

The data for academic performance was provided by the Austin Independent School District (AISD).

### **Participants**

The participants in this research study were low-income parents and adolescents who participated in programming with the Austin Learning Academy (ALA). ALA provides a

variety of educational services to children and adults in Title I schools and other economically disadvantaged areas in Austin, Texas. The larger study was part of ALA's *Keepin' It Real* (KIR) youth program, a federal government grant sponsored program designed to improve adolescent development in the areas of academic performance and parental relationships with a focus on sexual abstinence.

### Table 3.1: Operationalization of Variables

Variables	Hypothesis	Measurement	Data Source
<b>Dependent Variables:</b> 1. Self-Esteem (also as an independent variable for H <sub>6</sub> )  2. Academic Performance (also as an independent variable for H <sub>1</sub> -H <sub>5</sub> )	H <sub>1</sub> -H <sub>5</sub>	Scale of 1-4 1=Agree a Lot 2=Agree a Little 3=Disagree a Little 4=Disagree a Lot	Survey: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale
<b>Independent Variables:</b> 1. Race a. Black b. Hispanic  2. Gender  3. Family Structure  4. Parental Relationships a. Positive Communication b. Negative Communication	H <sub>6</sub>	Average 2010 TAKS Scores of Math and Reading	Austin Independent School District (AISD)
	H <sub>1</sub>	White=Reference Black=1 Others=0 Hispanic=1 Others=0	Self-Report Survey
	H <sub>2</sub>	1=Male 0=Female	Self-Report Survey
	H <sub>3</sub>	1=Both Parents 0=Single Parent	Self-Report Survey
	H <sub>4</sub> H <sub>4a</sub> H <sub>4b</sub>	Scale of 1-5 1=Strongly Disagree 2=Moderately Disagree 3=Neither Agree nor Disagree 4=Moderately Agree 5=Strongly Agree	Survey: Parent / Adolescent Communication Inventory a. Questions 1, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, 14, 16, 17 b. Questions 2, 4, 5, 10, 11, 12, 15, 18, 19, 20

Participation in Keepin' It Real was voluntary and parents provided written consent forms to allow their children to participate in the program. Participants consisted of economically disadvantaged sixth and seventh grade boys and girls and their parents or guardians from five Title-I middle schools in Austin, Texas. Students and their parents in the selected schools were notified of the program via presentations on the various campuses, phone calls, emails, letters, and fliers. Demographic distribution of participating students that were used in this study is provided in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2: Demographics of the Sample**

	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>White</b>			
<i>n</i>	8	8	<b>16</b>
<i>Row %</i>	50.0%	50.0%	<b>100%</b>
<i>Column %</i>	7.6%	6.7%	
<b>Hispanic</b>			
<i>n</i>	89	100	<b>189</b>
<i>Row %</i>	47.1%	52.9%	<b>100%</b>
<i>Column %</i>	84.8%	84.0%	
<b>Black</b>			
<i>n</i>	8	11	<b>19</b>
<i>Row %</i>	42.1%	57.9%	<b>100%</b>
<i>Column %</i>	7.6%	9.2%	
<b>Total</b>			
<i>n</i>	105	119	<b>224</b>
<i>Row %</i>	46.9%	53.1%	<b>100%</b>
<i>Column %</i>	100%	100%	

## **Dependent Variables**

### *Self-Esteem*

Self-esteem is used as the dependent variable in hypothesis one through five. However it is used as an independent variable for hypothesis six. Self-esteem, as noted in the literature review, is the level of confidence and satisfaction in oneself. Global self-esteem was measured using an instrument developed by Morris Rosenberg (1965) called the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, a 10-item survey for use with adolescent populations. Responses to questions are measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The scale generally has high reliability: test-retest correlations are typically in the range of .82 to .88 and Cronbach's alpha for various samples is in the range of .77 to .88 (Blascovich and Tomaka 1993). Higher scores on the scale denote higher levels of global self-esteem. Five of the questions on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (questions 1, 2, 4, 6, 7) are worded positively and the other five questions (questions 3, 5, 8, 9, 10) are worded negatively. The negatively worded items

were reversed so that 1 (strongly disagree) became 4 (strongly agree) and 4 (strongly agree) became 1 (strongly disagree). After reversing the negatively worded items, an average self-esteem score was established for each of the students based on a scale of 1-4.

### *Academic Performance*

Academic performance was used as a dependent variable for hypothesis six, and used as an independent variable for hypothesis one through five. The data for academic performance were spring of 2010 Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) scores provided by Austin Independent School District. The TAKS is a standardized test used to measure the academic skills of students in Texas schools. Two measures of academic performance were selected for the purposes of this study: mathematics and reading. The average of the two scores was used for the academic performance variable.

## **Independent Variables**

### *Race, Gender, and Family Structure*

Data related to ethnicity, gender, and family structure of the students was obtained from a separate survey that was required (*AFL Prevention Core Evaluation Instrument*). For use in the multiple regression, race was coded using white as the reference group, comparing blacks and Hispanics to the reference group. For black specific comparison, blacks were coded with the number 1, and others were zero. For Hispanic specific comparison, Hispanics were coded with the number one and others were zero.

### *Parental Relationships*

Data for the parental relationships variable was collected using the *Parent Adolescent Communication Inventory*. Developed in 2003 by Howard Barnes and David H. Olson,



this survey consists of 20 questions measured on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 represents 'Strongly Disagree' and 5 represents 'Strongly Agree.' Ten of the questions measure positive aspects of open family communication. The remaining ten items measure problems in family communication. This instrument is widely used in prevention and intervention evaluations and research. The instrument has two statistically independent dimensions: negative and positive communication. It is designed to measure both content and process issues related to communication between adolescents and their parents. Open or positive communication is characterized by an emphasis on freedom and free-flowing exchange of information, both factual and emotional, as well as lack of constraint. Problem or negative communication is characterized by hesitancy to share and negative styles of interaction. Alpha reliability coefficients for both subscales of the instrument are larger than .76. All surveys in this study were provided in both English and Spanish. A survey was given to the parent who was present at the time of testing. If both parents were present, each parent received a separate survey. In those instances when both parents filled out their own respective surveys, an average of both surveys was used for our analysis.

### **Method of Data Collection**

Data collection sessions were held at banquet halls in a local hotel in Austin, Texas. Meals were provided to student participants, their parents, and siblings. Additionally, to encourage participation, both monetary and non-monetary incentives were offered to parents and students.

An independent evaluation team, headed by Dr. Hassan Tajalli, was responsible for distributing, explaining/describing, and collecting the surveys. Parents and students

were administered the surveys in separate areas. Envelopes containing the completed surveys were identified by unique codes assigned to the student and parent. Each student and their parent(s) were assigned the same unique code to allow for easy identification of parents and corresponding student responses. The principal evaluator was the only person with access to information that associated student names with the corresponding unique code. No individual name was recorded on the collected envelopes. Data entry was done by a Texas State University staff member unrelated to the program and who delivered the data file to Dr. Hassan Tajalli. The person in charge of data entry did not have access to the names of participants.

### **Strengths and Weaknesses**

Surveys were the means for variable data collection in this research project. Surveys provide a unique opportunity to obtain data concerning attitudes and opinions on a particular topic from a sample population and allow for data collection from large groups of participants with relative ease and low cost (Babbie 2001, p. 268). Additionally, the anonymity associated with survey research provides an environment where participants have the opportunity to answer questions openly and honestly.

However, there are weaknesses in survey research. Problems such as low response rates can produce less-than-accurate representations of a given target population. There is also the possibility that respondents may apply socially desirable answers rather than their true feelings (Babbie 2001, p. 244).

For the purposes of this study, survey research is more than adequate. A number of monetary and non-monetary incentives were offered to promote a high response rate.

Additionally, students and parents were kept separate during the collection process in order to reduce potential influence and both were assured of anonymity.

## **Statistical Analysis**

### *Multiple Regression Analysis*

Multiple regression analysis, a statistical procedure that shows the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables (Babbie 2001, 455), was used in this study. A multiple regression analysis was used to determine the relationship between the dependent variable, self-esteem, and the four independent variables, race, gender, family structure, and parental communication. An additional analysis was run using academic performance as a dependent variable and self-esteem, race, gender, family structure, and parental communication as the independent variable.

## **Human Subject Protection**

Federal regulations require that all research involving human subjects go through an Institutional Review Board (IRB) review in order to protect the rights and welfare of the potential research subjects by examining areas such as risks and benefits, informed consent, selection of subjects, privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity. The original research was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of Texas at Austin. The use of the data collected for the present ARP was approved by the Institutional Review Board at Texas State University. The approval number is 2012R6589. Evaluators explained to respondents that their participation was voluntary, all survey information was kept confidential without names of participants, and students

were reminded that information would not be shared with teachers, school administrators, parents, or any other person.

### **Chapter Summary**

This chapter explains the methodology used for testing the six hypotheses of this study.

Included in this chapter are descriptions of the study's research and data collection techniques, participants, dependent and independent variables, and statistical processes.

The next chapter is a discussion of the results of the multiple regression analyses used to examine the relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

## Chapter Four: Results

### Chapter Purpose

The purpose of this chapter is to present results from the multiple regression analysis used to examine the relationship between self-esteem, race, gender, parental communication, family structure and academic performance. Results from the multiple regression analyses are provided in tables 4.2 and 4.3. The results for each hypothesis will be discussed individually.

### Results

The average self-esteem separated by race is represented in Table 4.1. On average, Blacks had the highest self-esteem at 3.4731, followed by Whites at 3.3028, and the lowest from the Hispanics at 3.0428.

**Table 4.1: Average Self-Esteem by Race**

Race	Mean	N
Black	3.4731	19
Hispanic	3.0428	188
White	3.3028	16
Total	3.0981	223

Table 4.3 details the results of the multiple regressions assessing the possible impact race, gender, family structure, and parental communication and academic performance of students on self-esteem. The R squared shows that 41.3 percent of the variation in self-esteem is explained by the independent variables.

The results show that race and family structure do not have significant impacts on self-esteem. Therefore, hypotheses 1 and 3 of this study are not supported by the

findings. The second hypothesis, however, is supported by the results. The results do not show significant differences in the self-esteem of low-income adolescent boys and girls.

**Table 1Table 4.2: Determinants of Self Esteem**

	Coefficients	Significance
Black	.238	.149
Hispanic	.057	.649
Gender	.032	.616
Family Structure	.069	.317
Positive Parental Comm.	.305	.000
Negative Parental Comm.	-.214	.000
Academic Performance	.002	.000
Constant	1.357	
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	.413	
<b>F</b>	21.148	

*Dependent Variable: Self Esteem*

Both hypotheses 4<sub>a</sub> and 4<sub>b</sub> are strongly supported by the findings. In this study, communication is measured from a parental perspective. As the levels of positive parental communication increases, so does the self-esteem of adolescents. Positive communication is reflective of honest and open exchange of information coupled with and uninhibited emotional and physical connection between parents and adolescents. Results indicate that self-esteem benefits in an environment with this type of communication. The converse is also true. The analysis shows a significant negative correlation between self-esteem and negative parental communication. Parental relationships that are hindered by negative interactions or consist of a filtered exchange of information or a reluctance to share information are characteristics of negative communication between parents and adolescents. Negative parental communication significantly diminishes the self-esteem of adolescents.

The literature revealed an ongoing controversy regarding the relationship between self-esteem and academic performance. The first theory is that in order to increase academic performance, there must be improvement to self-esteem. However,

others argue that you must first improve academic performance in order to enhance self-esteem. A third school of thought is that the components are mutually reinforcing and the reciprocal relationship leads to an enhancement of both. Then there is the contention that there is no relationship between the two constructs.

Because of the disputation surrounding the two constructs, academic performance was used as an independent variable in hypothesis five and as the dependent variable in hypothesis six. Table 4.2, with self-esteem as the dependent variable, and controlling for race, gender, family structure, and parental communication, shows that increased academic performance positively affects adolescent self-esteem. A separate multiple regression analysis was conducted using academic performance as the dependent variable and race, gender, family structure, parental communication, and self-esteem as independent variables. The analysis shows the significant positive relationship between academic performance and self-esteem while controlling for the other factors, offering a more accurate indication of the relationship. Self-esteem has a positive impact on academic achievement. The results support both hypotheses five and six.

It is important to note that the  $R^2$  in the second regression using academic performance as the dependent variable is .156. This means that the independent variables in this regression explain a small portion (about 16%) of factors that impact academic performance. In other words, about 84% of factors determining academic performance are not explained in this regression model. Perhaps these unexplained factors can explicate lower academic performance of blacks and Hispanics when compared to white adolescents.

**Table 4.3: Determinants of Academic Performance**

	Coefficients	Significance
<b>Self Esteem</b>	<b>52.379</b>	<b>.000</b>
Positive Parental Comm.	-8.534	.230
Negative Parental Comm.	10.799	.194
Family Structure	21.020	.077
Gender	9.332	.399
Black	-61.375	.031
Hispanic	-52.415	.015
Constant	565.671	
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	.156	
<b>F</b>	5.551	

*Dependent Variable: Academic Performance*

## **Chapter Summary**

This chapter discusses the results of the multiple regression analyses. The results show support for three of the six hypotheses. The next chapter discusses conclusions drawn from this study as well as a summary of the findings, possible research topics for the future, and the strengths and weaknesses associated with this research.



## **Chapter Five: Conclusion and Discussion**

### **Chapter Purpose**

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize this research project and compare the findings of this study to the research purpose. This chapter will also discuss recommendations for future research.

Self-esteem has been the focus of many researchers in an effort to improve academic performance and overall quality of life for adolescents. The purpose of the research was, first, to examine the effects of race, gender, family structure, and parental communication on self-esteem of low-income middle school adolescents and, second, to determine to what extent, if any, the self-esteem of these adolescents affects their academic performance.

Chapter Two, Literature Review, discusses a wide variety of scholarly literature that examines effects of race, gender, family structure, and parental communication on self-esteem. Additionally, the literature review outlines the debate about academic performance as it relates to self-esteem. The chapter also presented the conceptual framework and the six hypotheses of this project.

The research methodology of this study and a discussion of the operationalization of the hypotheses were presented in Chapter Three. This chapter also included a detailed description of the participants, statistical research methods, and methods of data collection, including descriptions of surveys and processes. Results from the statistics were discussed in Chapter Four. Table 5.1 below provides a brief summary of the findings of this research project.

**Table 5.1: Summary of Findings**

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Findings</b>
<b>H1: White students have higher self-esteem than non-white students.</b>	<b>Not Supported</b>
<b>H2: There is no difference between the self-esteem of boys and girls.</b>	<b>Supported</b>
<b>H3: Students living with both parents have higher self-esteem than students who do not live with both parents.</b>	<b>Not Supported</b>
<b>H4: The mode of parental communication significantly affects the self-esteem of adolescents.</b>	
H4a: Positive parental communication enhances the self-esteem of adolescents.	<b>Supported</b>
H4b: Negative parental communication diminishes the self-esteem of adolescents.	<b>Supported</b>
<b>H5: Academic performance of adolescents positively impacts their self-esteem.</b>	<b>Supported</b>
<b>H6: Self-esteem of adolescents positively impacts their academic performance.</b>	<b>Supported</b>

The analysis did not support that white students have higher self-esteem than non-white students. However, many of the studies discussed in the literature review support the outcome of the analyses. Researchers have attributed high self-esteem in minorities to positive racial identity.

The analysis supported the hypothesis that there is no difference between the self-esteem of boys and girls. Many of the studies presented in the literature review regarding the self-esteem differences between boys and girls showed that girls generally have a lower self-esteem than boys. The literature further states that this is often times due to body dissatisfaction among adolescent females.

The analysis did not support the third hypothesis of this study. Contrary to information found in the literature review, students living with both parents did not have significantly higher self-esteem than those students living with just one parent. The literature suggests that, in general, self-esteem of adolescents from single parent homes is lower than adolescents from dual parent homes because of emotional stress from factors such as financial strains and changes in home stability that are associated with single parent homes.

Hypotheses 4<sub>a</sub> and 4<sub>b</sub> were both structured around relationships between parents and adolescents, from a parental perspective. Hypothesis 4<sub>a</sub> focused on the impact of positive parental communication on self-esteem. The results, which supported the hypothesis, coincide with the literature, revealing that supportive, open, positive parental communication is positively associated with self-esteem. The literature also discusses the adverse impact of negative parental communication on self-esteem. This type of communication occurs in relationships that exhibit negative interactions and a limited exchange of information. The results affirmed that, as represented in hypothesis 4<sub>b</sub>, negative communication reduces self-esteem in adolescents.

Academic performance was used as an independent variable in the fifth hypothesis and the dependent variable in hypothesis six. As discussed in the literature review, which variable causes the initial effect is a source of continued debate. Some research argues that an increase in self-esteem is essential to developing the academic performance of adolescents. Other research refutes this notion, claiming that improved academic performance will raise the self-esteem of children. The literature also covered the idea that the two constructs are mutually reinforcing. The results of this study

supported the literature and both hypotheses, concluding that academic performance has a positive impact on self-esteem, and self-esteem has a positive impact on academic performance.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

One recommendation for future research is to reproduce this study in other Title I middle schools in Texas. Further examination of additional populations with similar demographics could yield beneficial results. Another recommendation is to examine racial identity, or the extent to which low-income adolescents relate positively or negatively to their respective race or ethnicity.

With regard to self-esteem and academic performance, there is compelling evidence that the two constructs are positively related. Discovering which construct is the cause and which receives the effect could be beneficial in the development of programs that improve self-esteem and academic performance outcomes in middle school adolescents. Future longitudinal research covering younger and older students is recommended.

## Bibliography

- Alpert-Gillis, L.J., J.P. Connell. 1989. Gender and Sex-Role Influences on Children's Self-Esteem. *Journal of Personality* 57 (1): 97-114.
- Amato, Paul R. 1990. Personality and Social Network Involvement as Predictors of Helping Behavior in Everyday Life. *Social Psychology Quarterly* 53(1): 31-43.
- Amato, Paul R. 1994. Father-Child Relations, Mother-Child Relations, and Offspring Psychological Well-Being in Early Adulthood. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 56 (4):1031-1042
- Amato, Paul R. 2001. Children of Divorce in the 1990s: An Update of the Amato and Keith (1991) Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Family Psychology* 15 (3): 355-370.
- Amato, Paul R. and Bruce Keith. 1991. Parental Divorce and the Well-Being of Children: A Meta-Analysis. *Psychological Bulletin* 110 (1): 26-46
- American Association of University Women (AAUW). 1990. *Shortchanging Girls, Shortchanging America*. Full Data Report. Washington, DC.
- Babbie, Earl. R. 2001. *The Practice of Social Research*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Thomson Learning.
- Bachman, Jerald G. 1970. *Youth in Transition: The Impact of Family Background and intelligence on Tenth-Grade Boys. Volume II*. Ann Arbor, MI: Michigan University.
- Bachman, Jerald G., Patrick M. O'Malley, Peter Freedman-Doan, Kali H. Trzesniewski, and M. Brent Donnellan. 2011. Adolescent Self-Esteem: Differences by Race/Ethnicity, Gender, and Age. *Self Identity* 10 (4): 445-473.
- Baumeister, Roy F., Jennifer D. Campbell, Joachim I. Krueger, and Kathleen D. Vohs. 2003. Does high Self-Esteem cause Better Performance, Interpersonal Success, Happiness, or Healthier Lifestyles? *Psychological Science in the Public Interest* 4 (1): 1-44.
- Baumrind, Diana. 1966. Effects of Authoritative Parental Control on Child Behavior. *Child Development* 37 (4): 887-907. JSTOR <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1126611> (accessed September 25, 2009).

- Bem, S.L. 1977 On the Utility of Alternative Procedures for Assessing Psychological Androgyny. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* 45: 196-205.
- Biro, FM, R.H. Striegel-Moore, D.L. Franko, J. Padgett, J.A. Bean. 2006. Self-Esteem in Adolescent Females. *The Journal of Adolescent Health* 39(4): 501-507.
- Block, J., and R. Robins. 1993. A Longitudinal Study of Consistency and Change in Self-Esteem from Early Adolescence to Early Adulthood. *Child Development* 64: 909-923.
- Booth, Margaret Zoller and Erin Curran. 2010. I Feel So Confused: A Longitudinal Study of Young Adolescents' Change in Self-Esteem. ERIC Full-Text [http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/search/detailmini.jsp?\\_nfpb=true&\\_ERICExtSearch\\_SearchValue\\_0=ED510368&ERICExtSearch\\_SearchType\\_0=no&accno=ED510368](http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/search/detailmini.jsp?_nfpb=true&_ERICExtSearch_SearchValue_0=ED510368&ERICExtSearch_SearchType_0=no&accno=ED510368) (accessed June 12, 2008).
- Bramlett, Matthew D., and Stephen J. Blumberg. 2007. Family Structure and Children's Physical and Mental Health. *Health Affairs* 26(2): 549-558.
- Brutsaert, H. 1990. Changing Sources of Self-Esteem among Girls and Boys in Urban Education. *Education Journal* 24(i):432-439.
- Buri, John R., Peggy A. Kirchner, Thomas M. Misukanis, Rebecca A. Mueller, and Jane M. Walsh. *Parenting and Adolescent Self-Esteem*. Presentation at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC, August 22-26, 1986.
- Bushman, Brad J. and Roy F. Baumeister. 1998. Threatened Egotism, Narcissism, Self-Esteem, and Direct and Displaced Aggression: Does Self-Love or Self-Hate Lead to Violence? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 75 (1): 219-229.
- Byrne, Barbara M. 1984. The General/Academic Self-Concept Nomological Network: A Review of Construct Validation Research. *Review of Educational Research* 54 (3): 427-456. SAGE Publications <http://rer.sagepub.com/content/54/3/427> (accessed June 19, 2009).
- Byrne, D.G., S.C. Davenport, and J. Mazanov. 2007. Profiles of Adolescent Stress: The Development of the Adolescent Stress Questionnaire (ASQ). *Journal of Adolescence* 30: 393-416.
- California State Department of Education. 1990. *Toward a State of Esteem. The Final Report of the California Task Force To Promote Self-Esteem and Personal and*

*Social Responsibility*. Bureau of publications, California State Department of Education.

- Carlson, Cindy, Sarika Uppal, and Ellie C. Prosser. 2000. Ethnic Differences in Processes Contributing to the Self-Esteem of early Adolescent Girls. *The Journal of Early Adolescence* 20 (1): 44-67. SAGE Publications  
<http://jea.sagepub.com/contents/20/1/44.refs.html> (accessed April 2, 2012).
- Cast, Alicia D., and Peter J. Burke. 2002. A Theory of Self-Esteem. *Social Forces* 80 (3): 1041-1068. JSTOR: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3086465> (accessed June 19, 2009).
- Chan, Kwok-wai and Siu-mui Chan. 2005. Perceived Parenting Styles and Goal Orientations: A Study of Teacher Education Students in Hong Kong. *Research in Education* 73: 9-21.
- Clark, Jennifer, and Bonnie L. Barber. 1994. Adolescents in Postdivorce and Always-Married Families: Self-Esteem and Perceptions of Fathers' Interest. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 56(3): 608-614. JSTOR:  
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/352871> (accessed June 19, 2009)
- Conner, Tamlin and Lisa Feldman Barrett. 2005. Implicit Self-Attitudes Predict Spontaneous Affect in Daily Life. *Emotion* 5 (4): 476-488.
- Coopersmith, S. (1967). *The Antecedents of Self-Esteem*. San Francisco: W.H. Freeman and Company.
- Cripps, Kayla and Brett Zyromski. 2009. Adolescents' Psychological Well-Being and Perceived Parental Involvement: Implications for Parental Involvement in Middle Schools. *Research in Middle Level Education* 33 (4):1-13. Academic Search Complete  
<http://libproxy.txstate.edu/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=a9h&AN=52250342&site=ehost-live> (accessed August 24, 2012)
- Crocker, Jennifer and Brenda Major. 1989. Social Stigma and Self-Esteem: The Self-Protective Properties of Stigma. *Psychological Review* 96 (4): 608-630.
- Cummings, Scott and Robert Carrere. 1975. Black Culture, Negroes, and Colored People: Racial Image Among Black Adolescents. *Phylon* 36 (3): 238-248. JSTOR  
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/274389> (accessed August 14, 2009).

- Dalgas-Pelish, Peggy. 2006. Effects of a Self-Esteem Intervention Program on School-Age Children. *Pediatric Nursing* 32 (4): 341-348. JSTOR <http://www.jstor.org/> (accessed July 16, 2009)
- Dekovic, Maja and Wim Meeus. 1997. Peer Relations in Adolescence: Effects of Parenting and Adolescents' Self-Concept. *Journal of Adolescence* 20: 163-176.
- Demo, David H. and Alan C. Acock. 1996. Family Structure, Family Process, and Adolescent Well-Being. *Journal of Research on Adolescence* 6:457-488.
- Deutsch, Francine M., Laura J. Servis and Jessica D. Payne. 2001. Paternal Participation in Child Care and Its Effects on Children's Self-Esteem and Attitudes Toward Gendered Roles. *Journal of Family Issues* 22 (8):1000-1024. SAGE Publications <http://jfi.sagepub.com/cgi/contents/refs/22/8/1000> (accessed June 15, 2009).
- Dohnt, H. K. and M. Tiggemann. (2006). Body Image Concerns in Young Girls: The Role of Peers and the Media Prior to Adolescence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence* 35: 135–145.
- Doyle, Anna Beth and Dorothy Markiewicz. 2005. Parenting, Marital Conflict and Adjustment from Early- to Mid-Adolescence: Mediated by Adolescent Attachment Style? *Journal of Youth and Adolescence* 34 (2): 97-110.
- DuBois, David L., Carol Burk-Braxton, Lance P. Swenson, Heather D. Tavendale, and Jennifer L. Hardesty. 2002. Race and Gender Influences on Adjustment in Early Adolescence: Investigation of an Integrative Model. *Child Development* 73 (5): 1573-1592.
- Eskilson, Arlene, and Mary Glenn Wiley. 1987. Parents, Peers, Perceived Pressure, and Adolescent Self-Concept: Is a Daughter a Daughter All of Her Life? *The Sociological Quarterly* 28 (1): 135-145. JSTOR: <http://www.jstor.org/> (accessed July 16, 2009).
- Fabian, L. J. and Thompson, J. K. 1989. Body Image and Eating Disturbance in Young Females. *International Journal of Eating Disorders* 8: 63–74.
- Filozof, Eileen M., Helena K. Albertin, Courtney R. Jones., Sylvia S. Steme, Leann Myers, and Robert J. McDermott. 1998. Relationship of Adolescent Self-Esteem to Selected Academic Variables. *Journal of School Health* 68 (2): 68-72.



- Fiske, S. T., Xu, J., A.J.C. Cuddy, and P.S. Glick. 1999. (Dis)respecting Versus (Dis)liking: Status and Interdependence Predict Ambivalent Stereotypes of Competence and Warmth. *Journal of Social Issues* 55: 473-489.
- Franco, J.N. 1983. A Developmental Analysis of Self-Concept in Mexican-American and Anglo School Children. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Science* 5: 207-218.
- Gailliot, Matthew T., and Brandon J. Schmeichel. 2006. Is Implicit Self-Esteem Really Unconscious?: Implicit Self-Esteem Eludes Conscious Reflection. *Journal of Articles in Support of the Null Hypothesis* 3 (3): 73-83.
- Garner, Sheri Y. *Self Esteem of Elementary and Middle School Children*. Master's Thesis, Fort Hays University, 1995.
- Garnets, L. and J. Pleck. 1979. Sex Role Identity, Androgyny, and Sex Role Transcendence: A Sex Role Strain Analysis. *Psychology of Women Quarterly* 3:270-283.
- Gecas, Viktor and Michael L. Schwalbe. 1986. Parental Behavior and Adolescent Self-Esteem. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 48:37-46.
- Gennetian, Lisa. 2005. One or two parents? Half or step siblings? The Effect of Family Structure on Young Children's Achievement. *Journal of Population Economics* 18 (3): 415-436
- Gibson, D. M. and R.N. Jefferson. 2006. The Effect of Perceived Parental Involvement and the Use of Growth-Fostering Relationships on Self-Concept in Adolescents Participating in GEAR UP. *Adolescence* 41: 111-125.
- Ginsburg, Golda S., and Phyllis Bronstein. 1993. Family Factors Related to Children's Intrinsic/Extrinsic Motivational Orientation and Academic Performance. *Child Development* 64: 1461-1474.
- Gonzalez, K., Field, T., Lasko, D., Harding, J., Yando, R., & Bendell, D. 1995. Adolescents from Divorced and Intact Families. *Journal of Divorce and Remarriage* 23:165-175.

- Gray-Little, Bernadette and M.I. Applebaum. 1979. Instrumentality Effects in the Assessment of Racial Differences in Self-Esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 37: 1221-1229.
- Gray-Little, Bernadette, and Adam R. Hafdahl. 2000. Factors Influencing Racial Comparisons of Self-Esteem: A Quantitative Review. *Psychological Bulletin* 126 (1): 26-54 JSTOR <http://www.jstor.org/> (accessed June 19, 2009).
- Greenwald, Anthony G. and Shelly D. Farnham. 2000. Using the Implicit Association Test to Measure Self-Esteem and Self-Concept. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 79 (6): 1022-1038.
- Gurney, Peter. 2006. Self-Esteem Enhancement in Children: A Review of Research Findings. *Educational Research* 29 (2): 130-136.
- Hall, Judith A. and Amy G. Halberstadt. 1980. Masculinity and Femininity in Children: Development of the Children's Personal Attributes Questionnaire. *Developmental Psychology* 16(4): 270-280.
- Hankin, Benjamin L., Robin Mermelstein and Linda Roesch. 2007. Sex Differences in Adolescent Depression: Stress Exposure and Reactivity Models. *Child Development* 78 (1): 279-295.
- Hargreaves, D. A. and M. Tiggemann. 2004. Idealized Media Images and Adolescent Body Image: "Comparing" Boys and Girls. *Body Image* 1: 351-361.
- Harter, S. 1998. The Development of Self-Representations. In W. Damon & N. Eisenberg (Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 3. Social, emotional, and personality development* (553-617). New York: Wiley.
- Harter, S. 1999. *The Construction of the Self: A Developmental Perspective*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Heatherton, Todd F., and Carrie Wyland. 2003. Why Do People Have Self-Esteem? *Psychological Inquiry* 14 (1): 38-41. JSTOR <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1449037> (accessed August 13, 2009).

- Hoffmann, R. & Zippco, D. 1986. Effects of Divorce Upon School Self-Esteem and Achievement of 10-, 11-, and 12-Year-Old Children. *Perceptual and Motor Skills* 62: 397-398.
- Kasen, S., P. Cohen and J.S. Brook. 1998. Adolescent School Experiences and Dropout, Adolescent Pregnancy, and Young Adult Deviant Behavior. *Journal of Adolescent Research* 13(1): 49-72.
- Kernis, Michael H. 2003. Toward a Conceptualization of Optimal Self-Esteem. *Psychological Inquiry* 14 (1): 1-26.
- King, K.A., R.A. Vidourek, B. Davis, and W. McClellan. 2002. Increasing Self-Esteem and School Connectedness through a Multidimensional Mentoring Program. *Journal of School Health* 72: 294-299.
- Kling, Kristen C., Janet Shibley Hyde, Carolin J. Showers, and Brenda N. Buswell. 1999. Gender Differences in Self-Esteem: A Meta-Analysis. *Psychological Bulletin* 125(4) 470-500.
- Kurtz, L. 1994. Psychosocial Coping Resources in Elementary School Age Children of Divorce. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry* 64 (4): 554-563.
- Lansford, Jennifer E., Rosario Ceballo, Antonia Abbey, and Abigail J. Stewart. 2001. Does Family Structure matter? A Comparison of Adoptive, Two-Parent Biological, Single-Mother, Stepfather, and Stepmother Households. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 63 (3):840-851. JSTOR  
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/3654654> (accessed July 23, 2009).
- Lerner, Richard M., Gwendolyn T. Sorell, and Barbara E. Brackney. 1981. Sex differences in self-concept and self-esteem of late adolescents: A time-lag analysis. *Sex Roles* 7 (7): 709-722.
- Leung, K. and F. Drasgow. 1986. Relation Between Self-Esteem and Delinquent Behavior in Three Ethnic Groups: An Application of Item Response Theory. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* 17: 151-167.

- Liem, J.H., C.O. Dillon and S. Gore. 2001. *Mental Health Consequences Associated with Dropping out of High School*. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the American Psychological Association. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED457502. (accessed July 9, 2009)
- Liu, Xiaoru, Howard B. Kaplan, and Will Risser. 1992. Decomposing the Reciprocal Relationships Between Academic Achievement and General Self-Esteem. *Youth Society* 24 (2): 123-148. SAGE Publications  
<http://yas.sagepub.com/content/24/2/123> (accessed on July 9, 2012).
- Maccoby, Elenore E., and Carol N. Jacklin. 1974. *The Psychology of Sex Difference*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Marsh, H. W. (1990). Two-Parent, Step-Parent, and Single-Parent Families: Changes in Achievement, Attitudes and Behaviors during the Last Two Years of High School. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 82: 327-340.
- Marsh, H. W. 1987. The Big-Fish-Little-Pond Effect on Academic Self-Concept. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 79: 280-295.
- Martinez, R. and R. Dukes. 1987. Race, Gender and Self-Esteem among Youth. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences* 9(4): 427-443.
- McCurdy, Susan J. and Avraham Scherman. 1996. Effects of Family Structure on the Adolescent Separation-Individuation Process. *Adolescence* 31: 307-319.
- McKinney, Cliff, Mary Catherine Milone and Kimberly Renk. 2011. Parenting and Late Adolescent Emotional Adjustment: Mediating Effects of Discipline and Gender. *Child Psychiatry Human Development* 42: 463-481.
- Moksnes, Unni K., Inger E.O. Moljord, Geir A Espnes, and Don C. Byrne. 2010. The Association Between Stress and Emotional States in Adolescents: The Role of Gender and Self-Esteem. *Personality and Individual Differences* 49:430-435.
- Mruk, Christopher J. 2006. *Self-Esteem Research, Theory, and Practice: Toward a Positive Psychology of Self-Esteem*. New York, NY springer Publishing Company, Inc.

- Nunn, Gerald D., Thomas S. Parish, and Ralph J. Worthing. 1983. Perceptions of Personal and Familial Adjustment by Children from Intact, Single-Parent, and Reconstituted Families. *Psychology in the Schools* 20:166-174.
- Parish, T.S. 1991. Ratings of self and parents by youth: Are they affected by family status, gender, and birth order? *Adolescence Spring* 26 (101):105-112.
- Parish, T.S. and S.E. Wiggle. 1985. A Longitudinal Study of the Impact of Parental Divorce on Adolescents' Evaluations of Self and Parents. *Adolescence* 20(77): 239-245.
- Parke, Mary. 2003. *Are Married Parents Really Better for Children? What Research Says about the Effects of Family Structure on Child Well-Being*. Center for Law and Social Policy. Available online at [www.clasp.org](http://www.clasp.org) (accessed July 9, 2009).
- Paxton S.J., D. Neumark-Sztainer, P. Hannan, and M.E. Eisenberg. 2006. Body Dissatisfaction Prospectively Predicts Depressive Symptoms and Low Self-Esteem in Adolescent Girls and Boys. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology* 35 (4): 539-49.
- Petrie, Trent, Christy Greenleaf, and Scott Martin. 2010. Biopsychosocial and Physical Correlates of Middle School Boys' and Girls' Body Satisfaction. *Sex Roles* 63 (9/10): 631-644.
- Phares, Vicky, Sherece Fields, M. Monica Watkins-Clay, Dimitra Kamboukos, and Sena Han. 2005. Race/Ethnicity and Self-Esteem in Families of Adolescents. *Child & Family Behavior Therapy* 27 (3): 13-26.
- Plotnick, Robert D. 1992. The Effects of Attitudes on Teen Premarital Pregnancy and Its Resolution. *American Sociological Review* 57 (6):800-811.
- Plunkett, Scott W., Carolyn S. Henry, Linda C. Robinson, Andrew Behnke, and Pedro C. Falcon. 2007. Adolescent Perceptions of Parental Behaviors, Adolescent Self-Esteem, and Adolescent Depressed Mood. *Journal of Child & Family Studies* 16: 760-772.

- Porter, J.R. and R.E. Washington. 1979. Black Identity and Self-Esteem: A Review of Studies of black Self-Concept 1968-1978. *Annual Review of Sociology* 5 (1): 53-74.
- Richman, H.J., M.L. Clark, and K.P. Brown. 1985. General and Specific Self-Esteem in Late Adolescent Students: Race x Gender x SES Effects. *Adolescence* 20:555-566.
- Robins, Richard W. and Kali H. Trzesniewski. 2005. Self-Esteem Development Across the Lifespan. *Current Directions in Psychological Science* 14(3): 158-162 JSTOR <http://www.jstor.org/stable/20183012> (accessed March 27, 2012).
- Robins, Richard W., Kali H. Trzesniewski, Jessica L. Tracy, Samuel D. Gosling, and Jeff Potter. 2002. Global Self-Esteem Across the Life Span. *Psychology and Aging* 17 (3): 423-434.
- Rosenberg, Morris. 1963. Parental Interest and Children's Self-Conceptions. *Sociometry* 26 (1):35-49 JSTOR <http://www.jstor.org/stable/27885723> (accessed July 23, 2009).
- Rosenberg, Morris. 1965. *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
- Rosenberg, Morris, Carmi Schooler, Carrie Schoenbach. 1989. Self-Esteem and Adolescent Problems: Modeling Reciprocal Effects. *American Sociological Review* 54 (6): 1004-1018. JSTOR <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2095720> (accessed July 23, 2009).
- Rosenberg, Morris, Carmi Schooler, Carrie Schoenbach and Florence Rosenberg. 1995. Global Self-Esteem and Specific Self-Esteem: Different Concepts, Different Outcomes. *American Sociological Review* 60:141-156.
- Rosenthal, David M., Chao-ying J. Peng, and James M. McMillan. 1980. Relationship of Adolescent Self-Concept to Perceptions of Parents in Single- and Two-Parent Families. *International Journal of Behavioral Development* 3(4): 441-453.
- Ross, Catherine E., and Beckett A. Broh. 2000. The Roles of Self-Esteem and the Sense of Personal Control in the Academic Achievement Process. *Sociology of Education* 73: 270-284.
- Santrock, J. W. 2004. *Life-Span Development* (9th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Santrock, J. W., & Yussen, S. R. 1984. *Children and Adolescents: A Developmental Perspective*. Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Publishers.
- Schvaneveldt, P.L., B.C. Miller, E.H. Berry. 2001. Academic Goals, Achievement, and Age at First Sexual Intercourse: Longitudinal, Bi-Directional Influences. *Adolescence* 36: 767-787.
- Searcy, Yan Dominic. 2007. Placing the Horse in Front of the Wagon: Toward a Conceptual Understanding of the Development of Self-Esteem in Children and Adolescents. *Children and Adolescent Social Work Journal* 24 (2): 121-131.
- Shields, Patricia M. 1998. Pragmatism as a Philosophy of Science: A Tool for Public Administration. *Research in Public Administration*. 4: 195-225.
- Shields, Patricia M. and Tajalli, Hassan. 2006. Intermediate Theory: The Missing Link to Successful Student Scholarship. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 12 (3): 313-334. <https://digital.library.txstate.edu/handle/10877/3967>
- Simmons, Roberta G., Leslie Brown, Diane Mitsch Bush, & Dale A. Blyth. Self-Esteem and Achievement of Black and White Adolescents. 1978. *Social Problems* 26 (1): 86-96. JSTOR <http://www.jstor.org/stable/800434> (accessed July 23, 2009).
- Simmons, Roberta G. and Florence Rosenberg. 1973. Disturbance in the Self-Image at Adolescence. *American Sociological Review* 38 (5): 553-568.
- Skaalvik, E. M., and K.A. Hagtvet. 1990. Academic Achievement and Self-Concept: An Analysis of Causal Predominance in a Developmental Perspective. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 58: 292-307.
- Spalding, Leah R. and Curtis D. Hardin. 1999. *Unconscious Unease and Self-Handicapping: Behavioral Consequences of Individual Differences in Implicit and Explicit Self-Esteem*. *Psychological Science* 10 (6): 535-539. <http://libproxy.txstate.edu/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=a9h&AN=2787361&site=ehost-live> (accessed July 29, 2009).
- Stager, Susan F., Laurie Chassin, and Richard David Young. 1983. Determinants of Self-Esteem Among Labeled Adolescents. *Social Psychology Quarterly* 46 (1): 3-10. JSTOR <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3033655> (accessed June 19, 2009).

- Steinberg, Laurence. 2001. We Know Some Things: Parent–Adolescent Relationships in Retrospect and Prospect. *Journal of Research on Adolescence* 11 (1): 1-19.
- Tashakkori, Abbas and Vaida D. Thompson. 1990. *Race Differences in Self-Perception and Locus of Control during Adolescence and Early Adulthood*. Presentation at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Boston, MA, August 10-14, 1990.
- Thomas, Melvin E., and Michael Hughes. 1986. The Continuing Significance of Race: A Study of Race, Class, and Quality of Life in America, 1972-1985. *American Sociological Review* 51(6): 830-841. JSTOR <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2095370> (accessed July 22, 2009).
- Twenge, John M., and Jennifer Crocker. 2002. Race and Self-Esteem: Meta-Analyses Comparing Whites, Blacks, Hispanics, Asians, and American Indians and Comment on Gray-Little and Hafdahl (2000). *Psychological Bulletin* 128 (3): 371-408.
- Vernon, Mary, E.L. Green, and James A. Frothingham. Teenage Pregnancy: A Prospective Study of Self-Esteem and Other Sociodemographic Factors. *Pediatrics* 72 (5): 632-635.
- Washington, Kenneth R. 1991. Self-Esteem Building: a Forgotten Dimension. *Adult Learning* 3 (1): 25-26.
- Wigfield, Allan, and Jacquelynne S. Eccles. 1994. Children's Competence Beliefs, Achievement Values, and General Self-Esteem: Change Across Elementary and Middle School. *The Journal of Early Adolescence* 14 (2): 107-138. SAGE Publications <http://jea.sagepub.com/cgi/contents/refs/14/2/107> (accessed June 15, 2009).
- Zeigler-Hill, Virgil. 2007. Contingent Self-Esteem and Race: Implications for the Black Self-Esteem Advantage. *Journal of Black Psychology* 33(1): 51-74. SAGE Publications <http://jbp.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/33/1/51> (accessed January 29, 2009)



## Appendix A: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

STATEMENT		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
1.	I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="text" value="0"/>
2.	I feel that I have a number of good qualities..	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="text" value="0"/>
3.	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="text" value="0"/>
4.	I am able to do things as well as most other people.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="text" value="0"/>
5.	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="text" value="0"/>
6.	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="text" value="0"/>
7.	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="text" value="0"/>
8.	I wish I could have more respect for myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="text" value="0"/>
9.	I certainly feel useless at times.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="text" value="0"/>
10.	At times I think I am no good at all.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="text" value="0"/>

## **Appendix B: Parent Adolescent Communication Inventory**

### **Parent-Adolescent Communication**

#### **Parent Form**

---

##### **Response Choices**

**1-Strongly Disagree 2-Moderately Disagree 3-Neither Agree nor Disagree**  
**4-Moderately Agree 5-Strongly Agree**

---

- ☐ 1. I can discuss my beliefs with my child without feeling restrained or embarrassed.
- ☐ 2. Sometimes I have trouble believing everything my child tells me.
- ☐ 3. My Child is always a good listener.
- ☐ 4. I am sometimes afraid to ask my child for what I want.
- ☐ 5. My child has a tendency to say things to me which would be better left unsaid.
- ☐ 6. My child can tell how I am feeling without asking.
- ☐ 7. I am very satisfied with how my child and I talk together.
- ☐ 8. If I were in trouble, I could tell my child.
- ☐ 9. I openly show affection to my child.
- ☐ 10. When we are having a problem, I often give my child the silent treatment.
- ☐ 11. I am careful about what I say to my child.
- ☐ 12. When talking to my child, I have a tendency to say things that would be better left unsaid.
- ☐ 13. When I ask questions, I get honest answers from my child.
- ☐ 14. My child tries to understand my point of view.
- ☐ 15. There are topics I avoid discussing with my child.
- ☐ 16. I find it easy to discuss problems with my child
- ☐ 17. It is very easy for me to express all my true feelings to my child.
- ☐ 18. My child nags/bothers me.

\_\_19. My child insults me when he/she is angry with me.

\_\_20. I don't think I can tell my child how I really feel about some things.