EFFECTS OF BRAINSTORMING COUNSELLING TECHNIQUE ON LOW SELF-ESTEEM AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN KADUNA STATE, NIGERIA.

BY

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A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND COUNSELLING, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT FOR THE MASTER DEGREE IN GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND COUNSELLING
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NOVEMBER, 2016

DECLARATION

The researcher declare that the work in this dissertation titled "EFFECTS OF BRAINSTORMING COUNSELLING TECHNIQUE ON LOW SELF-ESTEEM AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN KADUNA STATE, NIGERIA" has been performed by me in the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling under the supervision of Dr. Mustapha I. Abdullahi and Dr.(Mrs.) J. O. Bawa.

_____ _____

Zainab Lawal Date

CERTIFICATION

This dissertation entitled "EFFECTS OF BRAINSTORMING COUNSELLING TECHNIQUE ON LOW SELF-ESTEEM AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN KADUNA STATE, NIGERIA" by Zainab Lawal meets the regulations governing the award of Master Degree in Guidance and Counselling of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literacy presentation.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to Almighty God, the beginning and the end. The dissertation is also dedicated to my late mother Hajia Maryam Lawal.

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ABBREVIATIONS

RSE Scale	Rosenberg's Self Esteem Scale.
BCT	Brainstorming Counselling Technique

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms are used operationally defined as used in the study.

Self-Esteem: This represents a feeling of satisfaction that a student has in himself and in his own abilities. Confidence in his own worth or abilities with a minimum Rosenberg's self-esteem score of 10

Low Self-esteem: According to the study, an individual with Rosenberg's Self-esteem Score of less than 10 out of total score of 30 has low self esteem.

Brainstorming Counselling Technique: This is an approach involving interactive sessions between a counsellor and not more than twenty students sharing ideas regarding their general feelings with the aim of improving their self-esteem.

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effects of brainstorming counselling technique on low self-esteem of secondary school students in Kaduna North Local Government Area of Kaduna State, Nigeria. The quasi experimental, pre-test, post-test control design guided the study. Three research questions and three null hypotheses were formulated. The population of the study comprised all the JSS III students in the two randomly selected public schools in Kaduna North Local Government Area. The sample was made up of 24 respondents who were assigned to two groups: treatment group with Brainstorming Counselling Technique (BCT) and the control group. Purposive sampling was used in selecting students with low self-esteem for this research. The instrument used to measure the self-esteem of students was Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale Questionnaire developed by Rosenberg (1965), and this was given to all the students and those that scored less than ten (10) constitute the subjects for this study. Data were analysed using percentages, mean, standard deviation and t-test. The results showed that there is significant effect of BCT on low self-esteem among secondary school students exposed to brainstorming treatment compared to the control group (t= 3.78, p= 0.000); there is significant effect of BCT on self-esteem level among male and female respondents in the treatment group (t= 2.12, p= 0.00); male respondents were found to have higher self-esteem. There is significant effect of BCT on self-esteem level among respondents of different age bracket in the treatment group (t= 2.94, p = .000); respondents in upper age bracket were found to have higher self-esteem. Based on these findings, the study recommends among other things that school psychologists and counsellors adopt brainstorming counselling technique as a corrective measures in improving the self-esteem of secondary school students; it was recommended that more attention should be paid to the secondary school girls as well as the adolescents in their early teens as they are more proned to low self-esteem and that school and the classroom teachers should take a critical self-esteem assessment of the students from time to time (periodically) as they grow up with the use of RSE Scale to discover those students with self-esteem problems promptly and possibly apply brainstorming technique to solve their problems.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

A healthy sense of self can make a profound difference in how an individual feels and functions. Self-esteem is the basic sense of worth or value. Self-esteem means self-respect, a sense of self-worth, a feeling of basic goodness about oneself. Low self-esteem can mean constant self-doubt and self-criticism, social anxiety and isolation, suppressed anger, loneliness, and even shame. The importance of finding a way to improve self esteem in adolescents cannot be over emphasized considering the fact that they are the future leaders of this country and that self-esteem corresponds with emotional and psychological development, which can affect an adolescent in a positive or negative way. An important factor in handling different challenges encountered in adolescence is a positive self-concept and high self-esteem. Hamarta (2004) stated that self esteem is an important factor in directing behavior throughout the various aspects of life.

A number of emotional problems and antisocial behaviours are being found among adolescents in secondary schools in Nigeria and reported daily in mass media. Such emotional and behavioural problems ranges from dysphoric emotions, anxiety, depression, loneliness, suicidal tendencies, unsafe sex, teenage pregnancy, bullying, aggression, eating disorders, criminal behaviours, abuse of alcohol and other drugs, and membership in deviant groups. These emotional problems and antisocial behaviours have been closely linked with low self esteem. Delinquent behavior in psychological term is an ego defense against external threats to self esteem (Freud, 1946). Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins & Caspi (2005) found a robust relationship between low self esteem and aggression, antisocial behavior and delinquency.

Research on adolescent psychological and social development demonstrates that self-esteem plays a vital role in the well-being of young people by mediating the relations between stress and psychological adjustment (Kristjansson, Sigfusdottir, & Allegrante 2001). As a social psychological construct, self-esteem is attractive because researchers have conceptualized it as an influential predictor of relevant outcomes, such as academic achievement (Marsh, 2000) and exercise behavior (Hagger, 2008). In addition, self-esteem has also been treated as an important outcome due to its close relation with psychological well-being (Marsh, 1990). Self-esteem is a term used to reflect someone's overall emotional evaluation of his or her own worth. It is a judgment of oneself as well as an attitude toward the self. Smith and Mackie (2007) defined self-esteem as the positive or negative evaluations of the self.

Low self esteem is a great challenge to adolescents in Nigeria and elsewhere because adolescence is a period in the life of a person when self esteem is known to fluctuate significantly. According to Jones & Meredith (2000), it is estimated that up to a half of adolescents will struggle with low self esteem, many of these occur during the early teen years. It is generally considered to be a time of increased mental problems and decreased psychological well-being and self-esteem (Mental Health Foundation, 1999; Jones & Meredith, 2000).

Some studies on various methods of improving self esteem have reported favorable outcome with cognitive behavior therapy, group narrative therapy, adventure therapy and animal assisted play therapy. However, there is paucity of research studies focused on the use of brainstorming counseling technique in improving self esteem. Hence, the rationale of this research is to investigate the effect of brainstorming counseling technique on self esteem among secondary school students.

One way by which school counselors can help promote high self esteem among adolescents in secondary school may be through the use of brainstorming counseling technique for those adolescents observed to manifest features of low self esteem. Brainstorming is a group creativity technique used to generate a list of ideas to solve a specific problem. In brainstorming technique, a problem is posed and students are encouraged to find as many different solutions or answers as possible. The inventor of brainstorming, Osborn (1957) claimed that groups who brainstormed could produce solutions that were superior to the solutions that would have been obtained if each of their members had worked alone.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The issue of low self esteem among secondary school students is a matter of concern to all stakeholders in the Nigerian secondary schools. The counselors, teachers and parents have expressed the need to examine the self esteem of adolescents with a view to addressing the problems of low self esteem. Youth with high self-esteem consider themselves worthy and equal to others. Those with low self-esteem have feelings of incompetence, worthlessness and a lack of confidence. It can thus severely lower the quality of someone's life in all its forms. It also forms a base by which someone harbors negative and destructive tendencies and extreme emotions. These could lead to depression, suicidal tendencies, alcohol and drug abuse, violence, mental and physical disorders and other forms of self-destructive behavior.

In Nigeria, little attention is being paid to the effects of low self esteem, as mentioned above, on the psychological and emotional state of adolescents passing through various secondary schools. It is the duty of school counselors to help children who already form a negative view of themselves when they begin school to reverse this opinion, and to create in them a more positive opinion of themselves. The promotion of

healthy self esteem through the use of counseling techniques will help solve most of the problems associated with low self esteem such as depression, suicidal tendencies, alcohol and drug abuse, violence, mental and physical disorders.

However, an examination of the literature on low self esteem in adolescents revealed that very little research has been conducted on the subject in Nigeria. This state of affairs limits the effort of Nigerian counselors towards helping the development of positive self esteem in Nigerian students, because sufficient local research knowledge is an important requirement if Nigerian counselors are to effectively help the development and promotion of self esteem in Nigerian students. This study, therefore, investigated the effect of brainstorming technique on self esteem among secondary school adolescents. Brainstorming technique is the process of generating ideas in a group situation based on the principles of suspending judgment, a principle which scientific research has proved to be highly productive in individual effort as well as in group. This study therefore intends to find out the effects of brainstorming counselling technique on self esteem among secondary school students.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are:

1. To find out the effects of brainstorming technique on low self esteem among secondary school students.
2. To examine the effects of brainstorming technique on low self esteem level among males and females secondary school students.
3. To examine the effects of brainstorming technique on low self esteem level among secondary school students of different age bracket.

1.4 Research Questions

The research questions of the study are:

1. What is the effects of brainstorming technique on low self esteem among secondary school students.
2. What is the effects of brainstorming technique on low self esteem level among males and females secondary school students.
3. What is the effects of brainstorming technique on low self esteem level among secondary school students of different age bracket.

1.5 Hypotheses

The hypotheses of the study are:

1. There is no significant effect of brainstorming counselling technique on low self esteem among secondary school students.
2. There is no significant effect of brainstorming counselling technique on low self esteem level among male and female secondary school students.
3. There is no significant effect of brainstorming counselling technique on low self esteem level among secondary school students of different age bracket.

1.6 Basic Assumptions

The following assumptions are made:

1. Brainstorming technique may improve self esteem of students in secondary schools.
2. The effect of Brainstorming technique on low self esteem of students in secondary school may be sex differentiated.
3. The effect of Brainstorming technique on low self esteem of students in secondary school may be age differentiated. (between upper & lower Age bracket)

1.7 Significance of the study

The findings from this study will be of benefits to the following; educational authorities at all levels, school counsellors and psychologists, parents/guardians, country and students' researchers. It is hope therefore; that:

The findings derived from this study will draw the attention of educational policy-makers at the federal, state and local level on need to appreciate the brainstorming procedure as a powerful and valuable addition to any learning program. Since brainstorming is a group procedure, school counsellors, psychologists and teachers can respond to the necessity of helping groups work better together, jointly create solutions to complex problems, and create common support for implementation of those ideas. Teachers can use the information presented here to design effective brainstorming sessions.

The research findings will be of benefit to the school, as it will assist the school to prepare students to become a comfortable part of the general population, easily adjusting to the surroundings. In addition, the school should take a critical self-esteem assessment of those students with records of delinquent behaviors and emotional problems and apply appropriate counselling technique to solve their problems.

The study findings will also be of great importance to the parents. It is a known fact that, the children grow up from home before they start school. Therefore, it is very vital for parents to recognize the need to promote self-esteem of the children even before they start school.

This study will be of benefit to the country as a whole, because the finding will expose some of the factors which are mainly responsible to low self-esteem and poor academic performance of students in the schools. This will gear up all the stakeholders

not only in education sector but in all other sectors of the country to have clear understanding and awareness about the dangers inherent in low self-esteem of students.

1.8 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

The study covered the effects of brainstorming counselling technique on low self-esteem of secondary school students in Kaduna North Local Government Area of Kaduna State, Nigeria. The study was limited to two public Secondary Schools within Kaduna North Local Government Area. One of the two schools would be used for treatment while the other school for the control. The study was also limited to only JSS III students as subjects. The study was delimited to Private Secondary Schools within Kaduna North Local Government Area as they are not included in this study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature related to this study. It focuses on the definition of self esteem, the conceptual framework of self esteem and the theoretical framework that relates to self esteem. It also elaborates on brainstorming as a counselling technique in improving self esteem. It concludes with the review of some earlier studies related to this investigation and summary.

2.2 Conceptual Framework

2.2.1 The Self

The self is a set of ideas, attitudes and appraisals pertaining to one's own person (Jersild, 2001). Generally speaking, the self is considered as the central aspect of personality. It is formed from the experiences woven in everyday life. Cooley (2002) said that the self is the inferences one draws about oneself from the ways others react. Such notion was expanded by Mead (2004) who described that the process of acquiring self-knowledge is through interaction with others. Their suggestions are echoed by Rogers (1951) indicating that the self is a social product which built out of interpersonal relationship.

There is a general agreement among the psychologists that the self is a learned structure growing mainly from comments made by other people and from inferences out of their experience at home, school and in other social groups. Therefore, people with whom one interacts exert a pervasive influence on the formation of the self.

Another notable theory of the self is that the maintenance and enhancement of the perceived self is the motive behind all the behaviors (Rogers, 1951; Snygg and

Combs, 2009). Simply speaking, a great deal of behavior is concerned with maintaining and enhancing the established pattern of the self. In this sense, a person will learn only those things which are involved in the maintenance and enhancement of the self as well as respond favorably to situations which permit him to express and explore his potentials. Conversely, he will resist all attempts which threaten his perception of self (Anderson, 1965).

The need to have positive feelings towards the self is important for all people, particularly the adolescent. Rice (1978) ventures the opinion that self-esteem is the basic condition to the growth of adolescent.

2.2.2 Rosenberg's Concept of the Self

Rosenberg viewed the self as made up of two elements "identity" which represents cognitive variables, and "self-esteem" representing affective variables. The cognitive variable, or "identity," involves perceiving and interpreting meaning. He referred to "self-esteem" as the subjective life of the individual, largely one's thoughts, feelings, and behavior. Like Nathaniel Branden, he determined that self-esteem was made up of two components: 1) feelings of self-worth based primarily on reflected appraisals, and 2) feelings of efficacy based on observations of the effects of one's own actions. One's social behavior is then a product of the two jointly operating cognitive and affective variables.

The cognitive modality of self consists of multiple identities, with as many identities as the person holds distinct roles in networks of social relationships. One's self emerges from social interaction and reflects the character and structure of the society in which the interaction occurs, consisting of a highly differentiated, complex system of multiple parts role relationships, social networks, groups, organizations, institutions, communities all bearing on the nature of the self.

2.2.3 Self Concept and Self Esteem

In recent years, research on self-concept and self-esteem has been gaining relevance within the context of the identification of protective factors against psychological problems. Self-concept and self-esteem are considered to be linked to personal well being, mental health, professional success, social relationships and academic performance (Garaigordobil, Perez, & Mozaz, 2008).

Self-concept refers to the totality of cognitive beliefs that people have about themselves; it is everything that is known about the self, and includes things such as name, race, likes, dislikes, beliefs, values, and appearance descriptions, such as height and weight. By contrast, self-esteem is the emotional response that people experience as they contemplate and evaluate different things about themselves.

Self-esteem is the evaluative aspect of the self-concept that corresponds to an overall view of the self as worthy or unworthy (Baumeister, 2008).

This is embodied in Coppersmith's (2007) classic definition of self-esteem. The evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself: it expresses an attitude of approval and indicates the extent to which an individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a personal judgment of the worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds towards himself". Thus, self-esteem is an attitude about the self and is related to personal beliefs about skills, abilities, social relationships, and future outcomes.

Although self-esteem is related to the self-concept, it is possible for people to believe objectively positive things (such as acknowledging skills in academics, athletics, or arts), but continue to not really like themselves. Conversely, it is possible for people to like themselves, and therefore hold high self-esteem, in spite of their

lacking any objective indicators that support such positive self views. Although influenced by the contents of the self-concept, self-esteem is not the same thing. Self-esteem is only one component of the self-concept. Besides self-esteem, self-efficacy or mastery, and self-identities are important parts of the self-concept.

2.2.4 The Construct of Self Esteem

The construct of self-esteem (or self-concept) dates back to William James in the late 19th century. In his work, principles of psychology (1890), James studied the splitting of our global self, into knower, self and known self. According to James, from this splitting which we are all more or less aware of, self-esteem is born.

In the mid-20th century, Phenomenology and humanistic psychotherapy made self-esteem gain prominence again, and it took a central role in personal self actualization and in the treatment of psychic disorders.

2.2.5 Three Ways the Term Self-Esteem is Used

1. **Global Self-Esteem (Trait Self-Esteem)**: Sometimes self-esteem is used to refer to a personality variable that represents the way people generally feel about themselves. Researchers call this form of self-esteem, global self-esteem or trait self-esteem, as it is relatively enduring across time and situations. Depictions of global self-esteem range widely. Some researchers take a cognitive approach, and assume that global self-esteem is a decision people make about their worth as a person (Coppersmith, 2007; Crocker & Park, 2004; Crocker & Wolfe, 2001). Others emphasize emotional processes, and define global self-esteem as a feeling of affection for oneself that is not derived from rational, judgmental processes (Brown, 2003, 2008; Brown & Marshall, 2001, 2002, 2006). However it is defined, global self-esteem has been shown to be stable throughout

adulthood, with a probable genetic component related to temperament and neuroticism (Neiss, Sedikides, & Stevenson, 2002).

2. **Feelings of Self-Worth (State Self-Esteem)**: Self-esteem is also used to refer to self-evaluative emotion reactions to valence events. This is what people mean when they talk about experiences that "threaten self-esteem" or "boost self-esteem." For example, a person might say her self-esteem was sky-high after getting a big promotion or a person might say his self-esteem plummeted after a divorce. Following James (1890), these self-evaluative emotional reactions are referred to as feelings of self-worth. Feeling proud or pleased with ourselves (on the positive side), or humiliated and ashamed of ourselves (on the negative side) are examples of what is meant as feelings of self-worth. Many researchers use the term state self-esteem to describe momentary emotional reactions to positive and negative events and trait self-esteem to refer to the way people generally feel about themselves (Heatherton & Polivy, 2001; Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 2005; McFarland & Ross, 2002; Pyszczynski & Cox, 2004). These terms connote an equivalency between the two constructs, implying that the essential difference is that global self-esteem persists while feelings of self-worth are temporary.

3. **Self-Evaluations (Domain Specific Self-Esteem)**: Finally, self-esteem is used to refer to the way people evaluate or appraise their physical attributes, abilities, and personality characteristics. For example, a person who doubts his ability in school may be said to have low academi*c* self-esteem and a person who thinks she is good at sports may be said to have high athletic self-esteem.

From this perspective, there are three major components: performance self-esteem, social self-esteem, and physical self-esteem (Heatherton & Polivy, 2001). Each of these components, in turn, can be broken down into smaller and smaller subcomponents. Performance self-esteem refers to one's sense of general competence and includes intellectual abilities, school performance, self-regulatory capacities, self-confidence, efficacy, and agency. People who are high in performance self-esteem believe that they are smart and capable. Social self-esteem refers to how people believe others perceive them. Note that it is perception rather than reality that is most critical. If people believe that others, especially significant others, value and respect them, they will experience high social self-esteem. This occurs even if others truly hold them in contempt. People who are low in social self esteem often experience social anxiety and are high in public self-consciousness.

They are highly attentive to their image and they worry about how others view them. Finally, physical self-esteem refers to how people view their physical bodies, and includes such things as athletic skills, physical attractiveness, body image, as well as physical stigmas and feelings about race and ethnicity.

2.2.6 Relations among the Three Constructs

Although conceptually distinct, the three constructs are highly correlated. High self-esteem people evaluate themselves more positively and experience higher feelings of self-worth than do low self-esteem people (Brown, 2008). These associations have led researchers to consider how these constructs are related.

a. **A Cognitive (Bottom-Up) Model of Self- Esteem**: Most researchers in personality and social psychology assume that these constructs are related in a bottom-up fashion. As shown in Figure 1, the bottom-up model holds that evaluative feedback (success or failure, interpersonal acceptance or rejection),

influences self-evaluations, and those self-evaluations determine feelings of self-worth and global self-esteem. This is referred to as a bottom-up model because it assumes that global self-esteem is based on more elemental beliefs about one's particular qualities. If you think you are attractive, and if you think you are intelligent, and if you think you are popular, then you will have high self-esteem.

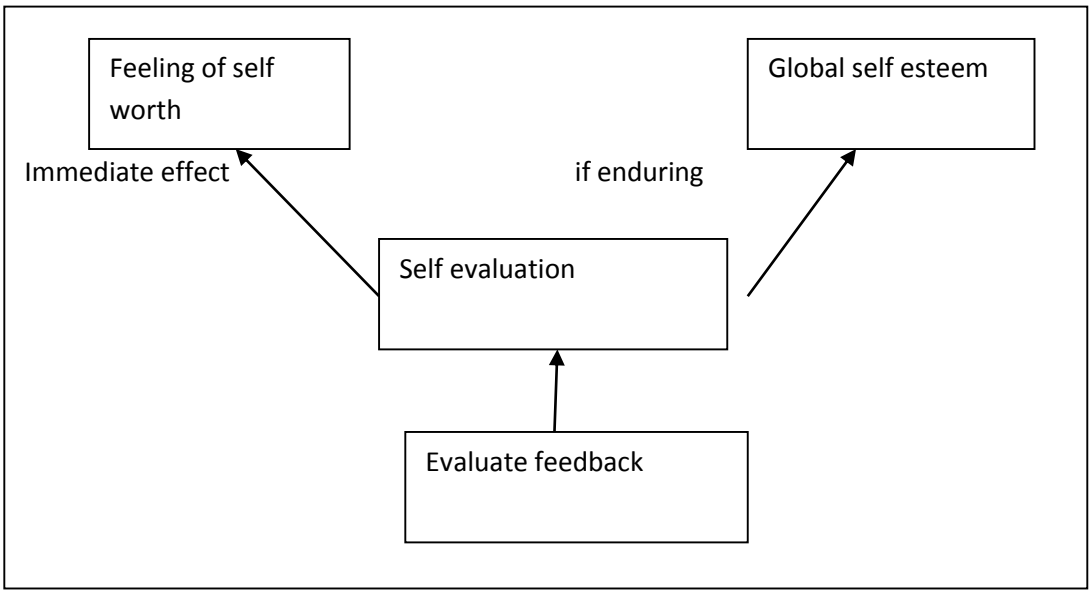


Figure 1:: A Cognitive (Bottom-Up) Model of Self-Esteem Formation and Functioning . Brown J.D. & Marshall, M.A. (2006). In M. Kernis(Ed).

A variant on this approach assumes that not all self-evaluations influence self-esteem. Self-evaluations in domains of high personal importance exert a strong effect on self-esteem, but self-evaluations in domains of low personal importance do not. For example, it has been suggested that some people (typically men) base their self-esteem on their perceived competence, whereas other people (usually women) base their self-esteem on their social skills (Josephs, Markus, & Tafarodi, 2005).

The bottom-up model makes an additional assumption. Because it assumes that self-evaluations underlie global self-esteem, the model assumes that global self-esteem

effects are due to underlying self-evaluations. For example, if we find that high self-esteem people persist longer after failure than do low self-esteem people, it must be because high self-esteem have more confidence in their ability to succeed (Blaine & Crocker, 2003). Several important social psychological theories, including Tesser's self-evaluation maintenance model (Tesser, 1988) and Steele's self-affirmation theory (Steele, Spencer & Lynch 1993) adopt this assumption. Some have even gone so far as to suggest that global self-esteem is of little value and that researchers should concentrate instead on self-evaluations (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001; Marsh, 2000).

b. **An Affective (Top-Down) Model of Self- Esteem**: Affective models offer an alternative way to think about the origins and function of self-esteem. According to this more top-down approach, self-esteem develops early in life in response to temperamental and relational factors and, once formed, influences self-evaluations and feelings of self-worth (Brown, 2003, 2008; Brown, Dutton, & Cook, 2001; Brown & Marshall, 2001, 2002; Deci & Ryan, 2005). Figure 2 depicts a schematic drawing of the model. The lack of an arrow between global self-esteem and evaluative feedback signifies that evaluative feedback does not influence global self-esteem. Instead, global self-esteem and evaluative feedback combine to influence self-evaluations and feelings of self-worth (see right hand side of Figure 2).

This interactive effect is particularly pronounced when people confront negative feedback, such as failure in the achievement domain or interpersonal rejection, when low self-esteem people encounter negative feedback, their self-evaluations become more negative and their feelings of self-worth fall. When high self-esteem people encounter negative feedback, they maintain their high self-evaluations and protect or

quickly restore their feelings of self-worth. This is the primary advantage of having high self-esteem: It allows you to fail without feeling bad about yourself.

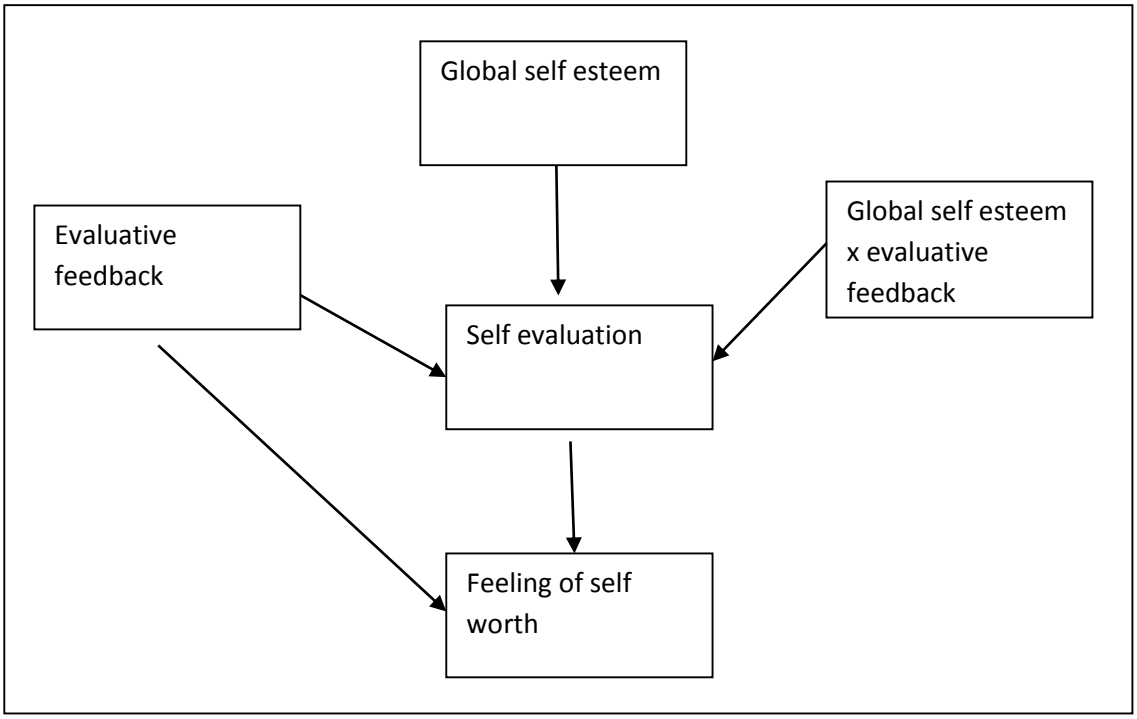


Figure 2: An Affective (Top-Down) Model of Self-Esteem Formation and Functioning. Brown J.D. & Marshall, M.A. (2006). In M. Kernis(Ed).

2.2.7 Implicit, Explicit, Narcissism, and Threatened Egotism

Implicit self-esteem refers to a person's disposition to evaluate themselves positively or negatively in a spontaneous, automatic, or unconscious manner. It contrasts with explicit self-esteem, which entails more conscious and reflective self-evaluation. Both explicit self-esteem and implicit self-esteem are subtypes of self-esteem proper.

Narcissism is a disposition people may have that represents an excessive love for one's self. It is characterized by an inflated view of self-worth. Individuals' who score high on Narcissism measures, Robert Raskin's 40 Item True or False Test, would likely select true to such statements as "If I ruled the world, it would be a much better place." There is only a moderate correlation between narcissism and self-esteem; that

is to say that an individual can have high self-esteem but low narcissism or can be a conceited, obnoxious person and score high self-esteem and high narcissism. Threatened Egotism is characterized as a response to criticism that threatens the ego of narcissists; they often react in a hostile and aggressive manner.

2.2.8 Self Esteem Development

Contemporary belief is that self-esteem is routed in early childhood with a foundation of trust, unconditional love and security, impacted on as life progresses by a combination of positive and negative evaluations. Stanley Coppersmith's (cited in Seligman, 2006) self evaluation scale measured self-esteem in children and then assessed the parent's child rearing practices for those children with high self-esteem and concluded that the origins of higher self-esteem lay in clear rules and limits enforced by the parents.

Experiences in a person's life are a major source of self-esteem development. The positive or negative life experiences one has, creates attitudes toward the self which can be favorable and develop positive feelings of self-worth, or can be unfavorable and develop negative feelings of self-worth. In the early years of a child's life, parents are the most significant influence on self-esteem and the main source of positive and/or negative experiences a child will have. The emphasis of unconditional love, in parenting how-to books, represents the importance of a child developing a stable sense of being cared for and respected. These feelings translate into later effects of self-esteem as the child grows older.

During the school years, academic achievement is a significant contributor to self-esteem development. A student consistently achieving success or consistently failing strongly affects their individual self-esteem. Social experiences are another important contributor. As children go through school they begin to understand and

recognize differences between themselves and their classmates. Using social comparisons, children assess whether they did better or worse than classmates in different activities. These comparisons play an important role in shaping the child's self-esteem and influence the positive or negative feelings they have about themselves (Eaton, Wardstruthers & Santelli 2006).

As children go through adolescence peer influence becomes much more important, as adolescents make appraisals of themselves based on their relationships with close friends. Successful relationships among friends are very important to the development of high self-esteem for children. Social acceptance brings about confidence and produces high self-esteem, whereas rejection from peers and loneliness brings about self-doubts and produces low self-esteem.

Parenting style can also play a crucial role in self-esteem development. Students in elementary school who have high self-esteem tend to have parents who are caring, supportive adults who set clear standards for their child and allow them to voice their opinion in decision making. Although studies thus far have reported only a correlation of warm, supportive parenting styles and children having high self-esteem it could easily be thought of as having some causal effect in self-esteem development.

Childhood experiences that contribute to healthy self-esteem include being listened to, being spoken to respectfully, receiving appropriate attention and affection and having accomplishments recognized and mistakes or failures acknowledged and accepted. Experiences that contribute to low self-esteem include being harshly criticized, being physically, sexually or emotionally abused, being ignored, ridiculed or teased or being expected to be "perfect" all the time.

Self-esteem requires "a self-evaluation process in which individuals compare their description of themselves as they are (Real Self) with their description of

themselves as they would like to become (Ideal Self) and as they fear becoming (Dreaded Self)." Self-esteem depends on living up to one's ideals. Self-evaluation is important because the subject is able to assess what they know, what they do not know and what they would like to know. They begin to recognize their own strengths and weaknesses, and will be able to set goals that they know they can attain with the new knowledge they have about themselves.

2.2.9 Self Esteem Maintenance

Self-esteem maintenance is not a new concept and much research has been done using self-esteem maintenance as a means to explain certain behaviors. Previous research has shown that expectancies regarding success and failure influence students' attributions in achievement settings. Students, who attributed poor performance to external factors, did so to maintain their high levels of self-esteem (Griffin & Tversky 2002).

Additional research has shown the existence of self-esteem maintenance mechanisms used by high esteem individuals to maintain their level of self-esteem (Steele, 1988; Tesser, 1988). High self-esteem individuals have been shown to rationalize esteem threatening decisions much better than those with low self-esteem (Steele, Spencer & Lynch 1993). This is primarily due to the fact that high self-esteem individuals have more favorable self-concepts with which to affirm. Within the context of organizations, self-esteem maintenance plays a role in human behavior. Pierce and Gardner (2004) concluded that, self-esteem, both global and organization-based (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 2009) drives an individual's direction and motivation of human behavior, particularly, self-esteem maintenance.

An individual's propensity to engage in self-esteem maintenance is primarily driven by one's desired image. Each individual conceptualizes a desired image –

someone who possesses all the traits held in high regard by that individual. If a gap exists between one's self-concept and desired image and certain actions will be taken to bring an individual closer to that desired image. However, if the outcome of certain scenarios leads to a larger gap between the self-concept and desired image, then an individual will have a high propensity to engage in self-esteem maintenance (Eliza, 1989).

Moreover, self-esteem is also regarded as a basic and fundamental human need (Baumeister, Heatherton & Tice, 2003; Hater, 2003; Crocker & Park, 2004). This need for self-esteem has sparked some researchers to believe that individuals actively pursue self-esteem to maintain and project a positive self-image to others (Crocker & Park, 2004; Harter, 2003; Pyszczynski et al., 2004; Baumeister, 2008).

Furthermore, it is believed that the pursuit of self-esteem lies in an individual's need to manage their anxieties and fears (Greenberg, Solomon, Pyszczynski, Rosenblatt, Burling, & Lyon, 2002; Crocker & Park, 2004). Therefore, when an individual's self-worth is attacked (e.g. social exclusion), individuals will strive to maintain his/her self-esteem in order to protect themselves from these attacks.

2.3 Importance of Self-esteem, and Relationships between Self-esteem and Gender, and Delinquent Behaviours.

2.3.1 Importance of self esteem

Abraham Maslow states that psychological health is not possible unless the essential core of the person is fundamentally accepted, loved and respected by others and by her or his self. Self-esteem allows people to face life with more confidence, benevolence and optimism, and thus easily reach their goals and self-actualize. It allows a person to be more ambitious, with respect to what they can experience emotionally, creatively and spiritually.

To develop self-esteem is to increase the capacity to be happy; self-esteem may make people convinced they deserve happiness. Understanding this is fundamental, and universally beneficial, since the development of positive self-esteem increases the capacity to treat other people with respect, benevolence and goodwill, thus favoring rich interpersonal relationships and avoiding destructive ones. For Erich Fromm, love of others and love for ourselves are not alternatives. On the contrary, an attitude of love toward themselves will be found in all those who are capable of loving others. Self-esteem allows creativity at the workplace, and is especially critical condition for teaching professions.

José-Vicente (1997) claims that the importance of self-esteem is obvious as a lack of self-esteem is, he says, not a loss of esteem from others, but self-rejection. José-Vicente claims that this corresponds to Major depressive disorder. Freud also claimed that the depressive has suffered "an extraordinary diminution in his self-regard, an impoverishment of his ego on a grand scale....He has lost his self-respect".

World Health Organization recommends in "Preventing Suicide" published in 2000 that strengthening students' self-esteem is important to protect children and adolescents against mental distress and despondency, enabling them to cope adequately with difficult and stressful life situations.

Other than increased happiness, higher self-esteem is also known to be correlated with a better ability to cope with stress and a higher likeliness that the individual takes on difficult tasks relative to those with low self-esteem. From the late 1970s to the early 1990s many Americans assumed as a matter of course that students' self-esteem acted as a critical factor in the grades that they earn in school, in their relationships with their peers, and in their later success in life. Under this assumption,

some American groups created programs which aimed to increase the self-esteem of students.

According to Jennifer, Sanel, Laura and Kamini (2004), high self-esteem correlates highly with self-reported happiness; whether this is a causal relationship has not been established. The relationship between self-esteem and life satisfaction is stronger in individualistic cultures. Additionally, self-esteem has been found to be related to forgiveness in close relationships, in that people with high self-esteem will be more forgiving than people with low self-esteem (Crocker & Park, 2004).

2.3.2 Self Esteem and Delinquent Behaviours

The motive of all behaviour is to maintain and enhance the self. So it is with this sense that delinquent behaviour, particularly disruptive behaviour in school, is a defense against external threats in order to maintain and enhance self-esteem. According to Freud (1946), delinquent behaviour is an ego defense against the external forces that threaten a young person's self-esteem.

The threats here particularly refer to the experiences of school failure in terms of scholastic achievement and punishment from school authorities. It seems that disruptive behaviour is appropriate as a way of coping with derogated self-esteem in school where the students experience the threats.

There is mounting evidence supporting the theory that self-esteem is causally related to delinquent/disruptive behaviour. A study by Greenwald and Farnham (2000) found that a significant motivation for delinquent behaviour is to defend against a degenerated self–esteem. This study seems to give support to the earlier studies by Reckless, Dinitz and Murrary (2006) who indicate that it is the non delinquent's positive self - evaluation that protects him from delinquency, whereas the unfavorable concept of the delinquent serves as an impulse of antisocial behaviour. Another study

by Mosley and Sonnet (2002) shows similar result where the decrease in disruptive behaviour of the boys in the treatment group was the result of their improvement in self - esteem.

On the other hand, as the self esteem is largely nurtured through constant feedback from others, thus it is understandable that those students who behave disruptively with poor academic performance would receive limited positive feedback from parents and teachers which in turn maintain their low self -esteem. In fact, these students probably need respect and positive feedback the most.

However, the school personnel tend to focus on negative attributes, reinforcing the degenerated self-esteem of disruptive students. At the same time, parents of disruptive students have more negative attitudes towards these particular children. This typical contact with adults is supported by Stuart's study (2001) which indicates that parent - child interactions in families that have produced problematic behaviour are less positive than interactions in families of normal adolescent. When being bombarded by negative attitudes from parents and teachers, the self-esteem of disruptive students will consequently be lowered.

2.3.3 Gender Differences in Self-Esteem

A number of studies suggest that boys and girls diverge in their primary source of self-esteem, with girls being more influenced by relationships and boys being more influenced by objective success. Stein, Newcomb, and Bentler (2002) examined participants in an eight-year study of adolescent development. During adolescence, an agentic orientation predicted heightened self-esteem for males but not for females, whereas a communal orientation predicted heightened self-esteem for females but not for males.

Men and women show this same pattern. Josephs, Markus, and Tafarodi (2005) exposed men and women to false feedback indicating that they had deficits either on a performance dimension (e.g., competition, individual thinking) or on a social dimension (e.g., nurturance, interpersonal integration). Consistent with predictions, men high in self-esteem enhanced their estimates at being able to engage successfully in future performance behaviors, whereas women high in self-esteem enhanced their estimates at being able to engage successfully in future social behaviors. Overall, then, it appears that males gain self-esteem from getting ahead whereas females gain self-esteem from getting along.

In terms of another salient gender difference in feelings about the self across the lifespan, women tend to have lower body image satisfaction than men. Women are more likely than men to evaluate specific body features negatively, to attempt weight loss, to report anxiety about the evaluation of their physical appearance, and to have cosmetic surgery (Heatherton, 2001). Body image dissatisfaction among women usually is related to perceiving oneself to be overweight.

Believing oneself to be overweight, whether one is or is not, is closely related to body image dissatisfaction. Beginning in early adolescence, women compare their body shape and weight with their beliefs about cultural ideals. A discrepancy from the ideal often motivates people to undertake dieting to achieve a more attractive body size. Dieting is rarely successful, with fewer than 1% of individuals able to maintain weight loss over five years. Repeated failures may exacerbate body image dissatisfaction and low self-esteem (Heatherton & Polivy, 2002).

Women with perfectionistic tendencies and low self-esteem are particularly affected by dissatisfaction, such that these personality traits in combination have been linked to increased bulimic symptoms (Vohs, Bardone, Joiner, Abramson, &

Heatherton, 2009). Black women are less likely to consider themselves obese and are more satisfied with their weight than are White women despite the fact that Black women are twice as likely to be obese. These women also rate large Black body shapes more positively than do White women rating large White body shapes (Hebl & Heatherton, 2008). In contrast to women, men are more likely view their bodies as instruments of action and derive self-esteem from self-perceived physical strength (Franzoi, 2005). Therefore, in terms of assessing personal feelings about body-esteem issues, researchers need to be sensitive to the differential determinants of body image for women and men.

2.3.4 Causes of Low Self Esteem

Our esteem develops from our experiences and relationships from birth. Negative experiences and troubled relationships lower it, and good experiences and strong bonds raise it. No single event or person determines your level of self-esteem; it develops over time and can change with time and events.

The foundations are laid in childhood. The feeling that we are valued and understood, and that our worries can be soothed, gives us an internal picture of our own worth and the feeling that the world is a safe enough place. This in turn gives us a default position which allows us to be realistic about what we can manage, without damaging ourselves. We can recognise stress and destructive relationships as being uncomfortable and seek to put things right. We can learn to trust our instincts and they will help us protect ourselves. Early nurturing teaches us to nurture ourselves and develop a resilience to deal with life's knocks and blows and protect ourselves from encountering too many (Martin, Marsh, Mclnerney, Green & Dowson, 2007).

Low self-esteem is caused by certain factors depending on the background and status of the person, his surroundings, age, association with the outside world and varied experiences in childhood and early adolescence. These are some of the causes of low self-esteem.

Child Abuse and Punishments: Most people with low self-esteem have a history of both, physical and mental abuse during their childhood. Abuse of any kind gives a child the impression that he is simply a thing to be used and punished and that in some way he deserves it. The effects of abuse are deep-rooted and extremely difficult to treat. The most likely culprits of child abuse are family friends, relatives, neighbors, strangers and foster/step parents (Martin, Marsh, Mclnerney, Green & Dowson, 2007).

i. **Negligence**: Every child requires love, attention, praise and affection while growing up so that he can develop a positive sense of self. But when children are brought up in conditions where love and affection is lacking and their emotional and/or physical needs are not fulfilled, they feel abandoned, insecure and insignificant. They find it very difficult to trust people, fearing that they will be abandoned again. This then hampers their ability to mix with others and leads to a social traits which could ultimately lead to low self-esteem (Leary, 1999).

ii. **Excessive Criticism**: When a child is constantly reminded that he is no-good, it results in the child feeling inadequate and he loses his self-confidence. Such events create a feeling of worthlessness, making them pessimistic and hesitant from doing anything positive (Leary, 1999).

iii. **Comparison with Others**: Being compared to others (especially siblings) and constantly being told that they are not as good as them, or asked to be 'more like them' can cause a child to lose confidence in his abilities.

iv. **Expectations**: Some parents may have certain expectations from their child (realistic or otherwise). If a child is not able to fulfill those, he gets the feeling of having let down his parents. It usually happens in case of parents who tend to influence a child with the reflection of their unfulfilled dreams (Martin, Marsh, Mclnerney, Green & Dowson, 2007).

v. **Physical Appearance**: Since one's face is the first thing that leads to forming an impression, many people with a not so attractive physical appearance may tend to feel inferior when compared to a better looking person. Some may then try and isolate themselves from an active social life and retreat into a shell.

vi. **Peer Pressure and Bullying**: Peer pressure can lead to a lot of internal battles within a person, especially when it is an activity that he does not want to indulge in. This can lead to stress and anxiety of standing up to a group and/or cause for a falling out with them, thus giving him a sense of failure. Similarly, facing bullying is similar to abuse and can lead to the same effects as that of abuse.

vii. **Financial and Social Position**: Belonging to the lower strata of society in terms of financial or social position can lead to an inferiority complex in a person. This in especially true if his peers enjoy a better standing in society. This might cause the person to develop a low self-image and overtime, a lowered self-esteem.

viii. **Achievements**: People work to achieve success in their life and when they fail after working hard, they treat failure as the ultimate truth which results in loss of self-esteem.

ix. **Unemployment**: A person who is unemployed may end up feeling helpless and worthless. The failure to provide for their family can be very daunting and can lead to low self-esteem.

x. **Betrayal**: Betrayal in a romantic relationship can lead to a person doubting himself and his self-worth. He might feel that there is something lacking in him and that is why the person has left and gone.

xi. **Ill-health and Trauma**: Ill-health due to trauma (or otherwise) can take a toll on a person (especially if it is prolonged and causes them to be isolated from others). If the quality of life is compromised then it might lead to them feeling down in all aspects of their life and lead to a lowered self-esteem.

xii. **Negative Experiences**: Some low self-esteem issues are caused due to negative experiences. Children tend to take in the negativity around them and this affects their sense of self. Similarly, some adults are easily affected by the negative experiences that they go through and may develop a low self-esteem (Martin, Marsh, Mclnerney, Green & Dowson, 2007).

2.3.5 Characteristics of High and Low Self-Esteem

People with a healthy level of self-esteem:

1. Firmly believe in certain values and principles, and are ready to defend them even when finding opposition, feeling secure enough to modify them in light of experience.
2. Are able to act according to what they think to be the best choice, trusting their own judgment, and not feeling guilty when others do not like their choice.
3. Do not lose time worrying excessively about what happened in the past, nor about what could happen in the future. They learn from the past and plan for the future, but live in the present intensely.
4. Fully trust in their capacity to solve problems, not hesitating after failures and difficulties. They ask others for help when they need it.

5. Consider themselves equal in dignity to others, rather than inferior or superior, while accepting differences in certain talents, personal prestige or financial standing.
6. Take for granted that they are an interesting and valuable person for others, at least for those with whom they have a friendship.
7. Resist manipulation; collaborate with others only if it seems appropriate and convenient.
8. Admit and accept different internal feelings and drives, either positive or negative, revealing those drives to others only when they choose.
9. Are able to enjoy a great variety of activities.
10. Are sensitive to feelings and needs of others; respect generally accepted social rules, and claim no right or desire to prosper at others' expense.

Can work toward finding solutions and voice discontent without belittling themselves or others when challenges arise (Martin, Marsh, Mclnerney, Green & Dowson, 2007, p. 118).

A person with low self-esteem may show some of the following characteristics:

i. Heavy self-criticism and dissatisfaction.
ii. Hypersensitivity to criticism with resentment against critics and feelings of being attacked.
iii. Chronic indecision and an exaggerated fear of mistakes.
iv. Excessive will to please and unwillingness to displease any petitioner.
v. Perfectionism, which can lead to frustration when perfection is not achieved.
vi. Neurotic guilt, dwelling on and/or exaggerating the magnitude of past mistakes.
vii. Floating hostility and general defensiveness and irritability without any proximate cause.

viii. Pessimism and a general negative outlook.

ix. Envy, invidiousness, or general resentment.

x. Sees temporary setbacks as permanent, intolerable conditions.

When given negative feedback, individuals with low self-esteem often take it personally, and can be devastated by it. This damage can be much more severe if the feedback is harsh or directly criticizes the individual's worth, moral character, achievements, etc. Individuals with low self-esteem are very critical of themselves and depend on the approval and praise of others for their own evaluation of self-worthiness. They believe that a person's approval of them is dependent on their performance, whether it is academic, relationship, etc. People with low self-esteem view their likeability in terms of successes: others will accept them if they succeed but will not if they fail (Silbert & Tippett 2005).

2.3.6 Self Esteem Enhancement/Practical Method for Helping the Development of High Self Esteem in Adolescents

According to Schimmack and Diener (2003), low self-esteem is too general concept to be addressed in psychotherapy, instead, low self-esteem must be broken down into its components, and we must identify and alleviate each patient’s low self-esteem components. In addition, low self-esteem is situation specific no one has low self-esteem in every situation. A patient can experience severe low self-esteem in interpersonal situations, yet be perfectly confident in work situations. So, as counselor we must identify and treat each patient’s low self-esteem components in each specific situation. Here are some of the approaches that can be used to solve the self esteem problem:

1. Identify all of the patient’s low self-esteem components.

2. Every session, ask about specific situations which recently evoked the patient's low self-esteem. Then express self-acceptance cognitions, and correct invalid criticisms and misperceptions of weaknesses, mistakes, and failures (Schimmack & Diener 2003).
3. Every session, express general self-acceptance cognitions, aphorisms, and examples to replace the patient's low self-esteem components with self-acceptance.
4. Ask patients to imagine upcoming situations that may evoke their low self-esteem components. Have patients prepare and rehearse self-acceptance cognitions they can use in these situations (Schimmack & Diener 2003).
5. Ask low self-esteem patients to stop avoiding and do whatever they would do if they accepted themselves. This means testing out their low self-esteem cognitions and almost always proving them to be erroneous.
6. In order to reinforce progress, frequently ask about specific situations which now evoke self-acceptance but used to evoke low self-esteem feelings and cognitions (Schimmack & Diener 2003).
7. These steps must be repeated many times. Each repetition strengthens self-acceptance and weakens low self-esteem emotions and
8. Finally, changing low Self-Esteem to Self-Acceptance: you have to have a self before you can accept yourself, having a self means being clear about your beliefs, emotions, likes, dislikes, values, goals among others, if a patient does not have a stable self, therapy must focus on developing a self before working on self-acceptance. Self-acceptance has two major components: 1) Recognizing and enjoying your strengths and successes, and 2) Recognizing, being comfortable with, and not berating yourself for weaknesses, mistakes, and

failures. Self-acceptance is not incompatible with trying to do better. Patients can accept themselves as they are right now and still strive to be more competent and successful in the future (Schimmack & Diener 2003).

2.3.7 Measuring Self Esteem: The Challenges & Alternative Conceptualization

Self-esteem is typically assessed using a self-report inventory yielding a score on a continuous scale from low to high self-esteem. Despite the popularity of the self-esteem construct and its potential value to understanding the positive aspects of human nature, the measurement of self-esteem has been problematic for decades. A proliferation of poorly validated scales has posed significant challenges for scholars trying to investigate the consequences of self-esteem for behavior, thought, and emotion (Schimmack & Diener 2003).

A major problem inherent in the measure of self-esteem is the extent to which self-reports are influenced by self-presentational concerns. One strategy might be to use measures of defensiveness or social desirability to tease out the variance associated with self-report biases. Although some researchers have pursued this approach, no single method has established itself to be empirically useful.

Given the importance attached to self-esteem by many people and the fact that it also has defied consensual definition, it is not surprising that there are many measures of self-esteem Unfortunately, the majority of these measures have not performed adequately, and it is likely that many of them measure very different constructs because the correlations between these scales range from zero to .8, with an average of .4 (Wylie, 2004).

Some self-esteem measures are better than others. Crandall (2007) reviewed 33 self-esteem measures in detail and judged four to be superior: Rosenberg's Self-Esteem scale (Rosenberg, 1965), the Janis–Field Feelings of Inadequacy scale (Janis & Field,

1959), the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (2007); and the Tennessee Self-Concept scale (Fitts, 2004). Except for the Rosenberg, which measures global self-esteem, the others are multidimensional and measure various affective qualities of self-concept. In a test of eight measures of self-esteem (including projectives, interviews, self-report, and peer ratings), Demo (2008) found that the Rosenberg and Coopersmith scales performed best in factor analysis.

Blascovich and Tomaka's (1991) careful examination of numerous measures of self-esteem led them to conclude that no perfect measure exists and that few of the conceptual and methodological criticisms had been answered. They recommended a revision of the Janis–Field scale as one of the better measures of trait self-esteem. They noted, however, that the Rosenberg scale is the most widely used in research. We next describe both measures as well as the State Self-Esteem scale (Heatherton & Polivy, 2001).

Revised Janis–Field Feelings of Inadequacy

The original Janis–Field Feelings of Inadequacy scale (JFS) was a 23-item test developed in 1959 to be used in attitude change research (Janis & Field, 1959). This multidimensional scale measures self-regard, academic abilities, social confidence, and appearance (Fleming & Watts, 1980). The split-half reliability estimate by Janis and Field was .83, and the reliability was .91.

The items from the JFS have been modified a number of times (e.g., Fleming & Courtney, 1984; Fleming & Watts, 1980), such as changing the format of the responses (5- or 7-point scales, etc.) or adding questions for other dimensions of self-esteem, such as academic ability (Fleming & Courtney, 1984). A thorough review by Robinson and Shaver (1973) identified the JFS as one of the best for use with adults, and Blascovich

and Tomaka (1991) selected the Fleming and Courtney (1984) version as one of the best measures to use.

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale (RSE; Rosenberg, 1965) is the most widely used measure of global self-esteem (Demo, 1985). It was used in 25% of the published studies reviewed by Blascovich and Tomaka (1991). The RSE is a 10-item Guttman scale with high internal reliability (alpha .92). Rosenberg (1979) reported that the scale is correlated modestly with mood measures. Carmines and Zeller (1974) identified one potential problem with the RSE; they identified separate "positive" and "negative" factors.

Unfortunately, those questions that were worded in a negative direction loaded on the "negative" factor and those that were worded in a positive manner loaded most heavily on the "positive" factor, thereby suggesting a response set. Because both factors correlated almost identically with a criterion variable (in strength, direction, and consistency), however, they seem to be tapping the same general construct (Rosenberg, 1979).

Alternative Conceptualizations: Implicit Self-Esteem

The validity of explicit measures increasingly has come under challenge because, by definition, such measures rely on individuals' potentially biased capacity to accurately report their attitudes and feelings. As a result, implicit measures of attitudes, including self-esteem, attempt to tap into the unconscious, automatic aspects of self. People do not necessarily have access to their internal mental states, and therefore self-presentational motives or other beliefs may produce bias or distortion, both intended and unintended (Albo, Naez, Navarro & Grijalvo, 2007).

Greenwald and Banaji (1995) defined implicit self-esteem as the introspectively unidentified (or inaccurately identified) effect of the self-attitude on evaluation of self-associated and self-dissociated object". A number of different methods have been developed to assess implicit selfesteem (Bosson, Swann, & Pennebaker, 2000), but the most widely known and used is the Implicit Associates Test (IAT; Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwarz, 1998). The IAT involves making paired-word associations; when used to measure self-esteem, the distinctions are between self-related words, such as me, and other-related words, such as your, and between pleasant words, such as sunshine, and unpleasant ones, such as death.

Self-esteem is a function of difference between the reaction time to make self-pleasant (and other unpleasant) associations and the reaction time to make self-unpleasant (and other-pleasant) associations. The IAT has been shown to be modestly reliable, and correlates positively but weakly with explicit measures. A factor analysis indicated that they are different constructs (Greenwald & Farnham, 2000).

The validities of the IAT and other implicit measures of self-esteem are unknown. There are reasons to favor implicit measures, given their immutability to self-presentation or cognitive processes, but available evidence does not exist to justify selecting them over the more widely used explicit measures. At another conceptual level, it is difficult to know what to expect from implicit measures.

There are thousands of studies in which explicit measures have been used to predict specific outcomes, with reasonable consistency obtained when similar scales are used. This has allowed researchers to make generalizations about what it means to have high or low self-esteem. Should implicit measures lead to the same conclusions? If so, there is little need of them (Baumeister, 2008).

2.4 Theoretical Framework (Theories of Self Esteem)

Many early theories suggested that self-esteem is a basic human need or motivation.

2.4.1 Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs:

It is a theory in psychology proposed by Abraham Maslow in his 1943 paper: A theory of human motivation in psychological review. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is often portrayed in the shape of a pyramid with the largest, most fundamental levels of needs at the bottom and the need for self-actualization at the top

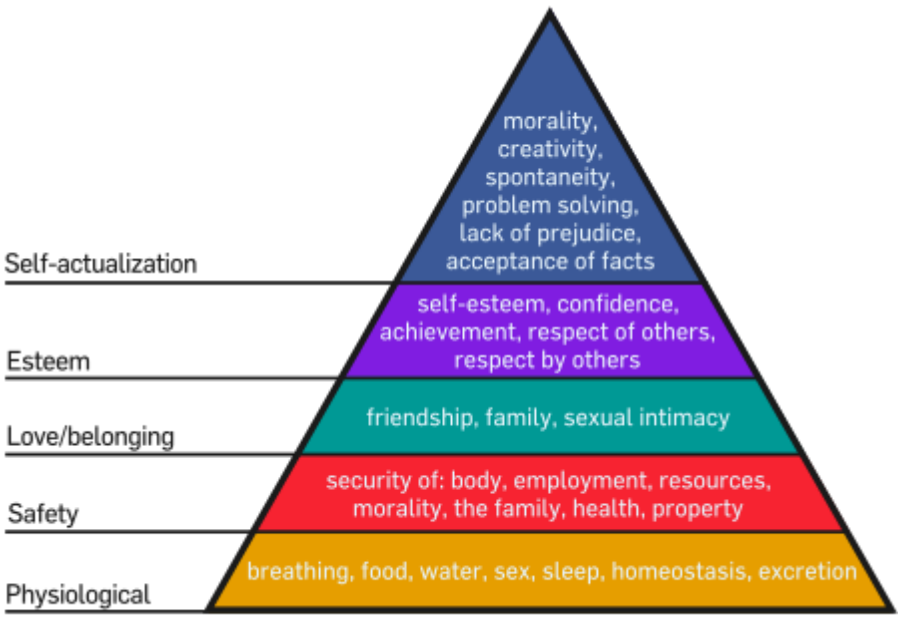


Figure 3: Maslow, A. H. (1943). *A theory of human motivation* (Third ed.). New York: Harper & Row.

American psychologist Abraham Maslow included self-esteem in his hierarchy of needs. He described two different forms of esteem: the need for respect from others, and the need for self-respect, or inner self-esteem. Respect from others entails recognition, acceptance, status, and appreciation, and was believed to be more fragile

and easily lost than inner self-esteem. According to Maslow, without the fulfillment of the self-esteem need, individuals will be driven to seek it and unable to grow and obtain self-actualization. The healthiest expression of self-esteem, according to Maslow, is the one which manifests in respect we deserve for others, more than renowned, fame and flattery.

All humans have a need to feel respected; this includes the need to have self-esteem and self-respect. Esteem presents the typical human desire to be accepted and valued by others. People often engage in a profession or hobby to gain recognition. These activities give the person a sense of contribution or value. Low self-esteem or an inferiority complex may result from imbalances during this level in the hierarchy. People with low self-esteem often need respect from others; they may feel the need to seek fame or glory. However, fame or glory will not help the person to build their self-esteem until they accept who they are internally. Psychological imbalances such as depression can hinder the person from obtaining a higher level of self-esteem or self-respect.

Most people have a need for stable self-respect and self-esteem. Maslow noted two versions of esteem needs: a "lower" version and a "higher" version. The "lower" version of esteem is the need for respect from others. This may include a need for status, recognition, fame, prestige, and attention. The "higher" version manifests itself as the need for self-respect. For example, the person may have a need for strength, competence, mastery, self-confidence, independence, and freedom. This "higher" version takes precedence over the "lower" version because it relies on an inner competence established through experience. Deprivation of these needs may lead to an inferiority complex, weakness, and helplessness.

Maslow states that while he originally thought the needs of humans had strict guidelines, the "hierarchies are interrelated rather than sharply separated". This means that esteem and the subsequent levels are not strictly separated; instead, the levels are closely related

2.4.2 Sociometer Theory of Self-Esteem

An evolutionary based psychological theory, Sociometer theory relies on an internal gauge to monitor behaviour and social inclusion. Self-esteem is the mechanism by which human beings assess their self-worth in comparison to the rest of their social group. Sociometer theory was developed by Mark, Leary and his colleagues (1999) in order to explain the functions of self-esteem. They proposed that self-esteem evolved to monitor one's social acceptance and is used as a gauge for avoiding social devaluation and rejection.

In general, people are highly motivated to protect their self-esteem and to increase it through their thoughts and actions (Leary 1999). A sociometer, as proposed by Leary and his colleagues, is a measure of how desirable one would be to other people and this is influenced by one's self-esteem. This measure may be made in a variety of terms such as team member, relationship partner, employee, colleague or numerous other ways. Sociometer theory is useful in explaining why people are so concerned with self-esteem. Self-esteem measures the traits you have according to how socially acceptable they are and how these qualities integrate you into society. This measurement helps to guide people through their social interactions on a daily basis.

Furthermore, according to the sociometer theory, self-esteem functions as a monitor of the likelihood of social exclusion. When people behave in ways that increase the likelihood they will be rejected, they experience a reduction in state self-esteem. Thus, self-esteem serves as a monitor, or sociometer, of social acceptance–rejection. At

the trait level, those with high self-esteem have sociometers that indicate a low probability of rejection, and therefore such individuals do not worry about how they are being perceived by others. By contrast, those with low self-esteem have sociometers that indicate the imminent possibility of rejection, and therefore they are highly motivated to manage their public impressions. There is an abundance of evidence that supports the sociometer theory, including the finding that low self-esteem is highly correlated with social anxiety.

2.4.3 Carl Rogers Theory of Personality and Unconditional Positive Regard

Carl Rogers (1902-1987) was a humanistic psychologist who agreed with the main assumptions of Abraham Maslow, but added that for a person to "grow", they need an environment that provides them with genuineness (openness and self-disclosure), acceptance (being seen with unconditional positive regard), and empathy (being listened to and understood). Without these, relationships and healthy personalities will not develop as they should, much like a tree will not grow without sunlight and water

Central to Rogers' personality theory is the notion of self or self-concept. This is defined as "the organized, consistent set of perceptions and beliefs about oneself". The self is the humanistic term for who we really are as a person. The self is our inner personality, and can be likened to the soul, or Freud's psyche. The self is influenced by the experiences a person has in their life, and out interpretations of those experiences. Two primary sources that influence our self-concept are childhood experiences and evaluation by others. The humanistic approach states that the self is composed of concepts unique to ourselves.

The Self-Concept includes Three Components:

1. **Self Worth** (or self-esteem): what we think about ourselves. Rogers believed feelings of self-worth developed in early childhood and were formed from the interaction of the child with the mother and father.
2. **Self-Image**: How we see ourselves, which is important to good psychological health. Self-image includes the influence of our body image on inner personality. At a simple level, we might perceive ourselves as a good or bad person, beautiful or ugly. Self-image has an effect on how a person thinks feels and behaves in the world.
3. **Ideal Self**: This is the person who we would like to be. It consists of our goals and ambitions in life, and is dynamic – i.e. forever changing. The ideal self in childhood is not the ideal self in our teens or late twenties etc.

Carl Rogers (1951) viewed the child as having two basic needs: positive regard from other people and self-worth. Rogers believed feelings of self-worth developed in early childhood and were formed from the interaction of the child with the mother and father. As a child grows older, interactions with significant others will affect feelings of self-worth.

Rogers believed that we need to be regarded positively by others; we need to feel valued, respected, treated with affection and loved. Positive regard is to do with how other people evaluate and judge us in social interaction. Rogers made a distinction between unconditional positive regard and conditional positive regard.

1. **Unconditional Positive Regard** is where parents, significant others (and the humanist therapist) accepts and loves the person for what he or she is. Positive regard is not withdrawn if the person does something wrong or makes a mistake. The consequences of unconditional positive regard are that the person feels free to try things out and make mistakes, even though this may lead to

getting it worse at times. People who are able to self-actualize are more likely to have received unconditional positive regard from others, especially their parents in childhood.

2. **Conditional Positive** regard is where positive regard, praise and approval, depend upon the child, for example, behaving in ways that the parents think correct. Hence the child is not loved for the person he or she is, but on condition that he or she behaves only in ways approved by the parent(s). At the extreme, a person who constantly seeks approval from other people is likely only to have experienced conditional positive regard as a child.

2.4.4 William James Theory of Self Esteem

William James (1890) is repeatedly referred to as the creator of the self-esteem movement (Hewitt, 2005; Kling, Hyde, Showers and Buswell, 1999; Leary, Tambor, Terdal and Downs, 1995; Seligman, 1996) and given his elementary endowment of human nature (cited in Leary, Tambor, Terdal & Downs, 1995) one might hypothesis that it has existed since the birth of mankind. William James (1890) argued that self-esteem developed from the accumulation of experiences in which people's outcomes exceeded their goals on some important dimension, under the general rule that self-esteem = success/pretensions.

The two elements, feeling good about ourselves (pretensions) and how well we actually do (success), are inextricably linked; we can feel better about ourselves by succeeding in the world but also by varying the levels of our hopes and expectations. James (1953) describes self esteem as how we view our self image, and whether or not we approve of it. The idea of self esteem is defined by our concepts and how well we like ourselves.

The way that self esteem is derived is by measuring the gap between the ideal self and the self image. The ideal self is a person's concept of what the perfect person should be, as well as what they see as their full potential (usually a potential that cannot be achieved). This ideal self may be close to a person's self image, which would mean that this person has a high self esteem. The greater the difference between someone self image and ideal self, the lower the resulting self esteem.

2.4.5 Cooley's Theory of Self Esteem.

Many of the most popular theories of self-esteem are based on Cooley's (1902) notion of the looking-glass self, in which self-appraisals are viewed as inseparable from social milieu**.** In the early 1900's, social psychologist Charles Horton Cooley proposed a theory called the Looking Glass Self. The Looking Glass Self is the emergence and maintenance of self-identity or who you "think" you are. Different from the Self as Body & Being, the Looking Glass Self, or Self-Identity, is not tangible or touchable; instead, it is Imaginary.

A self-idea of this sort seems to have three principal elements: the imagination of our appearance to the other person; the imagination of his judgment of that appearance, and some sort of self-feeling, such as pride or mortification. Charles Horton Cooley (1902), Human Nature and the Social Order, The Cooley's three 3 principle elements of the Looking Glass Self*:*

1. How I imagine I appear to other people.
2. How I imagine others judge my appearance (the one I imagine in the first place)
3. How I feel (prideful or mortified) about my imaginations my appearance and others judgments of that imagined appearance

Number three 3 of Cooley's principle elements is equal to = Self Esteem

2.5 Brainstorming Counseling Technique: Definition, Osborn's Best Description of Brainstorming, Basic Guidelines and Advantages of Brainstorming Technique

2.5.1 Definition/ Introduction:

Brainstorming is one of the most well-known tools for creative thinking. Brainstorming as a technique was first introduced by Alex Osborne in the 1930s. It is a method used in groups in order to support creative problem-solving, the generation of new ideas and greater acceptance of proposed solutions. Osborn claimed that brainstorming was more effective than individuals working alone in generating ideas, although more recent research has questioned this conclusion (Michael, 1991).

Osborn (1942) felt that the creative productivity of groups was often hundred due to the primarily evaluative orientation of most meetings. His popular metaphor for this condition was described as "driving with breaks on". He designed the brainstorming session as a creative conference for the sole purpose of producing a checklist of ideas which can subsequently be evaluated and further processed. Brainstorming was identified as only one of a variety of tools for generating ideas, and idea generation was outlined as only one aspect of the entire creative problem solving process. Group brainstorming was suggested as a supplement to individual ideation, not a replacement

Furthermore, McGuire and Priestly (1981), state that brainstorming was devised as a means of helping individuals and groups to formulate alternative courses of action when solving problems. That while initially, it was intended to help amass possible solutions to problems, it can also be used prior to this: in helping individuals to identify and explore their problems in the first place

2.5.2 How the brainstorming works (brainstorming --wikipedia)

The brainstorming technique is based on the capacity of the human brain to make associations. For example, when a person sees or hears the word “fun”, the brain automatically searches for word associations and produces suggestions such as cinema, theatre or concert, or terms such as humour, friends, relaxation, free time, sun, sea and so on.

Although the capacity of one person is somewhat limited, the production of words increases enormously if there are more people working together. The reason for this is that the word associations thought of by others makes the brain of each person work faster and search in much wider areas than it would without such stimulus. The theory of associations is the first principle of brainstorming.

It is already well known that the brain works best when the left and right hemispheres work together. This state comes about when people are relaxed, calm, happy and feel that they are in an atmosphere of trust and support. Unfortunately, our work life is seldom like this: stress, the large number of tasks to be carried out and busy schedules are the enemies of relaxation. Therefore, the second principal precondition of brainstorming is that it should be carried out in a relaxed atmosphere in order to support the creative attitude of people and get the best out of them.

2.5.3 Brainstorming Guidelines

The four basic guidelines are as follow:

A central principle involved in brainstorming was described as “deferment of judgment,” which meant the postponement of judgment during generating phases of CPS. Osborn (1952b, p. 272) included deferment of judgement as only one of the four central guidelines for brainstorming to respond to the over emphasis of judicial thinking that dominated most meetings and conferences. The four guidelines he developed were:

1. Criticism is ruled out: adverse judgement of ideas must be withheld until later. The purpose of the brainstorming session is the generation of many, varied and unusual options.
2. Freewheeling is welcomed: the wilder the idea, the better. It is easier to tame down than to think up. Since criticism is temporarily ruled out, it is acceptable and desired that really wild and unusual ideas are shared.
3. Quantity is wanted: the greater the number of ideas, the greater the likelihood of useful ideas.
4. Combination and improvement are sought (Cross Fertilize) : in addition to contributing ideas of their own, participants should suggest how the ideas of others can be turned into better ideas; or how two or more ideas can be joined into still another idea.

Although deferment of judgment was the central principle outlined by Osborn, he made it clear that judgement had an important role to play in the total CPS process. Since the purpose of brainstorming was for group generation of options, sorting and evaluation were postponed and became the main agenda for another separate meeting. The four guidelines were central for successful brainstorming , but Osborn was clear that they were not sufficient.

Since brainstorming was designed to be applied in a group setting, Osborn outlined many guidelines and suggestions for those who might choose to lead a brainstorming session. He recommended that these facilitators should take at least one formal course in creative problem solving and should be able to: ask stimulating questions, develop plans for guiding the generating of ideas, provide warm up practice and orientation for the participants, teach and re inforce the guidelines and manage the

planning and scheduling of follow up sessions and meetings, among other responsibilities.

The group of 5-10 participants should be selected based on the nature of the problem to be brainstormed. Mixing different levels of participants was to be avoided. Participants should generally be self starters and have a range of experience with the task. Brainstorming session(which were to last from 30-45 minutes) also needed to be supported by someone to handle the recording and collecting of ideas during the session. This recorder was also prepared, in advance, by the leader of the session.

Since brainstorming was designed for group application, the session was designed to supplant individual ideation. Individual ideation was to happen prior to the group session and as a follow up to allow for plenty of incubation time.

Osborn was influenced by the work of Wallas (1926) who identified preparation, incubation, illumination and verification as key aspects of the creative process.

Similarly, in Michael Morgan's book (1993), "Creative Workforce Innovation", he gave the following guidelines. Brainstorming is a process that works best with a group of people when you follow the following four rules:

1. Have a well defined and clearly stated problem.
2. Have someone assigned to write down all the ideas as they occur.
3. Have the right number of people in the group.
4. Have someone in charge to help enforce the following guidelines:
    a) Suspend judgement
    b) Every idea is accepted and recorded.
    c) Encourage people to build on the ideas of others.
    d) Encourage way out and odd ideas.

2.5.4 Types/Methods of brainstorming counselling technique (brainstorming - Wikipedia)

Group passing technique

This process requires that each person in a group writes down one idea; and then passes the pieces of paper to the next person, who adds some thoughts. This continues until everybody gets his/her original piece of paper back. The group may also generate idea on a book. The first person to receive the book lists his/her ideas and then routes the book to the next person on the group. The second person can log new ideas or add to the ideas of the previous person. This continues until every group member has made suggestion. The next process is follow up or "read out meeting" is when the ideas logged in the book are read out to group members. This procedure allows individual member of the group to think deeply about the problem before generating ideas.

Team Ideas mapping method

This process begins with a well-defined topic. This method of brainstorming allows each group member to brainstorming individually, then all the ideas are merged onto one large idea map, this process improve collaboration and increase the quality of ideas, this allows the group member to discover a common understanding of the issues as they share the meaning behind their ideas.

Electronic Brainstorming

This is a computerized version of the manual brainstorming technique that is supported by electronic meeting system. The simple forms of electronic brainstorming can be done via e-mail, and may be browser based or with the use of peer-to-peer software. With an electronic meeting system, group member share a list of ideas over a network, ideas are entered independently. Contributions become immediately visible to all and are typically to encourage openings and to reduce personal prejudice.

Directed Brainstorming

This is a venation of electronic brainstorming, it can be done manually or with computers. Directed brainstorming works when the solution space is known prior to the brainstorming session. In this process, each group members are asked to produce one response and stop, then all the papers or (forms) are randomly swapped among the participants. The group members are asked to look at the idea they received and to create a new idea that improves on that idea based on the initial criteria. The forms are then swapped again and respondents are asked to improve upon the ideas and the process is repeated fro three or more times.

Guided Brainstorming

A guided brainstorming session is time set aside to brainstorm either individually or as a collective group about a particular subject under the constraints of perspective and time. This type of brainstorming removes all cause for conflict and constrains conversation while stimulating critical and creative thinking in an engaging, balanced environment, and innovative ideas consistently emerge. Group members are asked to adopt different mindsets for pre-defined period of time while contributing their ideas to a central mind map drawn by a pre-appointed scribe. Guided brainstorming allows the group members to examine a multi-perspective point of view, and helps them to see the simple solutions that collectively create greater growth.

Individual Brainstorming: This involves the uses of brainstorming in solitary, it typically includes such techniques as free writing, free speaking, word association and drawing a mind-map, which is a visual note taking technique in which an individual diagram their thoughts.

Question Brainstorming

This process involves brainstorming the questions, rather than trying to come up with immediate answers and short term solutions. The answers to the questions form the framework for constructing future action plans. The list of questions is set to allow for prioritizing of the questions so as to reach the best solution in an orderly way.

In respect to this study, a guided brainstorming technique was adopted. This allowed the counselor to guide individual client selected for this study in groups of individuals to brain storm about a particular subject/topic without wasting time.

2.5.5 The process of brainstorming (brainstorming –wikipedia)

The process can be divided into three phases: a preparation phase, the brain-storming session, and evaluation and implementation of the results.

A) The preparation phase:

Osborn recommended that preparation takes place on two levels. First, the type of problem to be approached had to be carefully prepared. Next, the participants attending the session had to be oriented in advance or during the session.

The problem had to be clearly stated and focused for idea generation. The task had to be specific rather than general. It should provide a single target for participants idea generating efforts. Osborn recommended sending a one page background and invitation memo with a few examples of the type of ideas desired by the problem owner. This preparation memo also requested individuals to generate ideas on their own in advance to the group session. If the participants were not previously trained, Osborn recommended a 30 minutes orientation provided by the leader of the session. Training on the brainstorming guidelines as well as complementary tools and techniques to encourage ideation, were also recommended.

Furthermore, the room should be calm, well ventilated and well lit. Different colours aid brain activity. Brainstorming sessions can be held at practically any time of day, except after lunch, when brain activity decreases due to biorhythms. It is likely that sessions held between 10 and 11 a.m., when brain activity is highest, and evening sessions are the most productive.

B) Brainstorming session phase

Brainstorming places a significant burden on the facilitator to manage the process, people's involvement and sensitivities, and then to follow up actions.

The job of the facilitator is to encourage everyone in the team/group to participate in making suggestion. Facilitator should not dismiss group member ideas. During the random collection of ideas, the facilitator must record every suggestion on flip-chart, and to hang the sheets of the flip chart on the walls. Ideas have been exhausted, and then the facilitator is expected to categorize, or to group or to connect and link the random ideas. Michinov (2012: 244) wrote on brainstorming counseling process.

1. Definition of the team objective, and agreement on the team objective.
2. Brainstorming ideas and suggestions should have agreed time limit.
3. There is the need to categorize or condense or combine or refine team ideas.
4. Need to access, analyze effects or results of group/team goals.
5. Need to prioritize options that are available to team members this could be done by preparing tank list where appropriate.
6. Need to agree on team action and time scale.
7. Need to control and monitor follow up

A well-managed brainstorming session involves several steps, as follows:

i. At the beginning of the session, the moderator should explain the objectives of the session and describe the chosen topic.

ii. The moderator should explain the rules of the brainstorming session and hang them on the wall. If the participants are already familiar with them, it is enough to make sure that all the participants know them well;

iii. To warm up a group, a humourous topic can be used, such as "What else can you do with a saucepan?" After several minutes of brainstorming, when the atmosphere is relaxed, the predefined topic can be introduced;

iv. All suggestions, however outlandish, are recorded on the flip chart. The participants should be patient and check that all their ideas are written down;

v. The moderator may help the participants with generating ideas. He or she can also try to unlock hidden ideas by asking "What else?", "What next?" and by making comments such as "very good", "thank you", and so forth, but should not influence the participants by asking questions supporting any of the areas of the results;

vi. At the end of the session, the moderator should thank the participants for their active approach and make sure that they know how the results will be evaluated and used.

C) Evaluation phase

Condensing and refining ideas is done by making new heading or lists. It is expected of the facilitator to evaluate and analyze the ideas on list and to prioritize the ideas into a more finished list or set of actions or options. After every session of brainstorming the facilitator should guide the team to agree on what the next action will be, and on time scale, who is responsible for what, it is important to develop a clear and positive outcome, so that group member will feel that their efforts contributions was

worthwhile, when members will be motivated and keen to contribute-ideas. After each session it is good to circulate note in order to monitor member feelings, to give and receive feedback.

The evaluation of the results of the session should be deferred for several days, overnight or at least for several hours. During that time, the brain recovers and has time to calm down, reflect or produce new word associations and solutions. Those can be added to the list prior to the evaluation. The ideas are then grouped according to the topics and formal evaluative methods can be used.

Another approach that can be used to evaluate the results is a method using coloured stickers. For example, 10-20 stickers can be distributed among the evaluators and they can be asked to affix them next to the ideas on the flip chart. The more they like an idea, the more points they can give it by affixing stickers. They can give all the points to one solution or distribute them among more of them, as they wish. In this way, the preferences of the group can be seen and priorities among the results can be identified.

Both primary school pupils and students in secondary schools or other groups of young people or adults can brainstorm on their main problems and the sessions can help them learn more about their most important concerns as well as encourage them to produce a fair number of suggestions concerning how each problem can be solved. The school staff including administrators can use the brainstorming sessions to learn more about the pressing concerns and most important problems young people face at home , in their classes, in schools, after school and after they complete primary or secondary education.

2.5.5 Benefits of Brainstorming (Brainstorming--Wikipedia)

The benefits of a well-organized brainstorming session are numerous. They include:

(a) Solutions can be found rapidly and economically;

(b) Results and ways of problem-solving that are new and unexpected

(c) A wider picture of the problem or issue can be obtained;

(d) The atmosphere within the team is more open;

(e) The team shares responsibility for the problem;

(f) Responsibility for the outcome is shared;

(g) The implementation process is facilitated by the fact that staff shared in the decision-making process. (Isaksen, Dorval, & Treffinger , 1994)

2.6 Empirical Studies on brainstorming and Self-esteem

Many empirical studies have been conducted regarding the effects of brainstorming on group idea generation. Few previous reviews were considered in this study:

Adeyemi and Ajibade (2011) investigated the comparative effects of simulation games and brainstorming instructional strategies on junior secondary school students' achievement in social studies in Nigeria. The study adopted a quasiexperimental design (3 x 2 non-randomnized pre-test post-test control group) comprising three groups made up of two experiment groups and one control. Simple random sampling was employed in selecting 240 schools comprising two arms of JSS 2. Four instruments namely: Social studies Achievement Test (SSAT), "Operational Guide for Simulation Games" (OGSG), "Operational Guide on Brainstorming" (OGB) and "Operational Guide for teacher Expositing" (OGTE) were used with reliability coefficients of 0.84, 0.76, 0.81 and 0.78 respectively. Three hypotheses were generated and tested. Data analysis was done using mean, standard deviation. Results revealed that there was a significant main effect of the treatment on students' achievement in social

studies (F (=2.233) = (59.321; $p<0.05$). Findings also indicated that there was a significant main effect of gender on students' achievement in social studies. ($F(1.233)=(20.687$; $p<0.05$) and finally, results showed that there was significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on students' achievement in social studies ($F(2.233)=(17.644$; $p<0.05$).

Paul and Paulus (2002) in their study, two concurrent experiments were conducted with groups of varying size, there were 2-,4-, and 6-person groups in one and 6- and 12-person groups in the other. We compared the number and quality of unique ideas generated by groups of each size using electronic and non-electronic, verbal brainstorming. Groups used both techniques in a counterbalanced within-group design. The larger groups in both experiments generated more unique ideas and more high-quality ideas, and members were more satisfied when they used electronic brainstorming than when they used verbal brainstorming. There were fewer differences between the two techniques for the smaller groups in each experiment. The results showing that electronic brainstorming reduces the effects of production apprehension blocking and evaluation apprehension on group performance, particularly for large groups.

Fredric, and Seibold (2009) attempt a review and critical examination of brainstorming as a purported aid to creative problem solving in groups. The review presents: (1) a discussion of the history of brainstorming and its practice; (2) a survey of empirical studies of brainstorming; and (3) an examination of theoretical explanations for superior brainstorming performance by individuals as against that of groups.

Oyefeso and Zacheaus (1990) investigated the influence of gender differences on the expression of self-esteem among Yoruba adolescents. Using a sample of 120 adolescents, 60 males and 60 females, with a mean age of 16.02 years (S.D. = 1.63), the results reveal that male adolescents express higher self-esteem than female adolescents.

Barnabas, Shyngle, Tobias and Nancy (2012) examined the relationship between self-esteem and locus of control among well functioning adolescents in the South Eastern Nigeria.

Participants within the age range of 15- 19 years were selected from two Secondary Schools in Enugu metropolis, Enugu State, Nigeria. The result showed that a significant positive relationship exist between high self-esteem and internal locus of control among well functioning adolescents ($r = .46$, $p < 0.01$). Similarly, low self-esteem correlated with external locus of control. Locus of control which is a personality construct refers to an individual's perception of the locus of events as determined internally by his or her own behavior versus fate, luck or external circumstances. It is a belief about whether the outcomes of our actions are contingent on what we do (internal control orientation) or on events outside our personal control (external control orientation).

Lauren, Alan, Arvin and Carl (2008) assessed the associations among adolescents' self-esteem in 6 domains (peers, school, family, sports/athletics, body image and global self-worth) and risk behaviors related to substance use, bullying, suicidality and sexuality. It was a multistage stratified sampling strategy that was used to select a representative sample of 939 English-, Afrikaans- and Xhosa-speaking students in Grades 8 and 11 at public high schools in Cape Town, South Africa. Participants completed the multidimensional Self-Esteem Questionnaire (SEQ; DuBois, Felner, Brand, Phillips, & Lease, 1996) and a self-report questionnaire containing items about demographic characteristics and participation in a range of risk behaviours. It included questions about their use of tobacco, alcohol, cannabis, solvents and other substances, bullying, suicidal ideation and attempts, and risky sexual behaviour. Data was analysed using a series of logistic regression models, with the estimation of model parameters being done through generalised estimation equations. The results showed that the scores on each self-esteem scale were significantly associated with at least one risk behaviour in male and female adolescents after controlling for the sampling strategy, grade and race. However, specific self-esteem domains were differentially related to particular risk behaviours.

Low body-image self-esteem and global self-worth were also uniquely associated with risk behaviours in girls, but not in boys.

Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins, Moffitt and Caspi (2005) explored the controversial link between global self-esteem and externalizing problems such as aggression, antisocial behavior, and delinquency. In three studies, they found a robust relation between low self-esteem and externalizing problems. This relation held for different age groups, different nationalities, and multiple methods of assessing self-esteem and externalizing problems; after controlling for potential confounding variables; and when they delved beneath the broad construct of externalizing problems and examined specific aggressive thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. The results indicated that self-esteem may foretell future externalizing problems; 11-year-olds with low self-esteem tended to increase in aggression by age 13. Finally, it was observed that the effect of low self-esteem on aggression was independent of narcissism; in fact, when healthy self-regard was disentangled from narcissistic self-perceptions, the relation between low self-esteem and aggression became even stronger.

A study conducted by Erol and Orth (2011) examined the development of self-esteem in adolescence and young adulthood. The aim of the study was to determine the trajectory of self-esteem development; as in when does self-esteem development occur in life and in what direction. Another aspect of the study was to discover potential modifiers to individual differences in self-esteem development after recording trajectories. It was expected that self-esteem development would continuously increase during adolescence and young adulthood as per previous studies' results. It was also found that self-esteem increases moderately through adolescence and continues to increase in young adulthood at a slower rate. A high sense of mastery, low risk taking and better overall health predicted higher self- esteem in participants at each age level. Emotionally stable, extroverted and conscientious participants experienced higher self-esteem as well. This study showed no results depicting a significant difference

between self-esteem trajectories of men and women. The finding of this research, in regards to self-esteem trajectory, is consistent with what is known about the life span development of self-esteem. Erol and Orth's study documents the importance of adolescence as a possible critical period for self-esteem development. This study's results can lend itself to the implementation of self-esteem improvement interventions in young children.

Brown (2003) investigated the relationship between self–esteem and academic achievement in a group of 150 high, medium, and low achievers at a large Midwestern public high school. The study disclosed a positive correlation between self-esteem and academic achievement, and also revealed secondary achievements, gender and race.

Button, Sonuga-Barke, Davies and Thompson (2006) examined the role of self-esteem in aetiology *prior* to the onset of an eating disorder in adolescent school girls. Self-esteem was measured in 594 schoolgirls aged 11–12 using the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). Almost 400 of these girls were successfully followed up at age 15–16 and they completed a questionnaire examining eating and other psychological problems. Results showed that girls with low self-esteem at age 11–12 were at significantly greater risk of developing the more severe signs of eating disorders, as well as other psychological problems, by the age of 15–16.

Similarly, Richard, Kali, Jessica and Samuel (2002) investigated the age differences in self-esteem from age 9 to 90 years using cross-sectional data collected from 326,641 individuals over the Internet. Self-esteem levels were high in childhood, dropped during adolescence, rose gradually throughout adulthood, and declined sharply in old age. This trajectory generally held across gender, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and nationality (U.S. citizens vs. non-U.S. citizens).

Wai Eliza (1989) embarked on an exploratory attempt to study the effects of task-centered approach with the use of positive techniques on low self–esteem students. In the

project, treatment and comparison groups were compared to see if there was any change in self–esteem of those who served in the treatment group. The outcome data obtained from the questionnaire and worker's observation from the group have suggested that the task-centered approach with the positive techniques had some impacts on the members' self - esteem which might be plausibly a factor of their disruptive behavior in school. The members in the treatment group showed an overall decline of their scores in the self-esteem measure which indicate the improvement of their self-esteem problem.

In respect of the related studies reviewed above, it was shown that although a lot of studies have been done on self-esteem, little or no study has been done on effect of brainstorming technique on self-esteem. The researcher therefore believes that brainstorming counseling technique which was used in this study as direct and planned technique should effectively improve the self-esteem of her subjects.

2.7 Summary

In this chapter, attempts have been made to place the problem of this study within a theoretical framework and to review some previous related studies. As regards the previous related studies reviewed, it has been seen that various intervention techniques have been successfully employed by different researchers to change the self-esteem of their subjects in positive direction. These intervention techniques include: cognitive behavior therapy, group narrative therapy, adventure therapy and animal assisted play therapy, none of which has used brainstorming technique.

Although many studies have found brainstorming to be effective in promoting group work, verbal tasks, teaching of heuristics, encouraging inventiveness etc. The value of brainstorming is still the subject of research and some of the findings have been conflicting. For example, a study by Donald Taylor and others in Yale University suggested that

brainstorming would inhibit problem solving, and other criticisms have been made by Parnes and Meadow at the University of Buffalo. Similarly, Dunnette, Campbell & Jaastad got better results when subjects worked alone than when they brainstormed in a group. It is evident that until more research clarifies the situation, schools must approach such method with caution.

We have seen from literature reviewed that the concept of self-esteem has been variously defined by different writers and theorists, but this study adopts that which views self-esteem as an evaluative aspect of the self concept that correspond to an overall view of the self as worthy or unworthy.

The theoretical approaches to understanding self-esteem that have been looked at in this chapter include: 1) Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs suggested that self-esteem is a basic human need or motivation. 2) Sociometer theory proposed that self-esteem evolved to monitor one's social acceptance and is used as a gauge for avoiding social devaluation and rejection. 3). Carl Rogers viewed the child as having two basic needs: unconditional positive regard from other people and self-worth. 4).William James argued that self-esteem developed from the accumulation of experiences in which people's outcomes exceeded their goals on some important dimension. The general rule is that self-esteem = success// pretensions. 5). Cooley proposed the looking-glass self theory, in which self-appraisals are viewed as inseparable from social milieu.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents full description of the methodology used by the researcher. These include the research design, population, sample and sampling

technique, instrumentation, scoring of the instrument, validity and reliability of the instrument, procedure for data collection, treatment session and procedure for data analysis.

3.2 Research Design

This is a Quasi-experimental research that employed the non-equivalent Controlled Group design, which is a classification of Quasi-experimental design. It involves pre-test post-test control group design. The choice of this design was occasioned by the fact that it provides for the selection of individuals with identical or nearly identical characteristics and it minimizes the threats to internal validity of an experiment. This design has the potentials to subject the differences between the mean scores of students to test of statistical significance. Moreso that the study is composed of two groups- the experimental and controlled groups, with the experimental group exposed to treatment i.e. Brainstorming counselling session and the controlled group was not exposed to it. This is to justify the Effects of Brainstorming counselling technique on low self-esteem of secondary school students in Kaduna State. Symbolically, this design can be represented as shown below:

Table 3. 1: Graphical Presentation of the Research Design

Groups	Pre-Observation	Treatment	Post-Observation
Treatment	O_1	X	O_2
Control	O_3	----	O_4

Key: O_1 & O_3 = Pre-test. O_2 & O_4 = Post-test. X = Treatment. --- = No treatment.

The research design adopted makes it imperative that the research subjects be split into two groups; the control and the treatment groups.

3.3 Population

The population of the study comprised all the students in JSS III that exhibit low self esteem. The study was carried out in two (2) randomly selected public secondary schools in Kaduna North Local Government Area of the State. One of the secondary schools was used for the treatment while the other school was used as the control group. The choice of the JSS III students was based on the fact that they have psychologically acclimatized fully to the study environment to make them sufficiently good study materials for a research of this nature.

A recognizance survey was conducted by the researcher and it was discovered that the population of JSS III Students in the two selected schools was seven hundred and fifty three (753). The population is made up of 383 males and 370 females. 50.8% of the study population are males and the remaining 49.2% are females. A breakdown of this population is presented in the table below

Table 3. 2: Population Distribution of JSS III Students in the Selected Schools

	Schools			
Gender	**Capital School**	**GSS, (Jnr) Kawo**	**Total**	**%**
Male	204	197	401	51
Female	179	173	352	49
Total	383	370	753	100

Source: Kaduna State Ministry of Education (2015)

3.4 Sample and Sampling Technique

The sample for this study was drawn from the population of all the students in JSS III of the two randomly selected public secondary schools who have low self esteem. In each of these randomly selected schools, the Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale Questionnaire was given to all the students in JS III to fill appropriately. Those students with low self esteem (less than 10 score) constitute the subjects (treatment and control) for this study.

Twenty-nine (29) students obtained scores that was less than 10 marks from the population of all the JSS III students which indicated that they have low self-esteem. 24 out of 29 subjects were selected as sample size for this study by the researcher. The selection of this sample size was supported by Krejcie and Morgan (1971) that a sample size of 24 out of 30 was quite adequate for behavioural research such as this.

One of the secondary schools was used for treatment while the other one was used as control. Each of these groups comprised of 12 subjects with equal number of males and females. Below is the distribution of sample from both the treatment & control schools.

Table 3. 3: Sample Distribution of JSS III Subjects into the Treatment & Control Group

Group	JSS III		Total
	Male	Female	
Treatment	6	6	12
Control	6	6	12
Total	12	12	24

Source: Field experiment (2015).

The subjects assigned to the treatment group expressed their willingness to attend to all the eight treatment sessions and to do all after session assignments. The procedure for the selection and assignment of subjects to groups and sub-groups helped ensure that the subjects in all the cells are of comparable characteristics in terms of sex and pre-treatment self-esteem scores. This provides the justification for inter-cell comparison.

3.5 Instrumentation

The Self Esteem Scale (SES) designed by Rosenberg (1965) was used for data gathering in this research. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale (RSE) is the most widely used measure of global self-esteem (Demo, 1985). It was used in 25% of the published studies reviewed by Blascovich and Tomaka (1991). The RSE is a 10-item Guttmann scale with high internal reliability (alpha .92). Rosenberg (1979) reported that the scale is correlated modestly with mood measures. While designed as a Guttmann scale, the SES is now commonly scored as a Likert scale. The 10 items are answered on a four point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

The original sample for which the scale was developed in the 1960s consisted of 5,024 high school juniors and seniors from 10 randomly selected schools in New York State and was scored as a Guttman scale. There are two sections to the instrument used for this research: the first section has four items which seeks information bordering

on demographic and personal data of respondents. The second section is the Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale.

3.5.1 Validity of the Instrument

The instrument that was used for this study was a questionnaire that contains two sections; section A contains the bio-data of the subjects while section B was Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (RSE) which was developed by Rosenberg. The questionnaires were given to experts who are senior lecturers in the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria for comments, corrections and suggestions on its content.

3.5.2 Pilot testing

For the purpose of this study, a pilot test was conducted to ascertain the appropriateness of this instrument for the subjects of this study. The RSE was administered on sixty (60) J.S III Students. They were instructed not to respond to items they do not understand and to underline any difficult words. No items left out unresponded to and no words underlined. The reliability index of the pilot testing was 0.96. Thus, the instrument was considered appropriate for use on the subjects of this study.

3.5.3 Reliability of the Instrument

The Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (RSES) generally has high reliability: test-retest correlations are typically in the range of .82 to .88, and Cronbach's alpha for various samples are in the range of .77 to .88 (see Blascovich and Tomaka, 1993 and Rosenberg, 1986 for further detail). Studies have demonstrated both a one-dimensional and a two-factor (self-confidence and self-deprecation) structure to the scale.

3.6 Procedure for Data Collection

A letter of introduction to Kaduna State Ministry of Education was given to the researcher from the department of Educational Psychology and Counseling and thereafter a letter of permission to carry out the study in the selected secondary schools was issued to the researcher by the Ministry of Education. The researcher then met the Principals of the selected schools and gave them the authority letters from the state ministry of education and intimated them about the research. Their cooperation and assistance were solicited for.

The RSE was administered to the subjects on pre-treatment and post-treatment bases. In each school, two teachers familiar with the students were nominated to administer the pretest. This was necessary in order to have subjects take the test at the same testing time. However, the researcher supervised the process personally in each school. Furthermore, effort was made to ensure that the testing condition was conducive, comfortable and as quiet as possible, for instance, by ensuring that their sitting arrangement was comfortable with good ventilation.

The respondents were briefed on the purpose of the questionnaire and made to understand that the items are not for any academic assessment or for awarding grades. So, they were assured that there was no threat of pass or failure in the test. Each administration was preceded by a careful loud reading of instruction by the researcher.

Appeal was also made to the subjects to observe the virtue of honesty in their responses to the items in the questionnaire. The subjects responded to the questionnaire within a time period of forty-five minutes (45 minutes). The post test was similarly administered by the same researcher who administered the pre test under similar testing conditions.

Scoring of the Instrument

The Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSE) was made up of 10 items. To score the items, assign a value to each of the 10 items as follows:

- For items 1, 2, 4, 6, 7: Strongly Agree=3, Agree=2, Disagree=1, and Strongly Disagree=0.
- For items 3, 5, 8, 9, 10 (these are reversed in scores): Strongly Agree=0, Agree=1, Disagree=2, and Strongly Disagree=3.

The scale ranges from 0-30, with 30 indicating the highest score possible. Other scoring options are possible. For example, you can assign values 1-4 rather than 0-3; then scores ranges from 10-40. Some researchers use 5- or 7-point Likert scales, and again, scale ranges would vary based on the addition of "middle" categories of agreement.

3.7 Brainstorming Treatment Session

3.7.1 Treatment Procedure

There were three phases of treatment. These are pre-treatment phase, treatment phase and post- treatment phase.

3.7.2 Pre-treatment phase

This formed the introductory stage; that is the meeting of the researcher with JSS III students in the two selected schools. During the introductory session, the researcher sought the consent of the subjects by asking them to sign a consent form to express their willingness to voluntarily participate in the study. The researcher then administered the research instrument (Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale) to the subjects so as to obtain their pre-test data. Those subjects found to have self esteem scores of less than 10 constitute the subjects for this study and they are further divided into treatment

and control groups (one school was used as treatment group while the other was used as control group).

3.7.3 Treatment Phase

Description of brainstorming treatment session The entire treatment program was made up of eight brainstorming counseling sessions, each of which centered on a particular attribute of self esteem. Furthermore, each counseling session contains specific behavioral objectives to be achieved, an introduction material, presentation procedure and evaluation questions. "Procedure", as defined here, refers to the steps followed by the researcher and the content covered for that particular step. A time limit of forty five minutes allowed for each treatment session. The eight treatment sessions have common general objectives which are expected to be achieved by the end of the entire program. The major purpose of developing these general objectives among others is to intimate the principal of the participating schools, officials of the Ministry of Education and the participants themselves about the significance and the expected benefits of the program, so as to ward off any possible misconception about the program.

During the brainstorming session, the following four basic ground rules for effective brainstorming were adhered to, viz.

1. Disallowing of Criticisms
2. Encouragement of free – wheeling
3. Encouragement of thought quantity
4. Seeking for thought combination and improvement.

To ensure that these rules were adhered to, members of the treatment group were told the importance of adhering to these basic ground rules, i.e., the full effect of the

brainstorming session can be made more realizable when each participant adheres to the rules by assuming the attitudes the rule implies.

Brainstorming Session: The brainstorming session was conducted by the researcher. Two schools were used for this study; one school for the treatment and the other for the control. In each of the selected schools, there are 12 subjects comprising of equal number of male and female (6 males and 6 females). The treatment group is further subdivided into two equal subgroups (made up of 3 males and 3 females) for effective treatment sessions. This, according to Loser (1957), is ideal for group counseling and group therapy. In addition, he asserts that this will enhance good rapport between the group members and the researcher.

There are eight treatment sessions for a period of eight weeks, each treatment session per week. Each treatment session was conducted over a period of 45 minutes for each subgroup per week for a period of 8 weeks. A day in a week was chosen to carry out the brainstorming treatment over a period of eight weeks.

The session took place in the counseling room of the selected school. The room was calm, well ventilated and well lit and has different colours to aid brain. Sessions were held between 10 and 11 a.m., when brain activity is highest. At the beginning of the session, the researcher explained the rules of the brainstorming session and hung them on the wall. The researcher also explained the objectives of the session, described the introduction material and the presentation procedure.

During the brainstorming session, which was the treatment, usually a problem is posed and students were encouraged to find as many different solutions or answers as possible. Such approaches are termed divergent because the students use the problem as a starting point and seek many solutions instead of the one “right one”.

3.7.4 Post- Treatment Phase

This is the final phase of the counseling intervention. After the completion of the eight sessions for subjects exposed to brainstorming treatment, both the treatment and control groups were again subjected to self esteem assessment using the Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale. This measure serves as the post test.

First Treatment Session

Activity One: Increasing Self-esteem

Time: 45 minutes **Group size: six**

Objectives for students

Knowledge: Understand the concept of self-esteem.

Attitudes/values: Appreciate how people, events and circumstances influence self-esteem.

Skills: Explore their personal sense of self-esteem and self-worth.

Learning Experiences

1. In the large group, students brainstorm definitions of self-esteem and write them on the white board.
2. Individually, participants complete Self-esteem Worksheet One: Self-esteem Inventory of Positives with the first positive thoughts that come to mind.
3. In groups of three, students discuss the worksheet.
4. Discuss their responses in the small group and have them consider the following question: Is the way you see yourself the same or different from how you think others see you?
5. Have the members suggest what they would actually put in the right hand side column for the other members of the group.

Second Treatment Session

Activity Two: Influences on Self-Esteem

Time: 45 minutes **Group Size:** six

Objectives for students

Knowledge: Identify influences on how people feel about themselves.

Attitudes/values: Understand how events, people and circumstances can influence self-esteem.

Skills: Cope with positive and negative influences on how we feel about ourselves.

Learning Experiences

1. Working individually, using the Self-esteem Worksheet Two: Self-esteem Barometer, students identify ten things, places, people or events that make them feel good about themselves and ten that cause them to feel not so good about themselves.
2. In groups of four, students discuss how the things, places, people and events, that have been identified, affect them in positive and negative ways. Ask students to work out ways to maximise the positive things and play down the negative things.
3. Write two things that you can do that will make you feel good about yourself.
4. In small groups consider: "How would you feel about the following circumstances?"
    a. You get suspended from school for playing truancy.
    b. You steal money from your family and friends to smoke cigarette.
    c. A friend you introduce to drugs becomes addicted.
    d. Your parent(s) find out you have not been attending classes.

e. Your partner leaves when he/she finds you abusing drugs.

5. Have small groups share the contents of their discussion.

Third Treatment Session

Activity Three: Animals and Good Features

Time: 45minutes **Group size**: individual

Objectives for students

Knowledge: Develop self-awareness and awareness of others' good features.

Attitudes/values: Experience and value feelings of worth and belonging.

Skills: Exchange positive comments among the group.

Learning Experiences

1. Working individually, students draw themselves as an animal that they believe has similar characteristics to themselves. Do not write anything about the animal.
2. Fold the drawing to ensure confidentiality and place it in the middle of the room.
3. Each student chooses a drawing from the pile.
4. On the drawing each person now lists all the good things that they can think of about that animal. It is important only positive things are listed.
5. Taking turns, each animal is shown and the good things are read out about the animal.
6. The pictures can be displayed and/or returned to the student.

Fourth Treatment Session

Activity Four: Personal Goals

Time: 45 minutes **Group size:** six

Objectives for students

Knowledge: Identify issues that are important to them.

Attitudes/values: Express and share with others issues that are important to them.

Skills: Establish personal goals for future achievement.

Learning experiences

1. Individually, students write down their responses to the following statements:

i. One thing that is really important to me is----------

ii. One thing that is not important to me at present, but I have to do is---------

iii. One obstacle I want to overcome or problem I want to solve is----------

2. In groups of five, share and discuss the responses.

Fifth Treatment Session

Activity Five: Life on the Line

Time: 45 minutes **Group size:** six

Objectives for students

Knowledge: Identify significant achievement and events in their lives.

Attitudes/values: Feel comfortable sharing significant life achievements and events.

Skills: Reflect on and share significant aspects of their life to others.

Learning Experiences

1. Students draw a line on a piece of paper. Write at the start of the line birth date and at the end of the line end of life date and put today's date on a point somewhere in between. Advice students that they asked questions to share their Life on the Line with other students, as this may affect what they record.
2. On the line from birth to today, write/draw five significant events or achievements, such as starting school, getting a job, moving to a new community and meeting a partner. On the line from now to death write five things they would like to achieve before they finish their life.
3. Students share in pairs the events and achievements they have recorded with as many other students as possible in the time.
4. Students can roam around the group and share with three other people of their choice.

Sixth Treatment Session

Activity Six: Personal Crest

Time: 45 minutes **Group size:** individual/pairs

Objectives for students

Knowledge: List and consider aspects of their own lives.

Attitudes/values: Develop personal feelings of worth in all students and empathy with other students.

Skills: Share positive personal qualities, values, hopes and dreams.

Learning experiences

1. Students develop a personal crest that reflects their current perception of themselves. On a piece of paper draw a triangle and divide it into five segments.

2. Turn the triangle upside down so that the point of the triangle is at the bottom of the page. Number each of the segments from one to five and have them decoratively write their name at the top of the page outside the triangle.
3. Students complete their crest by including the following information in the individual segments of the triangle:
    i. Someone important to you
    ii. A favorite place
    i. A value or belief that you would never change
    ii. A value or belief you would like the world to live by
    iii. Three things you would hope others say about you
4. Students can draw or use words to represent the items. Advice students they asked questions to share their Personal Crest with others. This may affect what they write.
5. Encourage students to select someone they have worked with previously and discuss their Personal Crest.
    i. practice.

Seventh Treatment Session

Activity Seven: Secret Friend

Time: 45 minutes **Group size**: six

Objectives for Students

Knowledge: Develop a better understanding of group members.

Attitudes/values: Show appreciation of the qualities of others.

Skills: Demonstrate empathy for the group and interact effectively with other group members.

Learning Experiences

1. Students write their name on a small piece of paper and place it in a basket or box.

2. Everyone, without looking, selects a name from the basket/box. The name should not be their name and they should not reveal the name they selected to anyone.

3. Throughout their time together, students seek out opportunities to get to know their secret person and observe their positive characteristics, and discuss with them their interests, hopes and dreams.

4. During the final lesson of the program, students are asked to make a presentation to their Secret Friend. The student speaks of their Secret Friend and the group can try to guess who they are talking about. It is important to stress that the gift to their Secret Friend should not be bought and must be positive in nature. It is critical to ensure that the activity is done at a time when all students are present to ensure that no one misses out.

Note: Gifts could include: a poem, a song, a drawing, a work of art or craft, a description of a holiday, a shopping list of things you would like to get them.

Eighth Treatment Session

Activity Eight: Self-esteem Envelopes

Time: 45 minutes **Group size:** six

Objectives for Students

Knowledge: Observe other students and note positive qualities and abilities.

Attitudes/values: Develop feelings of belonging and a sense of worth in all students.

Skills: Become competent in giving and receiving positive feedback.

Learning experiences

1. Distribute an envelope to all students. On the back of the envelope, everyone writes their name in large letters.

2. On a wall in the classroom, display all the open envelopes with the names facing outwards.

3. At the completion of each activity, or each session, students are asked to write a positive comment about someone they have worked with or observed working, on a small slip of paper. These comments are anonymous but must be positive.

4. At the completion of all activities, all students are presented with their envelope, filled with positive comments for them to take home.

i. Comments in the envelopes are to remain private.

ii. Students are requested not to look at them until the last activity of the program.

iii. Presentation of envelopes is best as a final activity.

3.8 Procedure for Data Analysis

Data collected were both descriptively and statistically analyzed. The descriptive analysis of frequency and simple percentages was used for demographic items, mean and standard deviation to answer research questions. The statistical technique used to test the null hypotheses was t-test involving comparison between the pre-treatment and post-treatment scores of the subjects.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the data analysis including the discussion of results. The first part of this chapter presents demographic variables of the respondents in frequencies and percentages.. The second part presents and interprets the three null hypotheses by means of Independent t test statistics. All hypotheses were tested at 0.05 alpha level of significance. The third part outlined the major findings of the study and the last part discussed the findings of the study in details.

4.2 Data Presentation

A total of twenty four (24) students made up of twelve (12) from the treatment group and twelve (12) from the control group were used in the experiment. Frequency and percentage of students involved in this study in both groups are indicated in the table below.

Table 4. 1 Distribution of male and female respondents in the Treatment and Control groups

Groups	**Sex**			
	Male	**Female**	**Total**	**%**
Treatment	6	6	12	50%
Control	6	6	12	50%
Total	12	12	24	100%

According to the tables above (treatment and control groups) each has 12 students in the experiment, with each having 12 or 50% of male and 12 or 50% of female respectively. This implies that equal numbers of male and female students were used in both groups.

Table 4. 2: Distribution of respondents in the Treatment and Control groups by Age

Groups	Age Group			
	Lower Age (12-13yrs)	**Upper Age (14-15yrs)**	**Total**	**%**
Treatment	6	6	12	50%
Control	6	6	12	50%
Total	12	12	24	100%

The tables above showed the distribution of the respondents by age for treatment and control groups separately. For each group, it shows that 50% of the respondents' age falls between 12 – 13 years while the remaining 50% fall between 14- 15 years. This illustrates that the respondents were evenly represented in each group.

4.3 Testing of the Hypotheses

Hypothesis One: There is no significant effect of brainstorming counseling technique on low self esteem among secondary school students.

Table 4. 3: Independent t-test among respondents in the treatment and control group

Group	Mean	SD	N	df	t-cal.	t-crit.	p-value
Treatment Group	26.7000	2.16282	12	23	3.78	1.98	.000
Control Group	22.6000	1.50555	12				

Calculated p < 0.05, calculated t > 1.96 at df 23

This table shows that; students who were exposed to treatment had higher mean scores of (26.7) while those who were not expose to it had lower mean scores(22.6) indicating that; students exposed to brainstorming technique had their poor self esteem improved compared to those not exposed to the treatment in Kaduna North Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

Furthermore, the table also showed that the t-calculated is 3.78 while the t-critical 1.98 at 0.05% level of significance. The result of the table shows that there is significant effect of brainstorming on treatment group (t= 3.78, p= 0.000).This is because; calculated p-value of 0.000 is less than 0.05 alpha level of significance, while calculated t-value is 3.78 at degree of freedom of 23.This implies that the subjects in the treatment group had their self-esteem boosted/improved as a result of

the exposure to brainstorming technique. Therefore, the null hypothesis which states that; there is no significant effect of brainstorming counseling technique on low self-esteem among secondary school students is hereby rejected.

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant effect of brainstorming counseling technique on low self esteem level among male and female secondary school students.

Table 4. 4: Independent t test between male and female respondents in the treatment group after brainstorming technique.

Sex	Mean	Std.	N	df	t-cal	t-crit.	p-value
Male	28.1000	3.10734	6				
Female	21.5000	2.01384	6	11	2.12	1.81	.000

Calculated p < 0.05, calculated t > 1.96 at df 11.

The table reveals that male respondents in the treatment group had higher mean score of 28,100 and Standard deviation of 3.10734, while their female counterparts had mean score of 21.5000 and standard deviation of 2.01384. This demonstrates that the effect of brainstorming on the male respondents is higher than that of their female counterparts

Besides, the result of t-test analysis as indicated in Table 4.7 above shows that the calculated t-value is 2.12 and the calculated p-value is 0.000. The outcome of this table shows that there is a gender difference in the effect of brainstorming technique on self esteem of the respondents. This is because the calculated p-value of 0.000 is less than 0.05 alpha level of significance, while the calculated t-value is 2.12 at degree of freedom of 11. The difference according to the result of the independent t-statistics was significant (t=2.12, p=0.000). Hence, the null hypothesis which states that there is no significance difference in the effect of brainstorming technique on self esteem between male and female secondary school respondents is hereby rejected.

Null Hypothesis three: There is no significant effect of brainstorming counseling technique on low self esteem level among secondary school students of different age bracket.

Table 4. 5: Independent t-test among secondary school students of different age bracket in the treatment group after brainstorming technique.

Class group	Mean	Std.	N	df	t-cal	t-crit.	p-value
12 – 13 years	22.0500	1.82021	6				
14 – 15 years	27.4000	2.70283	6	11	2.94	2.00	.000

Calculated p < 0.05, calculated t > 1.96 at df 11

The table above shows that upper Age bracket respondents in the treatment group had means score of 27,400 and Standard deviation of 2.70283, while the respondents in the lower Age bracket had mean score of 22.0500 and standard deviation of 1.82021. It means that the respondents in the upper Age bracket experienced more improvement in their self esteem.

In addition, the table also revealed that the calculated t-value is 2.94 and the calculated p-value is 0.000. The result of this table shows that significant difference exists between the respondents in the upper and lower age bracket in their level of improved self esteem after exposure to brainstorming counselling technique. This is because calculated p-value of 0.000 is less than 0.05 alpha level of significance, while calculated t-value of 2.94 at degree of freedom of 11 is greater than 1.96. It implies that the respondents in the upper age bracket had more improved self esteem than their lower age bracket counterparts. Therefore, the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the effect of brainstorming technique on low self esteem level among secondary school students of different age bracket is hereby rejected.

4.4 Summary of Major Findings

The following are the major findings of the study:

1) . Brainstorming counselling technique is effective in improving self-esteem among secondary school students (t-crit. 1.98> p= .000).
2) There is significant effect of brainstorming counselling technique on low self esteem level among male and female secondary school students. The effect is sex differentiated (2.12 >1.81).
3) There is significant effect of brainstorming counselling technique on low self esteem level among secondary school students of different age bracket. The effect is age differentiated (2.94 > 2.00).

4.5 Discussion

Based on the above analysis of results, the study revealed the following findings:

The study finding showed that brainstorming counselling technique is effective in improving self-esteem among secondary school students. This finding was in consonance with the study conducted by Sambo (2002) that brainstorming technique was effective in enhancing the ideative creativity potentials of the students and that the post treatment creative scores of both the creative and non creative respondents were significantly higher than the pre-treatment scores. Eliza (2009) also found that members in the treatment group showed an overall decline of their scores in the self-esteem measure which indicate the improvement of their self-esteem problem. The finding also agreed with Adeyemi and Ajibade (2011) that there was a significant main effect of the treatment on students' achievement in social studies. According to Heatherton and Polivy (2001), added that brainstorming enhanced in the treatment group who were exposed to brainstorming counselling technique in three components. These components includes: performance self-esteem, social self-esteem, and physical self-esteem. Each of these components, in turn, can be broken down into smaller and smaller subcomponents. Performance self-esteem refers to one's sense of general competence and includes intellectual abilities, school performance, self-regulatory capacities, self-confidence, efficacy, and agency. Steele, Spencer & Lynch (2003) noted that high self-esteem individuals have been shown to rationalize esteem threatening decisions much better than those with low self-esteem and this is primarily due to the fact that high self-esteem individuals have more favorable self-concepts with which to affirm.

The study finding revealed that male subjects had higher improvement in their self-esteem level than their female counterpart after exposure to brainstorming

counselling technique. This finding correlated with Adeyemi and Ajibade (2011) that there was a significant main effect of brainstorming on gender on students' achievement in social studies. And that there was significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on students' achievement in social studies. Oyefeso and Zacheaus (1990**)** noted that male adolescent's express higher self-esteem than female adolescents. Heatherton (2001) added that there is salient gender difference in feelings about the self across the lifespan because women tend to have lower body image satisfaction than men. Women are more likely than men to evaluate specific body features negatively, to attempt weight loss, to report anxiety about the evaluation of their physical appearance and to have cosmetic surgery. According to Stein, Newcomb and Bentler (2002), during adolescence, an agentic orientation predicted heightened self-esteem for males but not for females, whereas a communal orientation predicted heightened self-esteem for females but not for males. Lauren, Alan, Arvin and Carl (2008), observed that low body-image, low self-esteem and global self-worth were also uniquely associated with risk behaviours in girls, but not in boys. However, this finding is contrary to the results obtained by Jennifer, Sanel, Laura and Kamini (2004) who found no significance difference between male and female or between races with respect to self-esteem. Erol & Orth (2011) noted in their study that no results depicting a significant difference exist between self-esteem trajectories of men and women. Furthermore, Markus, Joseph and Tafarodi (2002) also in their study found that men and women showed the same self-esteem pattern.

The study finding found that the respondents in the upper age bracket had higher self-esteem than those in the lower age bracket after exposure to brainstorming technique. This study finding is consistent with the submissions of Erol and Orth (2007) that self-esteem increases moderately through adolescence and continues to increase in

young adulthood at a slower rate. Erol and Orth also noted that a high sense of mastery, low risk taking and better overall health predicted higher self-esteem in participants at each age level. Richard (2002) also found age differences in self-esteem from age 9 to 90 years and found that self-esteem levels were high in childhood, dropped during adolescence, rose gradually throughout adulthood and declined sharply in old age. This study's results give much support to the implementation of self-esteem improvement interventions in young children or adolescents.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the summary and conclusion of the study made based on the findings of the study. Recommendations are also stated. Likewise, suggestions for further research are presented.

5.2 Summary

A number of emotional problems and antisocial behaviours such as anxiety, depression, teenage pregnancy, bullying, aggression, and criminal behaviours, are being found among adolescents in secondary schools in Nigeria and reported daily in mass media. These emotional problems and antisocial behaviours have been closely linked with low self esteem. Hence, this study was designed to examine the effect of brainstorming technique on low self-esteem of secondary school students in Kaduna State. For this to be achieved, three objectives, three research questions, and three null hypotheses which are that there is no significant effect of brainstorming counseling technique on low self-esteem among secondary school students; there is no significant effect of brainstorming counseling technique on low self-esteem level among male and female secondary school students and there is no significant effect of brainstorming counseling technique on low self-esteem level among secondary school students of different age bracket were posited and tested.

Chapter two was concerned with review of related literature to the study under sub-headings: the conceptual framework of the self, Rosenberg's Concept of the Self, Self Concept and Self-esteem, The Construct of Self-esteem, Three Ways the Term Self-Esteem is Used, Relations among the Three Constructs, Self-esteem Development, Self-esteem Maintenance, Importance of Self-esteem, and Relationships between Self-esteem and Gender, Academic and Delinquent Behaviours, Gender Differences in Self-Esteem and the theoretical

framework which include: Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs suggested that self-esteem is a basic human need or motivation. Sociometer theory proposed that self-esteem evolved to monitor one's social acceptance and is used as a gauge for avoiding social devaluation and rejection. Carl Rogers viewed the child as having two basic needs: unconditional positive regard from other people and self-worth. William James argued that self-esteem developed from the accumulation of experiences in which people's outcomes exceeded their goals on some important dimension, under the general rule that self-esteem = success/pretensions. Cooley proposed the looking-glass self theory, in which self-appraisals are viewed as inseparable from social milieu.

The chapter also elaborates on definition of brainstorming counseling technique, how the brainstorming works, brainstorming Guidelines, Types/Methods of brainstorming counseling technique among others. Many empirical studies conducted regarding the effects of brainstorming on group idea generation were also highlighted.

Chapter three presented the research design adopted for this study which is quasi-experimental research design, the population of this study, the sample and sampling techniques, the instrumentation which was duly validated and its reliability determined. The procedure for data collection and Data analysis was also presented in this chapter. Statistical tools were used to analyze data collected and the result presented in chapter four of this study.

Chapter four deals with presentation of results and data analysis with the use of descriptive statistics of frequency, simple percentages to presents the demographic data of the subjects, mean and standard deviation were used in answering the research 1-3, while null hypotheses (I-3) were tested using t-test statistics to test significant difference in the effect of brainstorming counselling technique between the subjects in the treatment and subjects in the controlled group at 0.05 level of significance. The

study findings revealed that brainstorming counselling technique is effective in improving self-esteem among secondary school students, it was found that male respondents had higher improvement in their self-esteem than their female counterpart after exposure to brainstorming counselling technique, result showed that the subjects in the upper age bracket had higher self-esteem than those in the lower age bracket after exposure to brainstorming technique.

Chapter five was on the summary, conclusion, recommendations, suggestion for further studies and limitation of the study.

5.3 Contribution to Knowledge

The following are the contribution to knowledge:

1) Brainstorming counselling technique is effective in improving self-esteem among secondary school students (p= .000).
2) There is significant effect of brainstorming counselling technique on low self esteem level among male and female secondary school students. The effect is sex differentiated (p= .000).
3) There is significant effect of brainstorming counselling technique on low self esteem level among secondary school students of different age bracket. The effect is age differentiated (p= .000).

5.4 Conclusion

Based on the findings of this research, the following conclusions were made:

The research is able to indicate that brainstorming counseling technique can be effective in improving self esteem among secondary school students in Kaduna North local government area of Kaduna state.

Secondly, the acquisition of high self esteem by secondary school students will make them to consider themselves worthy and equal to others and promote good emotional and psychological development. An important factor in handling different challenges encountered in adolescence is a positive self-concept and high self-esteem. So, acquisition of high self esteem by secondary students will in no doubt reduce their emotional problems and antisocial behaviors.

Finally, gender and age have strong correlations with self esteem. Thus, the male students as well as the respondents in upper Age bracket have proven to have higher self esteem level than their counterparts among those who received treatment.

5.5 Recommendations

From the result of this study, the following recommendations were raised:

1. The study showed significant difference in the self-esteem of secondary school students in treatment and control group; the study recommends that school psychologists and counsellors adopt brainstorming counselling technique as a corrective measures in improving the self-esteem of secondary school students; teachers and parents should both individually and collectively assist students with low self-esteem through moral support, love, care and by engaging them in brainstorming counseling technique to improve their self-esteem. This is in line with WHO recommendation that strengthening students' self-esteem is important to protect children and adolescents against mental distress and despondency, enabling them to cope adequately with difficult and stressful life situations.
2. The study also showed significant difference in the self esteem of male and female secondary school students. The study recommends that more attention should be paid to the secondary school girls as well as the adolescents in their early teens as they are

more proned to low self-esteem and that timely and proper assessment be carried out by school psychologists and counsellors on secondary school students through the use of psychological testing instruments specifically self-esteem questionnaire. This will assist in early detection of the problems and necessary solutions including brainstorming counselling to resolve it.

3. The findings showed that subjects in the upper age bracket were found to have higher self-esteem. The study therefore recommends that school and the classroom teachers should take a critical self-esteem assessment of the students from time to time (periodically) as they grow up with the use of RSE Scale to discover those students with self-esteem problems promptly and possibly apply brainstorming technique to solve their problems.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies

The other areas that may require further researches are as follows:

1. Only JSS III Students were used in this research, future research should include other levels in secondary schools for similar studies. This will improve the validity of the research findings.
2. Public schools in the metropolis were used for this study; future research can also incorporate the private schools.
3. The training programme was scheduled for eight weeks in this study and there was significant improvement in the self esteem of the treatment group. A further research can be conducted to find out the effect of reducing the number of weeks used in treatment on self esteem.
4. Low self-esteem is too broad a concept and it is situation specific. It must be broken down into its components, and we must identify and alleviate each patient's low self-esteem components. Future research can be conducted to

identify and treat each patient's low self-esteem components in each specific situation.

5. Follow-up is very important after a treatment program is given. In view of this, further similar research on self esteem should include follow-up into the study so as to determine whether the high self esteem achieved has been maintained for a certain period after the treatment program.

5.7 Limitation of the Study

The study has some limitations, some of which include:

During the course of the study, researcher encountered some hindrances as constraints which included, accessibility to the areas, like town schools located where some roads are not motorable.

The study was restricted to only JSS 3 students in Kaduna North local government area of Kaduna State, the researcher should have included JSS 1 & 2 and SSS 1, 2 & 3.

The researcher would have loved to cover all the secondary schools in Kaduna States. However, time, cost and other extraneous circumstances, confined the research to schools in Kaduna North Local Government Area, Kaduna State. This perhaps played a role in the findings obtained from this study.

The experiment was limited by the cost of hiring the digital projector. This increased the number of days originally prepared for the experiment by two weeks, two days each.

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APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE EFFECT OF BRAINSTORMING COUNSELLING TECHNIQUE ON SELF ESTEEM AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN KADUNA NORTH LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA, KADUNA STATE.

Dear respondents,

This research is aimed at finding the effect of brainstorming counselling technique on self esteem among secondary school students in Kaduna North Local Government Area. The researcher requests your kind assistance in completing this questionnaire honestly. Your responses shall be treated confidentially.

Thanks for your anticipated co-operation

Yours insincerely

LAWAL ZAINAB

SECTION A

BIO-DATA

Name of School ……..

Name of the respondent ……..

Class ……..

Age ……..

Sex : Male ( ) Female ( ) . Tick appropriately.

SECTION B

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale (RSE)

Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. If you strongly agree, circle SA. If you agree with the statement, circle A. If you disagree, circle D. If you strongly disagree, circle SD.

Statement		**1. Strongly Agree**	**2 Agree**	**3. Disagree**	**4. Strongly Disagree**
1.	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	SA	A	D	SD
2.	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	SA	A	D	SD
3.	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	SA	A	D	SD
4.	I am able to do things as well as most other people.	SA	A	D	SD
5.	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	SA	A	D	SD
6.	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	SA	A	D	SD
7.	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	SA	A	D	SD
8.	I wish I could have more respect for myself.	SA	A	D	SD
9.	I certainly feel useless at times.	SA	A	D	SD
10.	At times I think I am no good at all.	SA	A	D	SD

APPENDIX II

NAMES OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN KADUNA NORTH LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA, KADUNA STATE.

S/NO	SCHOOL	LOCATION
1	Capital school	Malali, Kd.
2	G.G.S.S	Kawo, Kd
3	S.M.C	Signboard, Kd.
4	G.S.S(SNR)	Kawo, Kd
5	G.S.S(JNR)	Kawo, Kd
6	G.J.S.S	Badarawa, Kd.
7	G.J.S.S	U/Shanu, Kd
8	G.G.S.S(SNR)	U/Sarki, Kd
9	G.G.S.S(JNR)	U/Sarki, Kd
10	G.S.S(SNR)	U/Sarki, Kd
11	G.S.S(JNR)	U/Sarki, Kd
12	G.J.S.S	U/Rimi, Kd
13	Rimi College	U/Rimi, Kd
14	Government College	K/Mashi, Kd.
15	G.J.S.S	K/Mashi, Kd.
16	G.G.S.S(SNR)(M/Gwarzo)	T/Wada, Kd.
17	G.G.S.S(JNR)(M/Gwarzo)	T/Wada, Kd.
18	G.J.S.S	Richifa, T/W, Kd.
19	G.S.S(SNR)	Kargi, T/W, Kd.
20	G.S.S(JNR)	Kargi, T/W, Kd.
21	G.G.S.S(SNR)	U/Muazu, Kd.
22	G.G.S.S(JNR)	U/Muazu, Kd.
23	G.G.S.S(SNR)	Ind. Way, Kd.
24	G.G.S.S(JNR)	Ind.Way, Kd.
25	G.G.S.S(SNR)	K/Costain, Kd.
26	G.G.S.S(JNR)	K/Costain, Kd.
27	G.G.S.S(SNR)	Doka, Kd.
28	G.G.S.S(JNR)	Doka, Kd.
29	G.S.S(SNR)	Doka, Kd.

30	G.S.S(JNR)	Doka, Kd.
31	G.S.S(SNR)	Rigasa, Kd.
32	G.S.S(JNR)	Rigasa, Kd.
33	G.J.S.S	Rigasa Central, Kd.
34	G.S.S	T/Nupawa, Kd.
35	G.J.S.S	B/Ruwa, Kd.
36	G.J.S.S	K/West, Kd.
37	G.J.S.S	Kadi, Kd.
38	KASSES	Tafa Balewa Way, Kd.

APPENDIX III
Analysis of Response to the Research Questions

Research Question 1: What is the effect of brainstorming on self esteem of secondary school students?

Analysis of Response of the subjects to the effect of brainstorming technique on low self-esteem among secondary school students in Kaduna North Local Government Area

S/n	Item	Groups	
		Treatment	Control
1.	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plan with others		
2.	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.		
3.	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.		
4.	I am able to do things as well as most other people.		
5.	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.		
6.	I take a positive attitude toward myself.		
7.	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.		
8.	I wish I could have more respect for myself.		
9.	I certainly feel useless at times.		
10.	At times I think I am not good at all.		

Source: Field Study (2016).

Response to Research Question 2

What is the effect of brainstorming technique on low self-esteem level among males and females secondary school students?

Table 4.3.2: Analysis of Mean and Standard Deviation of Self-esteem scores of Male and Female Subjects

S/N	Item	Male		Female	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.				
2.	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.				
3.	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.				
4.	I am able to do things as well as most other people				
5.	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.				
6.	I take a positive attitude toward myself				
7.	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.				
8.	I wish I could have more respect for myself.				
9.	I certainly feel useless at times.				
10.	At times I think I am not good at all.				

Response to Research Question 3

Analysis of Response of the Subjects to the effect of brainstorming technique on low self-esteem level among secondary school students of different age bracket

S/N	Item	Lower Age Brackets (12-13 Years)	Upper Age Brackets (14-15 years)
1.	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others		
2.	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.		
3.	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.		
4.	I am able to do things as well as most other people.		
5.	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.		
6.	I take a positive attitude toward myself.		
7.	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.		
8.	I wish I could have more respect for myself.		
9.	I certainly feel useless at times.		
10.	At times I think I am no good at all.		

APPENDIX IV
Pilot Testing Result

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	60	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	60	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Part 1	Value	1.000
		N of Items	60[a]
	Part 2	Value	1.000
		N of Items	60[b]
	Total N of Items		120
Correlation Between Forms			.952
Spearman-Brown Coefficient	Equal Length		.920
	Unequal Length		.920
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient			***.957**

a. The items are: Administration1

b. The items are: administration2