EFFECTIVENESS OF SELF-EXPLORATION PROGRAMME IN ENHANCING ADOLESCENT GIRLS' SELF-CONCEPT IN KATSINA MUNICIPALITY

BY

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DECLARATION

I, Abigail Maikudi hereby declare that this thesis is a record of my own research work. It has not been presented partially or wholly anywhere in any previous application for a higher degree in this university or any other institution. Information derived from published work of others has been acknowledged in the text.



Abigail Maikudi

CERTIFICATION

This thesis entitled "Effectiveness of Self-Exploration Programme in Enhancing Adolescent Girls' Self-Concept in Katsina Municipality", by Abigail Maikudi meets the regulations governing the award of the Master's Degree in Education (Guidance and Counselling) of Ahmadu Bello University Zaria and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Rev. Maikudi Kure Matazu and Late Mrs. Ladi Maikudi Kure who sacrificially laid the solid foundation for my spiritual and intellectual development.

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I give glory, honour and adoration to God Almighty who made it possible for me to complete this study.

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ABSTRACT

This research was conducted to determine the effectiveness of self- exploration programme in enhancing adolescent girls' self-concept in Katsina municipality. Four null hypotheses were put forward to guide the study.

The study was conducted among the students of Government Girls' College, Katsina and Government Girls' Secondary School, Jibia. Twenty students from Government Girls' College, Katsina formed the experimental group while twenty students from Government Girls' Secondary School Jibia formed the control group. Both groups consisted of equal number of junior and senior students. The control group received no treatment while the experimental group attended the self-exploration programme sessions over a period of eight weeks.

Subjects of the experimental and control groups had undergone pre-test and post-test using the Self-Concept Inventory (SCI) designed by the researcher. Analyses of the data collected revealed that the groups studied are homogenous and the programme has enhanced the self-concepts of subjects of the groups studied. It also shows significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental and control groups. The following hypotheses were tested.

1. **Thereis no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the experimental and control groups before the treatment.**
2. **Thereis no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the experimental and control groups after treatment.**
3. **Thereis no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the SSS students of the experimental group before and after treatment.**

4. **There is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the JSS students of the experimental group before and after the treatment. Hypothesis one and four were retained while hypotheses two and three were rejected. The findings of this study (with Nigerian subjects) are unique in the sense that the observed difference was a reduction in the self-concept scores of subjects of the experimental group instead of the anticipated increase. This decrease could be attributed to the self-awareness and acceptance obtained during the treatment session, leading to a more realistic post-test self-evaluation with less inhibition. This is a positive step towards self-concept enhancement.**

This study brought to light, among other things, the challenging nature of conducting research involving self-concept change. However, considering the importance of self-concept in the overall development of the individual, more research studies should be conducted on methods of enhancing self-concept especially among adolescents. The self-concept inventory could be used by counsellors in their effort towards self-concept enhancement.

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DEFINITION OF TERMS/ABBREVIATIONS/SYMBOLS

The key terms of this study are operationally defined as follows:

1.	Self-Concept	:	A total set of beliefs, perceptions and evaluations the individual has about himself. For the purpose of this study, self-concept will be synonymous with self-esteem, self-image, self-evaluation, self-picture and self-perception.
2.	Positive Self-Concept	:	The state of having a positive perception of oneself. It means having high self-esteem, self-acceptance or realistic self-concept.
3.	Negative Self-Concept	:	The state of having a negative perception of oneself. It means having low self-esteem or unrealistically high self-concept.
4.	Enhancing Self-Concept	:	A process of assisting individuals to acquire more positive self-concept.
5.	Group Counselling	:	The art of counselling people in groups.
6.	Self-Exploration Programme	:	This is a programme designed to help individuals examine their resources and apply them in problem solving and enhancement of positive self-concept.
7.	Adolescence	:	The period of growing into maturity. The transition from childhood to adulthood.
8.	Adolescent	:	A person "... growing up, between childhood and maturity (12 or 13 to 20 years)" Hornby (1971: 14).
9.	Effectiveness	:	For the purpose of this study, the word effectiveness means the extent of accomplishment in terms of bringing about positive change in self-concept.
10.	JSS	:	Junior Secondary School
11.	SSS	:	Senior Secondary School
12.	GGC	:	Government Girls' College
13.	GGSS	:	Government Girls' Secondary School
14.	SCI	:	Self-Concept Inventory

Chapter 1

THE PROBLEM

1.1 Introduction

Human beings tend to behave in ways that conform to how they feel they should be and how they think others perceive them. Self-concept, which consists of beliefs and evaluations the individual has about himself is considered as the main determinant of behaviour, and this important aspect of personality could either be positive or negative.

A positive self-concept is essential for personal happiness, school achievement and effective functioning. Burns (1982: v) observes that:

> Psychologists and educationists are becoming more aware of the fact that an individual's self-concept, or his attitude to and perception of himself, are intimately related to how he learns and behaves. Evidence suggests that low performance in school work, poor motivation, misbehaviour and academic disengagement so characteristic of the underachiever the early leaver, the disadvantaged and the delinquent are due in part to negative self-attitudes and perceptions.

It is therefore important for educationists and counsellors to help students form clear, realistic picture of themselves and their potentials. This self-understanding would pave the way for setting and achieving realistic goals.

In developed countries, the importance of positive self-concept has long been realised. Therefore, a lot of research has been done on self-concept and methods of enhancing it. However, in Nigeria, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, a lot of research need to be conducted in this field with the view of finding or developing suitable methods of enhancing self-concept among Nigerians. Jegede (1983: 69), aptly observes that, "while the self-concept of American adolescents has been intensively studied, relatively little work has been done in this area in the case of Nigerian adolescents."

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Development of positive self-concept is an important psychological need that should be met in order to bring up a competent, respectable, self-reliant individual. Iroegbu (1987: 128) states that, "Many psychologists believe that it is only a child with a positive view of himself and his abilities who can benefit from and contribute to the school experience." Self-concept is thus a crucial factor in the learning process and overall development of the individual.

In Nigerian post primary institutions the student population is predominantly made up of adolescents. These students are in a period of physical, intellectual, social and moral development which is accompanied by a variety of problems that affect the self-concept. Burns (1982), Newman and Newman (1981) and Alport (1961), observe that adolescents are faced with an increase in self-ideal self-discrepancy and identity crisis that lead to anxiety. Okon (1988: 20) explains that,

> The biological changes of adolescence, including body-image changes, the intensified sexual drive and the "marginal" position that the adolescents occupy bring a lot of emotional tension and instability upon them. Their feelings and thoughts about themselves can influence their behaviour and emotional adjustment at home and school. All these points could attribute to the stresses and strains of today's adolescents.

However, girls tend to have more problems than boys during adolescence because, "the changing body image that occurs in adolescence seems to be more of a problem for the girl than for the boy. She suffers from the conjunction of attitudes that is most detrimental to the overall self-image" Burns (1982: 135). It is therefore not surprising that "in various ethnic group comparisons, girls appear to have lower levels of self-esteem than boys (Adams and Gullotta, 1983: 175)."

These observations point to the peculiar need for enhancing adolescent girls' self-concept.

The home, school and society should therefore contribute towards the development of positive self-concept of adolescents in general and girls in particular. However, Nigerian cultures, traditions and value orientation do not seem to provide a conducive atmosphere for such psychological growth. Bhatt and Esen (1972: 114) aptly describe the situation as follows:

> Todays Nigerian is an individual trying to realize the ideas of personal freedom and independence, but is hampered by all the antecedents of his authoritarian upbringing and psychological conditioning. His worst obstacles are fear and poor self image which not even a school education in its present mode has helped him to overcome.

Educational guidance counsellors have a vital role to play in salvaging the situation mentioned above. However, they can only do that if they have appropriate methods. There is therefore the need to explore self-concept enhancing methods especially in view of client counsellor ratio and low patronage given to counselling services in the country.

This research is concerned with how schools can help students develop positive self-concept. In this study, the focus is on using self-exploration programme to enhance adolescent girls' self-concept in Katsina municipality.

1.3 Objectives of the Research

The objectives of this research are:

1. To examine the effect of self-exploration programme on the self-concepts of the senior secondary school students of the experimental group.

2. To assess the impact of the self-exploration programme on the junior secondary school students' self-concept.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Positive self-concept is a basic component of achievement and self-actualization. Nigerian philosophy of education, being geared towards the national objectives, is oriented towards the 'self'. Emphasis is laid on self-realization and efficiency. Psychologically healthy individuals with realistic positive self-concept would contribute greatly towards the achievement of Nigeria's national and educational objectives. However, as observed by Okon (1988: 27), and Ekwe (1986: 40), in Nigeria, the school, home and society are not oriented towards the development of positive self-concept. Professional counsellors have great contribution to make in helping students to form positive views about themselves since, "the main concern of the guidance counsellor is to facilitate freedom and to help a student develop as a confident and self-reliant person (Cote, 1972: 89)."

This study is directed towards enhancing adolescent girls' self-concept. If found effective, self-exploration programme would be a time saving self-concept enhancing technique that could be used by counsellors. With the help of a counsellor, teachers can be trained to use the programme in their classes thereby facilitating the development of positive self-concept and minimizing the effect of shortage of trained counsellors in our schools.

The programme would also serve as a guide for counsellors to establish close contact with several students at a time, which might encourage them to go into individual counselling. It could therefore become a step towards reducing the problem of low patronage of counselling services in schools.

This study would also serve as a positive contribution in the area of research. More research work could be built from the study. It is hoped that the study would serve as a positive contribution towards enhancement of adolescent girls' self-concept. This self-concept enhancement could go a long way towards improving academic performance. It would help students to understand themselves and their potentials, which would enable them to tap and utilize their potentials effectively, thereby making wise, realistic choices in life and contribute positively towards nation building.

1.5 Research Questions

In this study, answers to the following questions are being sought:

1. What is the relationship between the self-concept level of the experimental and control groups before the treatment?
2. What is the effect of the treatment on the self-concept of SSS students?
3. What is the effect of the treatment on the self-concept of the JSS students?

1.6 Hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the experimental and control groups before the treatment.
2. There is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the experimental and control groups after treatment.
3. There is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the SSS students of the experimental group before and after treatment.
4. There is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the JSS students of the experimental group before and after the treatment.

1.7 Basic Assumptions

1. The self-exploration programme would be an effective means of enhancing JSS students' self-concept.
2. The self-exploration programme would be an effective means of enhancing SSS students' self-concept.

1.8 Scope and Delimitation of the Research

In this research, the effect of self-exploration programme on adolescent girls' self-concept was studied. The research covers students of Government Girls' College Katsina and Government Girls' Secondary School Jibia. These schools consist of students from various parts of Katsina State of Nigeria. The findings of this research can be generalized to any homogenous culture on the basis that the principle of experimental study was followed in conducting the research using self-exploration programme and self-concept inventory.

1.9 Summary

For effective decision-making, behaviour change and stimulation of personal growth, counselling and guidance towards self-understanding are necessary. In developed countries this need has long been realized and various methods are employed towards this direction. However, in Nigeria not much had been done in this area. In view of this, the researcher decides to work on SEP with the aim of evaluating its effectiveness in enhancing self-concept.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the main concern is with literature and research studies conducted on self-concept and its enhancement especially among adolescents. This includes discussion on self-concept and theories surrounding it, qualities, dimensions, development, enhancement and importance of self-concept. A review is also made of works related to adolescents, client-centered counselling and group counselling.

2.2 Definition of Self-Concept

Many writers have attempted to define or describe the term self-concept. According to Burns (1982: 1), "the self-concept is composed of all beliefs and evaluations you have about yourself." Mukherjee (1978: 277) explains that, "the set of feelings and cognition about oneself can be termed as one's self or self-concept." Eisenberg and Patterson (1978: 11) define self-concept as a total set of information, ideas, perceptions, assumptions and beliefs a person has about self." However, Jourand and Landsman (1980: 185) simply define self-concept as follows: "The self-concept is the picture we have of ourselves."

From the point of view of Derlega and Janda (1978: 131), "self-esteem involves how we think of ourselves whether in a generally positive or negative fashion." Similarly, Coopersmith (1967: 4) defines self-esteem as,

> the evaluation that the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself; it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which the individual believes

himself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a personal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds.

Rosenberg (1965: 30) simply defines self-esteem as "a positive or negative attitude towards a particular object namely the self."

Self-concept and self-esteem are often used in describing how people view themselves. From the above definitions, self-concept and self-esteem are closely related that they can be used interchangeably. They have a common feature, which is evaluation of the self. However, the self-concept tends to be broader since it consists of the various ways people view themselves. For the purpose of this study positive self-concept and negative self-concept will be synonymous with positive self-esteem and negative self-esteem respectively.

2.3 Theories of Self-Concept

Many theories have been postulated in the attempt to understand the self-concept and how it is formed. Some theories developed by psychoanalysts, social psychologists, and phenomenologists are discussed briefly.

2.3.1. The Psychoanalytic Theory

Freud viewed the self from the perspective of ego development and functioning. He divided the self into id, ego and superego. Buss (1978) observes that the id consists of biological urges and infantile desires which cause tension. The relief of such tension is pleasurable therefore the id operates on the principle of pleasure. The ego exerts control on overt responses in terms of styles, timing and intensity. The superego is made of internalized goals and morals. It also makes demands on the ego. The ego operates on the principle of reality while the id operates on the principle of pleasure. Buss (1978: 392) explains that,

> Psychoanalytic theory assumes that the ego is a core self that balances the internal demands of the id and the superego... In addition to demands from within the self there are demands and restrictions from the environment. The ego cannot ignore them, and it must somehow resolve the conflicting demands of both id and superego with those from the real world.

In essence, the self has the task of taming and integrating the diverse conflicting demands within the self and the environment. These inner underlying conflicts are responsible for outer observable behaviour. For the individual to have a positive self-concept, the psychoanalysts stress the need to have a balance of id, ego, and superego forces.

This theory has however been criticised for holding a negative view of human nature because of its emphasis on the unconscious and viewing human behaviour as being largely impulsive and irrational. Erikson (1968) and White (1963) observe that the psychoanalysts have ignored the core of human awareness that is the conscious 'I'. They stressed that psychoanalytic theory has failed to account for the ego's relation to reality. Rogers (1961) also contends that Freud has portrayed man as irrational, unsocialized and destructive.

However, despite its limitations, Freud's psychoanalytic theory serves as the foundation on which other theories were built. For instance, Erikson's psychosocial theory is a sort of extension of Freudian theory.

2.3.2 The Social Psychological Theory

Social psychologists lay emphasis on both psychological and sociological influences on the individual. James (1893), initiated the social psychological emphasis on the self-concept. Burns (1982) and Samuels (1977) explain that James divides the self into 'I' as the knower and 'M' as the known, or empirical self. The empirical self (which consists of everything a person call his) is further

divided into the spiritual self, material self, social self and the bodily self. The spiritual self is the source of interest, attention, effort, will and choice. It is made up of one's states of consciousness, psychic powers and dispositions. The material self consists of the individual's property, body, homes and family. Social self is related to social integration. Though he mentioned the need to nourish the body, James did not attach much importance to the bodily self.

Samuels (1977: 51) observes that, "as compared to the Freudians, the social psychologists put greater emphasis on conscious awareness and generally put greater stress on sociological factors than on instinctual ones in the development of the self." Social psychologists perceive the self from the perspective of individual society relationship. They opine that individual's self-conception is learnt from social interactions.

2.3.3 The Phenomenological Theory

Phenomenologists believe that behaviour is determined by the individual's perceptual field. That is, the unique way an individual perceives himself and his environment. This implies that behaviour can only be understood from the point of view of the behaving individual.

The main proponent of phenomenological viewpoint is Rogers (1951, 1959, 1961). Rogers' self theory holds that man is basically good and moving towards self actualization. In this theory, much emphasis is laid on conscious awareness, experience and the need for positive regards. Buss (1978: 396) observes that:

> In this framework, the basic conflict is between one's own experience and positive regard from others. The more a person is motivated only to please others and thereby obtain positive self-regard, the more he denies his own experience and become alienated from his true self. The solution, Rogers believes, is positive self-regard... status can be brought about only by others' accepting and loving the persons as he is without conditions. Only then can be

individual grow psychologically and realize his or her own talent and potential.

Rogers proposes that behaviour is regulated by the self-concept, and incongruence between the real and ideal self-concept leads to maladjustment. Burns (1982) explains that Rogers perceives behaviour as an effort to maintain consistency of the self-concept. The self-concept is threatened when the individual recognizes an experience that is in conflict with his self-concept. Such incongruence is coped with through defense mechanism.

Rogers' theory has been credited for its positive contribution to self theory and counselling. Hansen *et al.* (1982: 92) assert that, "no theorist, however has had as much influence on self theory and its relation to counselling as Carl Rogers. Rogers' concepts and their extension by theorists like Truax and Carkhuff are the mostly fully developed and most extensively researched positions on self-theory".

2.4 Dimensions of Self-Concept

Some writers categorized the dimensions of self-concept differently. Prietofesa, Leonard and Hoose (1978) divided the self-concept into three dimensions. The self as seen by self' consists of how the individual sees himself. 'The self as thought to be seen by others' is the attitude each person develops towards how people see him and he tries to live up to their expectations. 'The ideal self' represents the person one would like to become, aspirations and goals.

Samuels (1977) considers 'Body image' as the individual's perception of physical appearance and ability of the body to function. 'Social self' consists of the racial, ethnic, cultural and religious self. 'Cognitive self' is the process of becoming aware and gaining meaning from objects and events in the environment. 'Self-

esteem' is the evaluative sector of the self-concept. A person with high self-esteem respects himself and considers himself worthy.

Buss (1978) divides the self-concept into three. According to him, 'cognitive self' is made up of private and public self. Individuals have private covert thoughts, plans and memories. On the other hand there are observable overt social responses like talking, crying and laughing. 'Body image' consists of feelings the individual has about his body. That is, the way the body appears to a person. For example how strong or weak, large or small, beautiful or ugly, dependable or unreliable the body is. 'Self-esteem has two components. The core self-esteem results from unconditional parental love and inborn dispositions. Peripheral self-esteem is derived from personal achievements and affection from others.

For the purpose of this study, dimensions of the self-concept would be viewed as 'self as seen by me', 'self as thought to be seen by others', and 'the ideal self'. Each of these three dimensions would consist of bodily self, social self, and self-extension. However, it is important to note that these dimensions are intricately interwoven.

2.5 Importance of Self-Concept

The self-concept is a complex system of beliefs which the individual holds about himself. These beliefs are organized and dynamic. "There is agreement among researchers that self has a generally stable quality which is characterized by harmony and orderliness" (Murphy, 1947: 17). The self resists change so that it will experience a consistent and organized world. The self-concept is therefore important. The importance of self-concept could be viewed in terms of its impact on behaviour, psychological growth, school achievement and counselling.

2.5.1 Determines Behaviour

Self-concept is the main determinant of human behaviour. According to Dicaprio (1974: 97), "Allport view the self as a complex aspect of personality, gradually evolving and exerting a greater and greater influence over behaviour". Therefore, "... understanding self-concept is crucial to understanding an individual's behaviour (Derlega and Janda, 1978: 130).

Each person perceives the world in terms of how he perceives himself. An individual therefore behaves in ways that are consistent with how he perceives himself. Derlega and Janda (1978), Burns (1982) and Festinger (1957) explain that individuals distort experiences that are not consistent with their existing self-concept. Such experiences are assimilated through defense mechanisms which help in maintaining consistent self-concept. This is an agreement with dissonance and phenomenological theories, which hold that inconsistent cognitions are intolerable and individuals adopt strategies to eliminate them. For example, if a person's boss tells him that he is doing a good job, and his self-concept is in agreement with this, he will probably feel that he deserves the compliment. If on the other hand, the same person is told that his work needs improvement, he might think the boss is having a bad day.

People with different self-concepts interpret information about themselves in different ways. If a person with a positive self-concept is told by his friends that he is a serious-minded individual, he is likely to view the remark as a compliment. A person with negative self-concept is likely to view the same remark as criticism. Individuals with negative self-concept tend to have difficulty in believing anything good about themselves while individuals with positive self-concept are likely to have difficulty in believing anything bad about themselves. In essence "perception

of self tends to determine what a person experiences and how he experiences it" (Rogers, 1977: 45).

Self-concept influences people's perception of events and expectations regarding future success and failure. An individual with a positive self-concept tends to expect success. He is thus likely to bring about this success through the mechanism of self-fulfilling prophecy. On the other hand, an individual with a negative self-concept tends to expect failure and is likely to bring about this failure to himself. A person who feels sure of himself behaves with dignity and certainty, expecting positive responses from other people. These expectations in turn call forth responses from his coworkers and others that tend to confirm the beliefs he already holds. The reverse would be the case for a person with negative self-concept.

Combs, Avila and Purkey (1978: 20) aptly observe that, "for each person, the self-concept is the frame of reference from which observations are made. It is our personal reality, the vantage point from which all else is observed and comprehended... It provides a screen through which everything else is seen, heard, evaluated, and understood".

2.5.2 Determines Psychological Growth

Positive self-concept is the basis for adjustment and development of healthy personality. Grebstein (1969), Olowu (1990), Atkinson (1975), Burns (1982), Pietrofesa Leonard and Hoose (1978) and Medinnus and Johnson (1976) observe that discrepancies between different self-conceptions lead to stress. People with negative self-concepts have high level of stress and therefore tend to be maladjusted. For people with positive self-concept there is congruence

between their different self-conceptions. They tend to be well-adjusted and have low level of stress.

Well-adjusted psychological healthy individuals are optimistic, efficient, and able to deal with the challenges of life with confidence. Recognition of undesirable things about themselves does not prevent them from having positive self-concept. Because their personal motives do not influence their self-perceptions, they are realistic about their abilities, personal attributes, and potentials. They are therefore self-actualizing.

2.5.3 Influences Achievement

The importance of self-concept in academic achievement has long been established. Burns (1982), Murphy (1947), Jourand (1980), Derlega and Janda (1978) and Lawrence (1988) agree that there is positive correlation between self-concept and academic achievement. Achievement appears to depend more on how a person feels about the qualities he possesses than on those qualities themselves. Therefore, self-concept could be a better predictor of a child's success than his ability. Academic success or failure tend to be deeply rooted in self-concept because the self-concept influences expectation of success or failure and how experiences are interpreted.

Since the self-concept influences what an individual expects to happen, it determines a child's expectation and performance in school. A child with a negative self-concept tends to believe that he is going to fail in school. He therefore behaves in ways that confirm this belief. He may refuse to study and eventually fail. A child with a history of failure continue to fail. This experience reinforces his self-perception as a failure. However, a successful child with a positive self-concept might view failure as a signal that he is not making enough

effort. After failing an examination, a child with a positive self-concept is likely to think of reading harder while one with negative self-concept is more likely to give up.

The self-concept determines the way individuals interpret things that happen to them. A teacher's effort to improve students' performance would be interpreted differently according to the students' self-concepts. For example, positive reinforcement from a teacher might be interpreted positively by a child with a positive self-concept while a child with negative self-concept interprets it negatively. Consequently, the child with a negative self-concept might not benefit from efforts aimed at improving his performance. The self-concept is therefore a crucial factor in academic achievement.

2.5.4 Importance in Counselling

In counselling, people are helped to find a comfortable and effective relationship between themselves and the world. In such a situation understanding the self-concept of the client and counsellor is vital.

Combs, Avila and Purkey (1978) emphasize the importance of self-concept in counselling. They explain that a deeply deprived person finds it difficult to be concerned about fulfilling the needs of others. The counsellor should therefore be a person with positive self-concept who is comfortable with himself. It is only when the counsellor has a feeling of self-acceptance that he would be able to accept others, show unconditional positive regards and create an atmosphere that is conducive for counselling.

The counsellor needs to understand how a client perceives himself. This enables him to predict the client's behaviour, perceive situations from the same perspective and show emphatic understanding.

From the above discussion, it is clear that, "the self-concept is even more important to its owner than the body in which it exists. The body, according to Earl Kelley is but 'the meat house' we live in, the vehicle in which the self rides" (Combs, Avila and Purkey , 1978: 18). Therefore the importance of self-concept cannot be overemphasized.

2.6 Development of Self-Concept

The self-concept develops as the individual grows. Brooks (1963) observes that the child appears upon the human scene without self.

Newman and Newman (1981) explain that the self-concept develops by the acquisition of new attributes during the different developmental stages. In infancy, the self-concept is mainly awareness of body boundaries, recurring needs and the comfort of loving contact with care givers. In toddlerhood, children explore the limits of heir skills and their impact on others. At this stage, self-concept depends on being competent and being loved. During early and middle school age, the child's cognitive development makes him more sensitive to social pressure and preoccupied with issues of self-criticism and self-evaluation. The self-concept is strengthened during later adolescence. At this stage the self-concept is organized around a set of values, goals and talents that are more relevant to the individual's temperament and culture. In early adulthood, the self-concept incorporates new skills, sources of life satisfaction, and changes in values and beliefs. In later adulthood, the content of the self-concept remains rather stable.

2.7 Factors that Influence the Development of Self-Concept

The development of self-concept is positively or negatively influenced by various factors. Some of these factors are child-rearing practices, significant others, physical appearance and recurrent success or failure.

2.7.1 Child-Rearing Practice and Significant Others

Self-concept develops as a result of relationships within the family which gradually give precedence to school influences and the larger society. Burns (1982) observes that a child's self-concept primarily stems from the way his parents perceive and bring him up. Respect, love and acceptance from a child's parents foster the development of positive self-concept in him. For example, a child being punished by warm, caring parents is likely to feel that he is punished for being wrong, but his parents love him. On the other hand, permissive parents tend to have low expectation and leave children without guidelines. This lack of interest from parents make their children feel they are not loved and accepted. Authoritarian parents set unrealistically high standards for their children. These children are full of fear of failure, criticism and punishment. They therefore feel insecure, inferior and worthless.

However, "when everything in a child's life outside of school is teaching him that he is unliked, unwanted, and unable, a loving teacher, who provides experience of success, may make a world of difference (Combs Avila and Purkey, 1978: 31)". On the other hand, an insensitive behaviour from a teacher would reinforce the negative feelings of a child with a negative self-concept.

Parents and teachers influence children's development of self-concept because people tend to perceive themselves and act as others treat and expect them to act. This is in line with reflection and model theories which hold that self-concept is a product of the reflection appraisals of others, especially significant others.

2.7.2 Physical Appearance

Each person has a mental picture of his physical appearance. This mental picture and its corresponding societal standard affect the development of self-concept. Burns (1982: 51) explains that, "positive evaluations of one's body from others and from oneself, facilitate the overall positiveness of the self-concept and, similarly, negative feelings about the body engender on overall negative self-concept". In a society where shortness is regarded as undesirable, a person that is short or regard himself as short is likely to perceive himself as generally undesirable.

2.7.3 Recurrent Success or Failure

Consistent experiences of success or failure affect the development of self-concept positively or negatively. Recurrent experiences of success make a person feel capable of controlling events in his life. On the other hand:

> ... when failures are recurrent and have appropriate significance, we cannot brush them aside. They remain as latent and haunting memories. And so a deep-seated sense of deficiency may develop and be steadily aggravated. This sense of deficiency may be due to different causes; physical weakness, unpleasant appearance, sexual impotence, social inadequacy (poverty, lack of education, waywardness, poor vocabulary, slowness of wit). Or it may be due to feelings of unworthiness, of guilt and sin (Allport, 1961: 130).

The above information points to the need for encouraging factors that foster the development of positive self-concept and discourage those that militate against it.

2.8 Enhancing Self-Concept

The need for enhancing self-concept cannot be overemphasized. Buss (1978: 468) observes that "the need to have one's self-esteem elevated is peculiarly human". Enhancement of self-concept requires conscious effort and

sacrifice by counsellors, teachers, and significant others because it is not an easy task. Eisenberg and Patterson (1979: 32) observe that:

> It may be possible to teach parents to raise kids so that they like themselves. Schools can build self-esteem development programs into the early school curriculum. Effective counsellors and teachers can work with young children to teach them to like themselves early, so that later on self-disgust is prevented. It will not be easy, and not cheap. But it is possible if that is where out priorities lie.

Peripheral and less important aspects of the self-concept might be changed rapidly. However, important aspects that are at the core of self-concept are rarely changed quickly. Combs Avila and Purkey (1978: 30) therefore encourage that, "helpers often have to believe their efforts are worthwhile despite the lack of tangible evidence for a considerable period of time".

2.8.1 Behavioural Approaches

Research findings present assertiveness training, token economy system of reinforcement and behaviour rehearsal as useful techniques in enhancing self-concept. Burns (1982: 378) explains that, "although behavioural techniques do not have their theoretical roots in self-concept theory behaviour modification has equally been shown as effective as its competitor therapies in modifying the self-concept in a positive direction". However, these techniques are mostly effective on short-term basis.

Behavioural psychologists have come to realize that is not just enough to change clients' behaviour. Lazarus (1976), a behaviour therapist contends that therapy should deal with many aspects of the clients' behaviour and personality if long-term improvements are to occur.

2.8.2 Client Centred Approach

Carl Rogers' client-centred therapy is described as one of the best known counselling techniques involving self-concept change. Derlega and Janda (1978: 6) observe that, "almost all forms of psychotherapy are aimed at changing the self-concepts of their client. This is especially true of Rogers' client-centred therapists. Their primary goal is to increase their clients' self-esteem". The three conditions Rogers term necessary for therapeutic personality change are empathy, positive regard and genuineness (Burns, 1982).

Empathy is an attempt to see the situation as the client perceives it. Empathy can be conveyed by listening to the client attentively and paraphrasing or reflecting what the client says in an understanding way. This would make the client feel he is significant and what he is saying is important.

Gesinde (1991: 112, 113) describes unconditional positive regard as "... having positive feelings without reservations or evaluation, it means possessing a willingness to allow individual differences, that is, accepting a client with all his shortcomings". Shertzer and Stone (1974, 219) explain that, "through acceptance of the counselee, the counselor enables him to express, examine and incorporate previously consistent and inconsistent experiences into his self-concept". Acceptance is mainly communicated to the client by non-verbal cues.

Congruence involves being real and honest with the client by being consistently genuine in responding to his feelings. That is, what a person express should be in congruence with what he feels or thinks. However, at this point, the researcher would like to emphasize the importance of being tactful. According to Allport (1961: 119), "to put a man to shame is to shatter his self-esteem. Conversely, to employ tact is to avoid offense to the ego. If we do not employ tact

the result is resentment". In as much as the counsellor needs to be real and honest, he/she also has to be tactful in dealing with clients.

2.9 Self-Concept and Adolescence

Adolescence is a process of becoming an adult. This transition from childhood to adulthood extends from fourteen to twenty-five years in male and from twelve to twenty-one years in female. At the adolescent stage the individual undergoes physical, emotional and social changes. These changes are accompanied by stress and pressure that affect self-concept development.

At the onset of puberty the individual experiences physical and instinctual changes. Physical pubertal changes are considered as important symbol of maturity. Adolescents must adapt to these changes and others' perceptions of them. Burns (1982: 162) explains that, "body image becomes an important factor in adolescent self-concept development as puberty occurs, and much adolescent self-worth derives from perceiving that one's body fits the norm. Deviant and retarded physical development can have deleterious consequences on self-concept".

At the adolescent stage the individual is prone to experience role conflict and status ambiguity as a result of socialization into new roles. Newman and Newman (1981) explain that adolescents are sensitive to the difference between their ideal selves and their real selves. They sometimes worry over measuring up to their idealized concept of adult competence and social relationships. An increasing discrepancy between the real and ideal self can affect the self-concept in a negative direction. Allport (1961: 125) observes that, 'many adolescent ideals are so high that a bad tumble is in store."

The threat to the development of positive self-concept is not only experienced by adolescents in developed countries. Ekwe (1986: 39, 40, 41) observes the predicament of adolescents in Nigeria as follows:

> The introduction of western education, industrialization, division of labour, prolonged periods of preparations for the acquisition of skills necessary to be an effective and efficient employee, growth of paid economy, rapid growth of technology in agriculture, industry and commerce, the nature of social and economic mobility and changing attitudes and values that have arisen as a result of social changes in the Nigerian society all place restraints on the Nigerian youths in the bid to actualise themselves. Nwanalushi (1979) argued that these social changes are often followed by the uncertainty and unpredictability which in turn allow insecurity and anxiety to flourish. This according to Olowu (1984) brings about less positive self-concept in youths especially those in urban areas.

He further observes that, "... youths are faced with many discontinuities and inconsistencies. The adult world expects them to assume certain "adult" roles and responsibilities while they are denied many adult right and privileges. They are denied a place in the society where they would consolidate the self-concepts they have built". He then explains that:

> Youths take whatever violates their self-respect with special hurt. Such conditions have also resulted in youths forming cliques and youth groups whose desired goals deviate from the acceptance norms of the society. The violation has also given rise to youths engaging in some defense mechanism like aggression, negativism and total withdrawal... to cope up with the adult.

The youths need assistance to cope with the situation. They should be helped to have a realistic view of themselves and their potentials.

According to Jegede (1983: 69), "While the self-concept of American adolescents has been intensively studied, relatively little work has been done in this area in the case of Nigerian adolescents" However, the researcher has realised the need for studying and exploring avenues for enhancing self-concept of adolescents at such crucial stage of development.

2.10 Group Counselling

Trotzer (1977: 13) aptly defines group counselling as follows:

> Group counselling is the development of an interpersonal relationship characterized by trust, acceptance, respect, warmth, communications, and understanding through which a counsellor and several clients come in contact in order to help each other confront unsatisfactory or problem areas in the clients' lives and discover, understand and implement ways of resolving these problems and/or dissatisfactions.

2.10.1 Group Size, Composition and Duration

Working in small groups gives room for intensive interaction. It also makes it easier for the counsellor to be sensitive to members' personal needs. Trotzer (1977: 186) suggests that, "for adolescents and adults, groups of six to ten can be handled effectively by a leader, are large enough to maintain interest due to the diversity in the group, give members adequate opportunity to participate, and yet are large enough for members to feel safety in numbers". However, he cautions that, "although some group experts stress a specific number, it is generally up to the group leader to decide on what a workable group size is".

It is considered that some degree of homogeneity is a potential for group cohesiveness. Therefore, in choosing group members factors like age and socioeconomic status should be put into consideration. According to Gazda (1978: 68). "Research indicates that the similarity of group members is an important consideration in group composition... Groups are likely to scapegoat and isolate individuals they perceive as being different from the group"" Shertzer and Stone (1974: 362), observe that, "the very aggressive, the extremely shy, and the seriously maladjusted make poor members of a 'normal' group".

The duration of meetings is another factor that should be considered in group counselling. According to Trotzer (1977: 187), "the preferable time period for

group counselling is one and half to two hours... The number of sessions again depends on the goals of the group and the nature of the members".

2.10.2 Advantages of Group Counselling

Group counselling has a number of advantages especially as it applies to adolescents. Shertzer and Stone (1974: 347) observe that, "the psychological appeal of group counselling derives from the knowledge that often it is through interaction with others that self-concepts are formed or altered". Ohlsen (1970: 220) contends that:

> Adolescents' domination by peers, their need to help others, and their suspicion of adults' desire to control them makes group counselling more attractive to them than individual counselling. The safe, accepting climate of a counselling group enhances the adolescent's understanding of himself and his environment; the development of his ego strength, his skills in appraising information and alternatives available to him and a broader repertoire of social and human relations skills; his search for identity and life goals.

In the same vein, Shertzer and Stone (1974: 369) explain that:

> Many counsellors have reported that individuals respond better in a group of peers than in individual counselling relationships. Adolescent needs for conformity and acceptance by their peer group and the opportunity to share reactions and ideas, to define meaningful life situations, and to gain independence are all met in part through group counselling.

Thus group counselling appears to be suitable for adolescents, especially in terms of self-concept enhancement.

2.11 Review of Related Studies

A number of research studies on self-concept have been conducted especially in the developed countries. Some of them that are related to this study would be briefly looked into.

Caplan (1957) used a Rogerian approach in group counselling with twelve to fifteen years old boys who had histories of conflict with school authorities. Group counsellors ventured to create an atmosphere that is conducive for the subjects to express their feelings about school. After one semester of weekly sessions, an increase in the subjects' self and ideal-self congruence was observed. This implies self-concept change towards a positive direction.

In a similar study, Payne and Dunn (1972) investigated the effect of group guidance on the self-concepts of ethnic minority pupils. There were three experimental groups of ten year old whites, blacks, and Hispanos. One control group was used. The experimental groups treated to fifty-minute weekly guidance sessions. Analysis of the pre-test and post-test scores of the subjects indicate that the treatment has positively altered the self-concepts of the subjects in experimental groups.

Percell, Berwick and Beigel (1974) hypothesized that assertive training would produce an increase in self-acceptance. Using two groups of subjects in eight sessions of therapy, one getting assertive training while the other served as control group. The findings revealed that there was a significant positive relationship between assertive training and self-acceptance.

A study was conducted by Sheri (1975) to determine the effect of participation on weekend groups on self-esteem of women. It was aimed at determining whether Assertiveness Training, TORI, consciousness raising or encounter is superior in enhancing self-esteem. Subjects selected which group they would participate in. The experimental and control groups were equal in sex, age, intelligence, and educational level. All the groups were pre- and post-tested using the semantic Differential or Draw–A-Person. Analysis of data obtained from

the study revealed that all the groups were effective in enhancing self-esteem. However, none was significantly superior to the control group.

Lane and Muller (1977) examined the impact of operant reinforcement of positive self-descriptive behaviour on the self-concepts and classroom behaviour of sixty ten-year old students. The experimental research method was used. Three groups of students wrote a series of eight essays descriptions of their school performance. The second group were also given equal number of reinforcement for general statements while the third group did not receive any reinforcement for written statements. These areas of self-concept were measured with the primary self-concept Inventory, namely, personal self, social self, and intellectual self. Nine classroom behaviours thought to be influenced by self-concept were also counted using frequency count. The first group showed an increase in the frequency of self-descriptive statements and in intellectual self-concepts but not changes in personal self-concepts, social self-concept or nine classroom behaviours. The other two groups revealed no change in self-descriptive statements, intellectual self-concept or the nine classroom behaviours.

The findings indicate that frequency of written positive intellectual domain, self-descriptions of ten year old can be increased through operant reinforcement. This study suggests that children can be easily helped to describe themselves more positively.

In a related study, Stanton (1977) examined influences of certain activities on self-concept of students in Australia. Using a form of experimental group which he termed Self-Enhancement Group (SEG), participants were allowed to think more highly of themselves and to like themselves more as people. The activities included acquaintanceship exercise, remembering and sharing successful

experiences, self-image projection whereby participants share their images of themselves and receive feedback from others; 'nourishing', in which participants focus on things other group members have said or done which made them feel more positive about themselves, and so on. The findings of the study revealed that an experimental group designed specifically to emphasize positive feelings and emotions can succeed in changing people's self-concept positively.

In another related study, Dye (1980) examined the influence of Rational Emotive Education on the self-concept of adolescents residing in residential group homes. The researcher applied Rational Emotive Education in treating twenty four adolescents who lived in an orphanage. One control group received non-directed attention and the other control had no treatment at all. All the subjects were pre- and post-tested on the Tennessee self-concept scale. The analysis of variance statistical technique was used to test the nine variables on the scale used. The findings revealed that the experimental group achieved greater gain scores and that changes in these groups were not due to chance but to the Rational Emotive Education.

Creamer (1982) investigated the efficacy of a development guidance programme called Basic-Understanding of Individual Learning Development (BUILD) in improving the self-concept and learning behaviours of behaviourally disruptive students. Using a pre-test post-test control group design, 140 students from five different elementary schools were selected to participate in the study. Twenty-eight (28) students from each school were randomly assigned to one of four groups (2 experimental and 2 control) at their school (n = 7) for each group. The students in the experimental groups met twice a week for 8 weeks to participate in the BUILD programme. The first control group received no treatment.

An analysis of co-variance revealed a significant difference in two of the three pre-test means between the experimental and control groups. The BUILD programme had a positive effect on both self-concept and learning behaviours of behaviourally disruptive pre-adolescent elementary school children.

In a related study, Carver (1982), determined the effect of a career and self-exploration course on career development and self-concept of undecided freshmen of the university of Northern Colorado who completed the course during the fall quarter of 1981. The 57 students who completed the 3 credit hour career and Self-Exploration (CSE) were compared with a group of 53 undecided freshmen who did not take the course to determine whether significant difference between the two groups were presented at the end of the course on the following variables: career choice certainty, academic measure certainty, overall indecision, career maturity, self-concept, utilization of students services, involvement in students activities, academic performance and overall performance with the university. Using the pre-test post-test comparison group quasi experimental research design, the result of the study indicated that the treatment group scored significantly higher than the comparison group on the post-test measures of career choice certainty, academic measure certainty and utilization of academic advising, career planning and personal counselling services provided by the university. It was concluded that CSE was at least partially successful in meeting its stated objectives and therefore should be retained as an effective student development strategy at the University of Northern Colorado.

Okatahi (1984) conducted a study aimed at increasing the moral judgement level, locus of control and self-concept of the subjects studied. The sample of her study consisted of one hundred and twelve undergraduate students of Ahmadu

Bello University, Zaria. These students were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups.

The experimental group was divided into four small groups. Each group had a treatment session of one hour per week for six weeks. The treatment consisted of six structured moral dilemma stories. After the treatment, both the experimental and control groups were tested. When the subjects' responses were computed, the hypothesis which says, subjects' self-concept will be enhanced by the Moral Dilemma Discussion was rejected.

In a study by Akinade (1990), attempt was made to determine the differential efficiency of Assertive Training and conversational skills training in reducing shyness. Fourty eight subjects were drawn from senior secondary (SS) one of two co-educational secondary schools in Ibadan, Nigeria. The treatment group received ninety minute treatment session per week for eight consecutive weeks. However, the control group did not receive any treatment. Both treatment and control groups were subjected to pre- and post-test. Findings of the study revealed a statistically significant reduction of shyness in the groups of subjects given conversational skills training.

Bello (1991) studied the efficacy of positive thinking exercises in enhancing the self-concepts of secondary school students in Zaria. Using the experimental research method, she assigned subjects to two treatment groups and two control groups which consisted of Junior Secondary School (JSS) and Senior Secondary (SS) subjects. The treatment groups were provided with four one-hour positive thinking exercise treatment sessions over a period of four consecutive weeks. The control groups received no treatment. All the subjects were tested on pre- and post-treatment bases using the self-concept measuring instrument designed by

Marsh *et al.*, that is the Self Description Questionnaire (SDQ). Analysis of data collected revealed that the exercises were effective in enhancing the self-concept of the subjects. It was found that the post-treatment self-concept scores of the treatment subjects were significantly higher than that of the subjects in the control group.

Findings of the above research studies revealed that it is possible to enhance the development of positive self-concept, and various methods can be employed to that effect.

2.12 Summary

In this chapter, a review is made of literature and research studies that are relevant and related to this study. Various writers stress the importance of self-concept and its development. There is agreement among writers on the uniqueness of the adolescence stage in self-concept development. The main problems faced by adolescents are therefore discussed, and the suitable techniques for alleviating these problems. It has been established that the Rogerian client centered technique, and group counselling are suitable for use with adolescents.

Although the self-concept is resistant to change, efforts have been made over the years to determine methods of enhancing its development. Research shows that it is possible to effect changes in the self-concept of individuals through systematically designed programmes. However, as it was observed by researchers, it is not an easy task to change the self-concept of an individual.

Chapter 3

METHODOOGY

3.1 Introduction

The effect of self-concept on various aspects of life has long been realised. In this research, the effectiveness of Self-Exploration programme in enhancing self-concept among adolescent girls was investigated. This chapter serves as a plan or foundation on which the research was built. The chapter consists of detailed explanation of how the research was conducted. This includes the research design employed, the population, sample studied and the type of treatment administered to the subjects. The chapter also consists of description of the research instrument used in data collection and the method employed in analysing data and drawing of conclusion from the findings.

3.2 Research Design

The researcher used the experimental method in determining the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. In this research, self-concept and self-exploration programme are the dependent and independent variables respectively.

The pre-test, post-test two by two factorial design was employed. The design is shown in Table 3.1 below:

Table 3.1.
Experimental Design

Main Groups	Experimental Group	Control Group
JSS	10	10
SS	10	10

This design consists of two experimental groups and two control groups. The two experimental groups received treatment and have undergone pre-test and post-test. The control groups have undergone pre-test and post-test without receiving any treatment. The result was analysed to determine the effect of the treatment on the dependent variable.

3.3 Population

The research was conducted in Government Girls' College, Katsina. The student population of this College is two thousand, five hundred and four (2,504). Members of the control group were selected from Government Girls' Secondary School, Jibia. This school consists of one thousand, three hundred and seventy (1,370) students. These post-primary school students fall within the age range of twelve and twenty years. The total population for this study is three thousand, eight hundred and seventy four (3,874) students.

3.4 Sample

The sample for this study consists of fourty (40) students. Members of the experimental group were drawn from the Junior and Senior classes at Government Girls' College, Katsina. A stratified random sampling technique was employed in selecting two hundred students. An equal number of students was randomly selected from each arm. With the help of some members of staff, the researcher administered the self-exploration inventory to the selected students. Upon computing the result, the experimental groups were chosen among those with low and medium self-concept scores. For the purpose of this study, the experimental group consists of two small groups of ten members each.

The members of the control group were drawn from junior and senior classes of the Government Girls' Secondary School, Jibia. Stratified random sampling technique was employed in selecting two hundred students. An equal number of students were randomly selected from each arm. With the help of some members of staff, the researcher administered the self-concept inventory to the selected students. Upon computing the result, the control groups were chosen among those with low and medium self-concept scores. The control group consists of ten junior secondary school students and ten senior secondary school students.

The experimental group consists of 10 Junior Secondary School students and 10 Senior Secondary School students (n = 20). The control group also consists of 10 Junior Secondary School students (n = 20). These groups are considered to be small samples because according to Spiegel (1972), and Horowitz (1974), when a sample has less than 30 cases (n < 30) it is considered small. Horowitz (1974: 260) observes that "... sometimes an experimenter is limited to a small sample. Perhaps subjects are very scarce or perhaps the testing is long and tedious. Then a large sample size is not feasible." In this research too, a large sample is not feasible because the treatment is long and tedious. The researcher needs to pay personal attention to each group member and the group discussions could not be held in large groups. Trotzer (1977) suggests that groups of six to ten are suitable for a study of this nature which involves group counselling with adolescents.

3.5 The Programme

The self-exploration programme is designed to help the participants express feelings, explore their strengths and weaknesses and determine ways of solving problems. Attempt was made to solve problems by examination of individuals' resources and applying them in problem solving with the view of enhancing self-concept.

The programme consists of exercises and discussion. The members were expected to participate actively in the process of getting to know each other, exploration of their positive and negative attributes to effect desired changes in the individual.

The researcher initiated, guided and moderated the group interaction. Most importantly, the researcher communicated respect, acceptance and empathic understanding to group members.

The self-exploration programme is based on Rogerian approach to counselling. Exercises in the programme are derived from Trotzer (1977) and Burns (1982).

3.6 Duration of Treatment

The treatment period for each group was one and half hours weekly for eight weeks.

3.7 Treatment Sessions

First Session

1. Members were told that the programme is a forum for them to learn more about themselves and how others see them.

2. Attention of participants was drawn to the confidential nature of the meeting by telling them that whatever was discussed during the sessions should not be disclosed to anybody outside the meetings.

3. It was also explained to members that they were expected to express their feelings honestly and freely. *Describe Yourself* as *Your Own Best Friend.*

   (a) Members were asked to describe themselves as if they were their best friends.

      (i) They were expected to use the third person, that is, using, their first name and 'he' or 'she' instead of 'I' or 'me'.

      (ii) Members were free to ask questions about the description going on. Both questions and answers had to be in the third person.

Talking in the third person was aimed at helping members to talk about themselves more objectively and to reduce the anxiety of talking about oneself and the self-consciousness and discomfort from the newness of the group.

Second Session

1. Members were asked to pair up with someone they do not know or do not know very well.

2. They were given ten minutes to get to know each other as much as they could.

3. Each member was given five minutes to introduce his partner to group members.

Third Session

In this session members were given the opportunity to describe themselves and how they think other people perceive them.

1. Members were asked to write a description of themselves in terms of physical appearance, behaviour, likes and dislikes, positive and negative qualities possessed.
2. On another sheet of paper, they were asked to write a description of how others perceive them. No name was written on both sheets.
3. Each member submitted the first sheet to the researcher.
4. One sheet was read at a time while members attempted to guess who was being described.
5. The owner then claimed her sheet and read the second one.
6. There was feedback from group members.

This exercise helped members to see some of their potentials and characteristics in different light.

Fourth Session

1. Participants were asked to:
   (i) Write three things about their personality that they considered as positive attributes.
   (ii) Three things about their personality that they considered as negative attributes.
   (iii) One thing that they wanted to change.
2. The group discussed how some of the positive attributes would be used to achieve the desired change.

Fifth Session

The exercise above (fourth session) continued during the fifth session. Feedback was obtained from members whose papers were discussed in the previous session.

Sixth Session

1. Each student was given seven cards. They were asked to write on each card a different aspect of their personality they were proud of.
2. At the beginning of each day one of the cards was to be placed in a conspicuous place where they were sure to see it and read it several times.

The above exercise was aimed at reinforcing the members' self-image by pointing out their positive aspects. It was also to keep them from concentrating on depressive, self-devaluative thoughts.

Seventh Session

1. Each member was asked to make a list of her positive accomplishments.
2. They were asked to write a paragraph, describing their positive qualities only.
3. Members were however assured that no one else would read what they wrote. After writing they were asked to put the paper away.
4. Members shared their list of accomplishments with the group.
5. Two chairs facing each other were placed in front of the group. A volunteer sat on one of the chairs to receive positive feedback from other members.

At the end of the exercise there was discussion on how an individual's positive qualities could be utilized in problem solving.

Eighth Session

In this session, the researcher administered the self-exploration inventory to participants. The inventory was also administered to members of the control group.

3.8 Research Instrument

The self-concept Inventory (SEI), designed by the researcher was used for data collection in this research. This instrument consists of items on three dimensions of self-concept, that is, self as seen by me (items 1 – 12), self as thought to be seen by others (items 13 – 24) and the ideal self-concept (items 25 – 36). Each dimension consists of equal number of items on bodily self, social self, and self extension. The inventory consists of equal number of positive and negative items.

3.8.1 Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

The self-concept inventory was validated by experts. It was also pilot-tested by the researcher and was found to be useful for the study. Kuder-Richardson formula was used to determine the internal consistency of the inventory.

$$rK - Rz1 = 1 - \frac{\overline{X}(n - \overline{X})}{n S^z}$$

rK = Rz1 = Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficient.

n = Number of items in the test

$\overline{X}$ = Mean score on the test

S^z = Test variance (a measure of variability).

Using the above formula, 0.663 reliability coefficient was obtained. The instrument is thus considered suitable for collecting data from the subjects in this research.

3.8.2 Administration of the Instrument

With the help of teachers in the schools, the researcher administered the inventory to members of the experimental and control groups before and after treatment.

3.8.3 Scoring

Each item on the inventory was awarded marks ranging from 1 – 5, with a maximum of 180 marks and a minimum of 36 marks for the total self-concept. The tentative interpretation for the total self-concept score is as follows:

133 – 180 High self-concept

085 – 132 Medium self-concept

036 – 084 Low self-concept.

3.9 Data Analysis

T-test for related samples was used to analyze the data obtained in this research. Since the samples studied are homogenous, equal in number and small, the t-test is a suitable method of analysing the data obtained in this study. Horowitz (1974: 273) observes that, "if an experimenter has to use a small sample, the t distribution is appropriate".

3.10 Summary

This chapter consists of description of how the research was conducted. The aspects specified include research design, population, sample, treatment, research instrument and method of data analysis. The samples studied were drawn from Government Girls' College Katsina and Government Girls' Secondary School Jibia. The experimental groups attended the self-exploration programme for eight weeks. Both control and experimental groups have been pre- and post-tested with the self-concept inventory designed by the researcher and t-test for related samples was used in analysing the data obtained from the study.

Chapter 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the data gathered, analyse them and discuss the findings arising from the data analysis in order to determine the effectiveness of self-exploration programme in enhancing adolescent girls' self-concept. The chapter is organised according to the null hypotheses stated in chapter one of this study. All the hypotheses are tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

4.2 Testing of Hypotheses

Analysis and presentation of results were done to test the four null hypotheses postulated to guide this study. The 0.05 level of significance was adopted for testing the hypotheses.

Hypothesis I

This hypothesis states that there is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the experimental and control groups before the experimental treatment. To test this hypothesis, the total self-concept scores of all the subjects were grouped on experimental and control basis. The t-test statistical technique was adopted to test this hypothesis, the results of which are presented in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1.
The pretest self-concept scores of the experimental and control groups.

Status	Group	n	$\bar{x}$	St. dv.	df	t	Remarks
Control	Pretest	20	118.16	6.52	38	1.36	NS
Experimental		20	118.01	6.11			

(P> 0.05, t = 2.021, df = 38).
NS = Not significant.

An observation of Table 4.1 above reveals no significant difference in the pretest mean scores for the control and experimental groups. The non-significant difference results from the calculated t value of 1.36 as against the critical t value of 2.021 at df = 38. The calculated t value of 1.36 is less than its critical value of 2.021 with a probability value of 0.6211 which is higher than the 0.05 level of tolerance set for testing the hypothesis. As this is less, the hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the pretest self-concept scores of control and experimental groups is hereby retained.

Hypothesis II

This hypothesis states that there is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of experimental and control groups after the treatment. To test this hypothesis t test procedure was adopted because the groups are of common variance. The results of the test are presented as Table 4.2 below:

Table 4.2.
Post-test self-concept scores of experimental and control groups (n = 40).

Status	Group	n	$\bar{x}$	St. dv.	df	t	Remarks
Control	Post-	20	114.62	5.17	38	2.631	S
Experimental	Test	20	108.11	3.36			

(P< 0.05, t = 2.021, df = 38).
S = Significant.

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A look at Table 4.2 above shows a significant difference in the self-concept scores of control and experimental groups after treatment. This significant difference is shown by the calculated t value which is 2.631 as against the table value of t which is 2.021 at df = 38. The calculated value of t is thus greater than its table value. This gives a probability value of 0.0462 which is relatively lower than the alpha level of 0.05. As the hypothesis can either be accepted or rejected at a tolerance level of 0.05 and the P level in this case is 0.0462, the hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of control and experimental groups after treatment is hereby rejected.

Hypothesis III

This hypothesis states that there is no significant difference in the total self-concept scores of the SSS students of the experimental group before and after the treatment. To test this hypothesis a t test statistical procedure was adopted. The results of which are presented in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3.
Pre-test and post-test scores of SSS students of the experimental group.

Group	Level	Status	n	$\bar{x}$	St. dv.	df	t	Remarks
Pre-test	SSS	Experimental	10	62.27	4.21	18	2.826	S
Post-test			10	59.31	2.78			

($P < 0.05$, $t = 2.101$, $df = 18$).
S = Significant.

In the above table, the calculated t value was found to be 2.826 whereas the critical value of t stands at 2.101 at df = 18. That the calculated value of t is higher than the table value at the same degree of freedom implies that there is significant difference in the total self-concept scores of SSS students in the experimental group before and after the treatment is therefore rejected.

Hypothesis IV

This hypothesis states that there is no significant difference in the total self-concept scores of the JSS students of the experimental group before and after the treatment. To test this hypothesis, a t test statistical procedure was adopted and the results are presented below in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4.
The pre-test and post-test scores of the students of the experimental group

Group	Level	Status	n	$\bar{x}$	St. dv.	df	t	Remarks
Pre-test	JSS	Experimental	10	33.126	2.611	18	1.86	NS
Post-test			10	33.211	2.588			

(P> 0.05, t = 2.101, df = 18).
NS = Not Significant.

An observation of Table 4.4 above shows that the calculated t value is 1.86 at df = 18 whereas the critical value of t = 2.101 at df = 18. This is saying that the table value of t (2.101) is higher than its calculated value (1.86) at df = 18. For t value at the calculated value to be significant at the alpha level of 0.05 level of tolerance it should be 2.101 or better. As the calculated value of t in this case is lower than the critical value no significant difference can be established. Thus, the hypothesis that states that there is no significant difference in the total self-concept scores of the JSS students of the experimental group before and after the treatment is retained.

4.3 Discussion

Hypothesis I

There is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the experimental group and control group before the treatment. The findings of this study revealed non-significant difference in the self-concept of both the control and

experimental groups. This implies that members of both groups are similar in terms of self-concept. An explanation for this may be the assumed similarities in the traits and some characteristics of members of both groups. For instance, they are on the same educational level, learning environment and age range. Members of both experimental and control group are learning under similar conditions because they are in state owned schools with similar facilities and learning environment. The students are within the same age range both in experimental and control groups. That is, 12 – 15 years in JSS and 15 – 20 years in SSS. They are all teenagers. Members of both groups are of the same gender. The groups consist of female students. This result indicates that members of the control and experimental groups are homogenous. This finding agrees with Tuckman (1978) and Best (1981) who consider homogeneity of groups to be studied as one of the important conditions of experimental study.

This study is similar to the one conducted by Sheri (1975) in order to determine the effect of participation on weekend groups on self-esteem of women. In Sheri's study, the experimental and control groups were also homogenous. They were equal in terms of sex, age, intelligence and educational level.

Hypothesis II

There is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the experimental and control groups after the treatment. The results of the test on this hypothesis showed significant difference in the self-concept scores of experimental and control groups.

The treatment given to the experimental group might have led to an overall adjustment resulting in significant difference after the treatment. The treatment which is supportive could have provided for capability to function in group

situation, improvement in self-realization and acceptance, and greater honesty about self, resulting in a more realistic self-evaluation.

This finding corroborates that of Bello (1991) where a significant difference was observed in the post-treatment self-concept scores of the experimental and control groups.

Hypothesis III

There is no significant difference in the total self-concept scores of the SSS students of the experimental group before and after the treatment.

The outcome of the test on this hypothesis reveals a significant difference in the post-test self-concept scores of the experimental and control group. After the treatment, the self-concept scores of the experimental group was significantly lower than that of the control group.

This finding is similar to that of a study reported by Burns (1982) where Brookover, Erickson and Joiner (1967) attempted to improve academic performance of some fourteen year olds by enhancing their self-concept of ability. It was reported that, "surprisingly, one experimental group who attended sessions with a trained counsellor actually did worse in many aspects than a control group" (Burns 1982: 372). Although reasons for the lack of improvement were not reported, it is clear that the experimental group did not improve as was anticipated.

However, in this study, the significant reduction of the self-concept scores of members of the experimental group could be attributed to the treatment they received. As a result of the treatment the subjects might have developed some degree of self-awareness and acceptance leading to a more realistic self-evaluation which is free from defensive protection of their self-concept. This

agrees with Eisenberg and Patterson's (1979: 13, 15) assertion that, "some people display the patterns of self-confidence as a cover-up for underlying feelings of self-doubt..." They further stress that "... the healthy individual likes and respects self, is both optimistic and realistic about personal estimates of personal potentials, has a realistic image of personal attributes and abilities, can experience honest pride in achievements and can accept limitations without guilt, shame or embarrassment". After the treatment, as a result of assumed improvement in self-concept, members of the experimental group were able to evaluate themselves accepting their limitations thus scoring lower than the pre-test.

Hypothesis IV

There is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the JSS students of the experimental group before and after the treatment. The result shows no statistically significant difference in the self-concept scores of the JSS students of the experimental group before and after the treatment. This implies that the treatment did not bring about increase in the self-concept scores of the JSS students of the experimental group.

The finding of this study supports the one conducted by Moore (1971) to investigate the effects of group counselling on attitudes of student-teachers toward interpersonal relationships with children. The result reveals that the group counselling did not significantly change the attitudes of the student-teachers toward children. Similarly, results of a study conducted by Ellsweigh (1972) demonstrated that the treatment had no significant effect on self-actualization and some of its behavioural correlates.

An explanation for the non-significant difference in this study could be attributed to defensive resistance to change in the self-concept of some or most of

the JSS members of the experimental group. This supports the observation of Eisenberg and Patterson (1979: 21) as follows:

> Some clients will function to maintain and protect their views of self- regardless of whether their views are positive, negative, or neutral. Even in the face of highly positive feedback and support from significant others, some clients persist in maintaining a negative self-image. This resistance to change is sometimes perplexing and often viewed as a major obstacle to therapeutic movement. Sometimes the defensive barriers seem almost impossible to overcome.

In a similar note, Combs, Avila and Purkey (1978: 30), considering the fact that self-concept change is rarely accomplished quickly explain that "Helpers often have to believe their efforts are worthwhile despite lack of tangible evidence for a considerable period of time."

4.4 Implication for Guidance

This research has some implications for guidance and counselling in schools. The programme can be used to help students explore their weaknesses and strengths with the view of improving on the strengths and finding ways of eliminating the weaknesses. This enhances self-evaluation, understanding and having realistic self-image which is one of the major aims of counselling.

The programme can serve as a means of appraisal by the counsellor. That is to say that the counsellor could obtain vital information about the students which they might not reveal otherwise. The information obtained could be useful towards planning programmes that are relevant or beneficial to the students.

The instrument used in this research can also be used for appraisal. It could be used for follow-up to ascertain the effect of a programme on students after a period of time.

Most importantly, this study has revealed the complexity and challenging nature of self-concept studies. This might help the counsellor to avoid setting impractical goals when dealing with self-concept. It would also keep the counsellor from the frustration and thought of being a failure when anticipated results are not obtained. This would also help in maintaining healthy self-concept and acceptance on the part of the counsellor.

The study exposes the need for patience and perseverance on the part of researchers who are interested in the challenging task of self-concept investigations.

4.5 Summary

In this chapter the data gathered were presented, analysed, and findings arising from the data analyses were discussed. The findings show significant difference in the self-concept scores of some of the subjects studied while no difference was observed in some. The significant difference observed was a reduction on the level of self-concept scores of some members of the experimental group instead of the anticipated increase. This, however could be attributed to the complex nature of self-concept. Combs Avila, and Purkey (1978) contend that every good thing a counsellor does is forever and never futile. This research is therefore worthwhile.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to summarise the findings of the study, provide a conclusion to the study based on the findings and recommend ways in which adolescent girls could improve their self-concept as well as areas for further research.

5.2 Summary

Self-concept is a crucial aspect of personality. It plays an important role in behaviour, academic achievement and overall development of the individual. The development of positive self-concept is important for healthy psychological growth. It is therefore important to develop methods of enhancing the development of positive self-concept. Self-exploration programme designed by the researcher was aimed at helping adolescent girls understand themselves and develop positive self-concept.

This research was aimed at determining whether or not there is any significant difference in the self-concept scores of students who attended the SEP and those who did not. This was with the view of determining whether self-exploration programme has any statistically significant effect on the self-concept of students. The four null hypotheses guiding this study were tested using t-test statistics. These hypotheses are restated as follows:

1. There is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the experimental and control groups before the treatment.

2. There is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the experimental and control groups after the treatment.
3. There is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the SSS students of the experimental group before and after the treatment.
4. There is no significant difference in the self-concept scores of the JSS students of the experimental group before and after the treatment.

The major finding arising from this study are as follows:

1. The first null hypothesis stated above was retained since the probable level of acceptance of 0.6211 is greater than 0.05 level of significance. It means that there is no significant difference in the mean scores of the experimental and control groups before the treatment. The two mean scores are homogenous variances. In other words, the two groups were found to be homogenous in terms of self-concept level at the beginning of the experiment.
2. The second null hypothesis stated above was rejected. This implies that there is a significant difference in the self-concept scores of the experimental and control groups after the treatment. This difference could be attributed to the treatment received by members of the experimental group.
3. Similarly, the third null hypothesis was rejected since a significant difference was observed between the pre-test and post-test self-concept scores of the SSS students of the experimental group. The lower performance at the post-test stage could be due to the self-awareness and self-acceptance obtained during the treatment. This might have enabled the students to express themselves more honestly without much inhibition.

4. On the other hand, the fourth null hypothesis was retained because no significant difference was observed in the pre-test and post-test self-concept scores of the JSS students. This lack of difference could be attributed to the defensive nature of the self-concept and its resistance to change.

5.3 Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that the self-exploration programme has affected the self-concept of the groups studied. However, this effect is unique in the sense that it was not in the form of an increase in the self-concept scores of the subjects. The scores rather decreased after the treatment. This indicates self-awareness and self-acceptance leading to positive self-concept. The study reveals the complex and intricate challenge involved in conducting research on self-concept.

However, the importance of positive self-concept in the overall development of the individual cannot be overemphasised. Eisenberg and Patterson (1978: 32) observed that:

> It may be possible to teach parents how to raise kids so that they like themselves. Schools can build self-esteem development programs into the early school curriculum. Effective counsellors and teachers can work with young children to teach them to like themselves early, so that later on self-disgust is prevented. It will not be easy, and, not cheap. But it is possible if that is where our priorities lie.

Counsellors, teachers, parents and significant others should therefore make the enhancement of self-concept their priority despite the difficulties involved.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study and the conclusion drawn from the findings, the following recommendations are made.

1. The SEP can be used by counsellors to create self-awareness and self-acceptance among students.
2. The SEP can also be used by counsellors as a time-saving device which would enable them to interact with a number of people at a time. This could also result in establishing close relationship with students thereby making it easier to go into individual counselling.
3. The SCI could be used by counsellors in their effort to assist adolescent girls to improve their self-concept. It can be used in sample selection and in pre- and post-treatment test.

5.5 Recommendations for further Research

1. This study was conducted with female students. With some modification, another study of this nature could be conducted with male students.
2. The SEP could be applied in other parts of the country to test its effectiveness. The present study was carried out in Katsina State of Nigeria.
3. This study was conducted in State owned schools. A similar study can be conducted in Federal or private schools.

5.6 Summary

In this chapter, the findings and conclusion of the study were summarised. Some recommendations were also made. Since the importance of self-concept

and the need for enhancing it among adolescents has been established, self-exploration programme was designed by the researcher with the aim of contributing towards meeting adolescent girls' peculiar need for self-concept enhancement. The findings of the study reveal that the programme has positively affected the self-concepts of a group of the adolescent girls studied. The use of the self-exploration programme and self-concept inventory has been recommended. With some modifications, further research of this nature could be conducted with adolescent boys, in other states and in different types of schools. This research is a positive step towards enhancement of self-concept and achievement of educational and national philosophies of Nigeria.

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APPENDIX

SELF-CONCEPT INVENTORY (SEI)

TIME: 40 MINUTES

Name;_____

Age;_____ Date:,_____

INSTRUCTIONS:

Please read each of the following statements and give honest responses. Your responses will not be shown to any other person. For each statement there are five possible responses. Put a tick ☑ in the box that best indicate the level to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Partly Agree	Partly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I have a beautiful face						
2. I am not happy because my family is not very rich						
3. I am friendly						
4. I am ugly						
5. I like most of the subjects I am offering						
6. I always like to do things alone						
7. I like the shape of my body						
8. I am very unfriendly						
9. I am proud of my family riches						
10. I am attractive						
11. I have no interest in most of the subjects						
12. I do not loose friends easily						
13. People believe I am proud because my family is rich						
14. People say I am beautiful						
15. My classmates think I do not like doing things with others						
16. Most of my teachers think I do well in my school subjects						
17. My friends laugh at my body shape						
18. People say I am unfriendly						
19. Most of my schoolmates admire my face						
20. My parents think I am not doing well in my school subjects						
21. People say I unfriendly						
22. Most of the people I meet say I am ugly						
23. People think I am happy even though my parents are not rich						
24. Most of the people I meet say they enjoy staying with me						
25. I would like to change the shape of my body						
26. I want to be more friendly than I am now						

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Partly Agree	Partly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
27. I wish I could change my school						
28. I would like to be as beautiful as others are						
29. I wish I could be better in most of my school subjects						
30. I would like to be doing things together with my classmates						
31. I wish I could change my facial appearance						
32. I would like to have more friends than I have now						
33. I would like my parents to be as rich as some of my friends' parents						
34. I would like my classmates to choose me as their friend						
35. I would like to have more things than my friends.						
36. I always hope to make the colour of my skin better than it is now						