

Revising the Team Analysis Paper

A few common errors (fixing these will pay off big-time!)

- **Introductions should be no longer than 1-1/2 pages.**
Note that the guidelines said you could do everything you needed to do in 1-2 paragraphs. When you take 2-4 pages for your introduction, you don't leave enough space for meaningful analysis under the lenses.
- **Points need to be developed with evidence—i.e., examples.**
Too many papers contain too many assertions that are not backed up with evidence.
- **But evidence also needs points!**—in some cases, there's a lot of description that's not clearly supporting a point; it's as if writers expect us readers to supply the point.
- **Points need to be linked more explicitly to Carroll's concepts.**
Note: This does not mean that you are trying to "prove" that the lenses work. You are trying to learn something about a team or organization by analyzing it in a particular framework of concepts.
- **Carroll's concepts—the lenses and some sub-points—need to be explained (briefly)—not simply referenced in a section heading.**
- **Remember that each paragraph should develop one clear topic**

One issue of style to watch for

Try to avoid vague words, especially:

- "It" and "they"—i.e., words without clear antecedents
- "This" as the sole subject of a sentence—e.g., "This is because..."

APA Style

- See handout on the back of this sheet
- See the Purdue OWL: <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/01/>
- See additional notes on graphs and tables on Stellar

Guidelines for Group Project (25-30 pages)

This is a research paper. Your goal is to convince the reader about the significance and validity of your study. Opinions or impressions do not matter here. The richness is in your data and your analysis of it.

Suggested outline**Title Page**

- Use APA style
- Title should reflect *your* paper

Abstract = 1 paragraph 2 points/ 30

- Summary of main findings (results of data analysis) and contribution (to the literature)

Introduction ≈ 2 pages 2 points/ 30

- What is your research question?
- What is the motivation for your study? Why should we care about your research question?

Literature Review ≈ 5 pages 5 points/ 30

- What has been said in the literature so far?
- What questions have not been answered yet? Are there any debates?
- How is your study going to contribute to the above?

Research Design & Method ≈ 5 pages 6 points/ 30

- Describe your research design, your data, and the methods you will use to analyze your data.
- Present your data in terms of variables. What is the relationship between the variables in your study? What are you trying to show?

Data Analysis ≈ 8 pages 9 points/ 30

- Use your data to answer your research question.
- What is the argument that you are making and how does your data support it?
- Are you suggesting new theory (inductive study) or are you shedding light on/testing an existing one (deductive)?
- How do you establish causality? How do you address threats to causality? Address alternative hypotheses.

[Depending on whether your project leans more on being descriptive and generating new theory vs. testing hypotheses, you will be able to cover the bullet points in this

section more or less. In any case however, you should make clear to the reader what your main argument is and how your data support it.]

Discussion \approx 5 pages 5 points/ 30

- Overall what does your analysis indicate?
- Relate your findings back to the literature.
- Significance of your study and broader implications.
- Limitations and what you would have done better or next time.

Conclusion \approx 1 page 1 point/ 30

- Summary of research approach and findings.
- Summary of motivation, significance, and limitations.
- (Briefly) How does this relate to previous knowledge on this topic?
- (Briefly) Future research. New directions that this project indicates.

Evaluating the Individual Team Analysis Paper

1st draft: TAs will give you comments and a grade for content, including completeness. Communication Staff will give you comments and a mark—ranging from a $\sqrt{+}$ (excellent) to zero—indicating how much work remains to be done for revision. Criteria for evaluating writing are given below.

2nd draft: The Writing Staff will evaluate your second draft on these same criteria and on how well you responded to first draft comments by TAs and Writing Staff. If, for example, a TA or a Writing Consultant says “I don’t understand the point you are making here”—we expect you to clarify that point. If one or both says your organization could be improved, we expect you to organize your second draft better. We may ask you to deepen your analysis or conclusion. *We won’t ask you to analyze a different organization, but we may focus your attention on different aspects than you chose in the draft.*

Criteria for Evaluating Writing

Format and citation (2 point)

- Cover sheet; in-text citations as needed; and References at end of paper, all in APA style
- Format of paper includes section headings, and is neat and consistent, i.e.:
 - Paper is double-spaced
 - Paragraphs are indented and there is no extra space between ¶s
 - Headings follow outline on p. 6-7 of Syllabus
 - No humongous headings
 - No enormous spaces between sections

Organization and logic (3 points)

- Paper is complete, and sequence of parts is logical
- Paper has a clear, interesting focus (motivating question)
- Key terms are clearly defined
- “Three lenses” are understood and applied appropriately
 - Lenses and their pertinent aspects are explained briefly, citing Carroll as needed
 - Quotations from Carroll are minimal
- Arguments are supported by sufficient and appropriate evidence
- Readers can see writer thinking about the “three lenses” and how they help understand the real life dynamics of the team, and/or teams in general
- Conclusion goes beyond summary and includes reflection, analysis, and application to current or future teams.

Use of language (3 points)

- Word choice, phrasing, and sentence structure are correct and effective
- Writing is concise rather than repetitious

Mechanics (2 points)

- Verb tenses are correct and consistent, as are punctuation, spelling, and use of capitalization
- APA formatting is correct

Writer:

Reader:

Mark:

MODEL ABSTRACTS

From the *E-Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol 4, No 2 (2008)

The Climate Sadness program: an open trial of Internet-based treatment for depression

Sarah Perini, Nickolai Titov, Gavin Andrews

Abstract

Overview (This paper reports the results of an open trial of an Internet based clinician-assisted computerized cognitive behavioural treatment (CaCCBT) program for depression. Thirteen participants meeting Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of the American Psychiatric Disorder – 4th Edition (DSM-IV) criteria for Major Depression were recruited. Participants completed 6 on-line lessons and weekly homework assignments, received frequent email contact from a clinical psychologist, and participated in a moderated online discussion forum with other participants. Paired sample t-tests and effect sizes (Cohen's d) were calculated using an intention-to-treat design. Seventy seven percent of participants completed the 6 lessons during the 9 week program. The pre to post-treatment effect size on the Patient Health Questionnaire – 9 Item (PHQ-9) was 1.0. Participants found the Internet treatment program acceptable and satisfactory. Mean therapist time spent per patient during the program was 208 minutes. These encouraging results are consistent with previous literature indicating that Internet-based programs for depression combined with clinical guidance can result in clinically significant improvements in outcomes for patients. These data provide further support for the development of Internet-based treatment for common mental disorders. *how* *results* *significance*)

Social Anxiety and the Internet: Positive and Negative Effects

Dennis Mazalin, Britt Klein

Abstract

The present study sought to partially replicate the Erwin et al. (2004) study of positive and negative Internet effects. The participants were 37 individuals who met the clinical criteria for social anxiety disorder. The Internet effects were explored in relation to the severity of social anxiety and the length of time spent online. The results both confirmed and disconfirmed aspects of the original Erwin et al. results, indicating both positive and negative Internet effects. The findings are discussed in relation to the contradictory research literature that has investigated social anxiety and emotional disturbance on the Internet. *bad example*

Development of an Organizational Diversity Needs Analysis (ODNA) Instrument

Molly J. Dahm*¹, Edwin P. Willems[†], John M. Ivancevich[†] and Daniel E. Graves[‡]

*Lamar University

[†] University of Houston

[‡] Baylor College of Medicine

Correspondence to ¹ Molly J. Dahm, 211 Redbird Lane, Box 10035, Beaumont, TX 77710. E-mail: mjdahm@my.lamar.edu

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ABSTRACT

Researchers have suggested that diversity is beneficial in organizational settings under conditions in which managers can manage it effectively. The goal of the current paper was to develop a general, theoretically anchored measure of diversity needs. Such an instrument could be used to evaluate the existing diversity climate in an organization. Once the climate is assessed, managers can, if necessary, develop, implement, and assess a customized training program to improve their institution's diversity-management practices. A two-study approach is used to examine, determine, and test an eight-dimension instrument, designated the Organizational Diversity Needs Analysis survey.

Sociodemographic Variations in Self-Reported Racism in a Community Sample of Blacks and Latino(a)s

Elizabeth Brondolo*¹, Danielle

L. Beatty[†], Catherine Cubbin[‡], Melissa Pencille*, Susan Saegert[†], Robin Wellington*, Johnathan Tobin[§], Andrea Cassells[§] and Joseph Schwartz[¶]

...
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ABSTRACT

This study investigated dimensions of socioeconomic status (SES) and self-reported racism among a convenience sample of 418 U.S.-born, Black and Latino(a) urban-dwelling adults. Predictors included indexes of individual and neighborhood SES. Self-reported racism was assessed with the Perceived Ethnic Discrimination Questionnaire-Community Version. Individuals at all levels of SES report racism, but the type of exposure varies by SES. Lower levels of SES predict higher levels of lifetime exposure to race-related stigmatization and threat/harassment, and more past-week discrimination. In contrast, higher levels of SES predict greater workplace discrimination. The findings highlight the importance of considering the complex ways in which SES and racism, 2 contributors to racial disparities in health, overlap and diverge.

I liked
Prof.
Brynjolfsson's
from 15.565

←
Finding
Importance

THE LITERATURE REVIEW: A FEW TIPS

This first section is from U Toronto Writing Center website.

What is a review of the literature?

A literature review is an account of what has been published on a topic by accredited scholars and researchers. Occasionally you will be asked to write one as a separate assignment. . . , but more often it is part of the introduction to an essay, research report, or thesis. In writing the literature review, your purpose is to convey to your reader what knowledge and ideas have been established on a topic, and what their strengths and weaknesses are. As a piece of writing, the literature review must be defined by a guiding concept (e.g., your research objective, the problem or issue you are discussing, or your argumentative thesis). It is not just a descriptive list of the material available, or a set of summaries.

Besides enlarging your knowledge about the topic, writing a literature review lets you gain and demonstrate skills in two areas:

1. **information seeking**: the ability to scan the literature efficiently, using manual or computerized methods, to identify a set of useful articles and books
2. **critical appraisal**: the ability to apply principles of analysis to identify unbiased and valid studies.

A literature review must do these things:

- a. be organized around and related directly to the thesis or research question you are developing
- b. synthesize results into a summary of what is and is not known
- c. identify areas of controversy in the literature
- d. formulate questions that need further research

Ask yourself questions like these:

Like your research!

1. What is the **specific thesis, problem, or research question** that my literature review helps to define?
2. What **type** of literature review am I conducting? Am I looking at issues of theory? methodology? policy? quantitative research (e.g. on the effectiveness of a new procedure)? qualitative research (e.g., studies)?
3. What is the **scope** of my literature review? What types of publications am I using (e.g., journals, books, government documents, popular media)? What discipline am I working in (e.g., nursing psychology, sociology, medicine)?
4. How good was my **information seeking**? Has my search been wide enough to ensure I've found all the relevant material? Has it been narrow enough to exclude irrelevant material? Is the number of sources I've used appropriate for the length of my paper?
5. Have I **critically analysed** the literature I use? Do I follow through a set of concepts and questions, comparing items to each other in the ways they deal with them? Instead of just listing and summarizing items, do I assess them, discussing strengths and weaknesses?
6. Have I cited and discussed studies **contrary** to my perspective?
7. Will the reader find my literature review **relevant, appropriate, and useful**?

NOTE: A literature review is a piece of discursive prose, not a list describing or summarizing one piece of literature after another. It's usually a bad sign to see every paragraph beginning with the name of a researcher. Instead, organize the literature review into sections that present themes or identify trends, including relevant theory. You are not trying to list all the material published, but to synthesize and evaluate it according to the guiding concept of your thesis or research question.

[Link to complete U Toronto guidelines, which includes more questions re: how to assess and describe articles you read: <http://www.utoronto.ca/writing/litrev.html>]

I think I've
gotten a
lot better
at this

Here are additional tips, from the U of Wisconsin-Madison:

Think of the literature as having its own introduction, body and conclusion.

In the **introduction**, you should:

- Define or identify the general topic, issue, or area of concern, thus providing an appropriate context for reviewing the literature.
- Point out overall trends in what has been published about the topic; or conflicts in theory, methodology, evidence, and conclusions; or gaps in research and scholarship; or a single problem or new perspective of immediate interest.

In the **body** you should:

- Group research studies and other types of literature (reviews, theoretical articles, case studies, etc.) according to common denominators such as qualitative versus quantitative approaches, conclusions of authors, specific purpose or objective, chronology, etc.
- Summarize individual studies or articles with as much or as little detail as each merits according to its comparative importance in the literature, remembering that space (length) denotes significance.
- Provide the reader with strong "umbrella" sentences at beginnings of paragraphs, "signposts" throughout, and brief "so what" summary sentences at intermediate points in the review to aid in understanding comparisons and analyses. [In other words, use linking language and transitions, and clear topic sentences.]

In the **conclusion** you should:

- Summarize key contributions in relation to the focus you established in your introduction.
- Point out methodological flaws, gaps, or issues that relate to the work your project will undertake

[Link to complete U Wisconsin article: <http://www.wisc.edu/writing/Handbook/ReviewofLiterature.html>]

Possible Source

GENDER

Firestone, Shulamith. "The Dialectic of Sex." Grusky, pp. 671-673.

Hartmann, Heidi. "The Unhappy Marriage of Marxism and Feminism: Toward a More Progressive Union." Grusky, pp. 673-681.

Bielby, William T. "The Structure and Process of Sex Segregation." Grusky, pp. 703-714.

Reskin, Barbara F. "Labor Markets as Queues: A Structural Approach to Changing Occupational Sex Composition." Grusky, pp. 719-734.

Petersen, Trond and Laurie A. Morgan. "The Within-Job Gender Wage Gap." Grusky, pp. 734-743.

Marini, Margaret Mooney and Pi-Ling Fan. "The Gender Gap in Earnings at Career Entry." Grusky, pp. 743-760.

Kilbourne et al. "Returns to Skill, Compensating Differentials, and Gender Bias: Effects of Occupational Characteristics on the Wages of White Women and Men." Grusky, pp. 761-776.

Tam, Tony. "Why Do Female Occupations Pay Less?" Grusky, pp. 776-781.

Correll, Shelley, Stephen Benard, and In Paik. 2007. "Getting a Job: Is There a Motherhood Penalty?" *American Journal of Sociology* 112:1297-1338.

Correll, Shelley. 2004. "Constraints into Preferences: Gender, Status, and Emerging Career Aspirations." *American Sociological Review* 69:93-113.

Grusky, David and Maria Charles. "Is There a Worldwide Sex Segregation Regime?" Grusky, pp. 689-703.

Jacobs, Jerry. "Revolving Doors: Sex Segregation and Women's Careers." Grusky, pp. 714-719.

Kanter, Rosabeth Moss. 1977. "Some Effects of Proportions on Group Life: Skewed Sex Ratios and Responses to Token Women." *American Journal of Sociology* 82:965-990.

Szelenyi, Szonja. "The 'Woman Problem' in Stratification Theory and Research." Grusky, pp. 681-689.

Source: Jason Beckfield's syllabus for the class "Sociology 255: Social Stratification" at Harvard.

RACE/ETHNICITY

Bonacich, Edna. "A Theory of Ethnic Antagonism: The Split Labor Market." Grusky, pp. 555-568.

Liebertson, Stanley. "A Piece of the Pie: Blacks and White Immigrants Since 1880." Grusky, pp. 580-591.

Portes, Alejandro and Min Zhou. "The New Second Generation." Grusky, pp. 597-607.

Waters, Mary C. "Black Identities: West Indian Immigrant Dreams and American Realities." Grusky, pp. 608-611.

Wilson, William Julius. "The Declining Significance of Race: Blacks and Changing Political Institutions." Grusky, pp. 611-623.

Oliver, Melvin and Thomas M. Shapiro. "Black Wealth / White Wealth." Grusky, pp. 636-642.

Gans, Herbert J. "The Possibility of a New Racial Hierarchy in the 21st-Century United States." Grusky, pp. 642-651.

Wilson, William Julius. "Jobless Poverty." Grusky, pp. 651-660.

Massey, Douglas A. and Nancy Denton. "American Apartheid." Grusky, pp. 660-670.

Reskin, Barbara F. 2003. "Modeling Ascriptive Inequality – From Motives to Mechanisms." *American Sociological Review* 68:1-21.

Lee, Jennifer and Frank D. Bean. 2004. "America's Changing Color Lines: Immigration, Race/Ethnicity, and Multiracial Identification." *Annual Review of Sociology* 30:221-42.

Quadagno, Jill. 1994. *The Color of Welfare*. Oxford University Press.

Quillian, Lincoln. 2006. "New Approaches to Understanding Racial Prejudice and Discrimination." *Annual Review of Sociology* 32:299-328.

Winant, Howard. 2000. "Race and Race Theory." *Annual Review of Sociology* 26:169-185.

Zeng, Zhen and Yu Xie. 2004. "Asian-Americans' Earnings Disadvantage Reexamined: The Role of Place of Education." *American Journal of Sociology* 109:1075-1108.

Diversity research

- Lin, Nan. 2003. "Social Networks and Status Attainment." *Annual Review of Sociology* 25(1): 467-487.
- Peng, Kaiping and R.E. Nisbett. 1999. "Culture, Dialectics, and Reasoning about Contradiction." *American Psychologist* 54(9): 741-754.
- Kochan et al. 2003. "The Effects of Diversity on Business Performance: Report of the Diversity Research Network." *Human Resource Management* 42(1):3-21.
- Philips, KW, and Loyd, DL. 2006. "When surface and deep-level diversity collide: The effects on dissenting group members." *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 99(2):143-160.
- Leicht, KT, and Fennell ML. 1997. "The changing context of professional work." *Annual Review of Sociology* 23(1):215-231.
- McPherson, M., L. Smith-Lovin, and JM Cook. 2001. "Birds of a Feather: Homophily in Social Networks." *Annual Review of Sociology* 27(1):415-444.

Survey Example

10. Here are some things the government might do for the economy. Circle one number for each action to show whether you are in favor of it or against it:

1. Strongly in favor of
2. In favor of
3. Neither in favor of nor against
4. Against
5. Strongly against

PLEASE CIRCLE A NUMBER

a. Control of wages by legislation	1	2	3	4	5	28/
b. Control of prices by legislation	1	2	3	4	5	29/
c. Cuts in government spending	1	2	3	4	5	30/
d. Government financing of projects to create new jobs	1	2	3	4	5	31/
e. Less government regulation of business	1	2	3	4	5	32/
f. Support for industry to develop new products and technology	1	2	3	4	5	33/
g. Supporting declining industries to protect jobs	1	2	3	4	5	34/
h. Reducing the work week to create more jobs	1	2	3	4	5	35/

11. Listed below are various areas of government spending. Please indicate whether you would like to see more or less government spending in each area. Remember that if you say "much more," it might require a tax increase to pay for it:

1. Spend much more
2. Spend more
3. Spend the same as now
4. Spend less
5. Spend much less
6. Can't choose

PLEASE CIRCLE A NUMBER

a. The environment	1	2	3	4	5	8	36/
b. Health	1	2	3	4	5	8	37/
c. The police and law enforcement	1	2	3	4	5	8	38/
d. Education	1	2	3	4	5	8	39/
e. The military and defense	1	2	3	4	5	8	40/
f. Retirement benefits	1	2	3	4	5	8	41/
g. Unemployment benefits	1	2	3	4	5	8	42/
h. Culture and the arts	1	2	3	4	5	8	43/

12. If the government had to choose between keeping down inflation or keeping down unemployment, to which do you think it should give highest priority?

Keeping down inflation	1	44/
Keeping down unemployment	2	
Can't choose	8	

13. Do you think that labor unions in this country have too much power or too little power?

Far too much power	1	45/
Too much power	2	
About the right amount of power	3	
Too little power	4	
Far too little power	5	
Can't choose	8	

FIGURE 9-6

A Sample Questionnaire. This questionnaire excerpt is from the General Social Survey, a major source of data for analysis by social researchers around the world.

Babbie, Earl. 2007. "The Practice of Social Research." Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth

14. How about business and industry, do they have too much power or too little power?
- | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|-----|
| Far too much power | 1 | 46/ |
| Too much power | 2 | |
| About the right amount of power | 3 | |
| Too little power | 4 | |
| Far too little power | 5 | |
| Can't choose | 8 | |
15. And what about the federal government, does it have too much power or too little power?
- | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|-----|
| Far too much power | 1 | 47/ |
| Too much power | 2 | |
| About the right amount of power | 3 | |
| Too little power | 4 | |
| Far too little power | 5 | |
| Can't choose | 8 | |
16. In general, how good would you say labor unions are for the country as a whole?
- | | | |
|-----------------|---|-----|
| Excellent | 1 | 48/ |
| Very good | 2 | |
| Fairly good | 3 | |
| Not very good | 4 | |
| Not good at all | 5 | |
| Can't choose | 8 | |
17. What do you think the government's role in each of these industries should be?
1. Own it
 2. Control prices and profits but not own it
 3. Neither own it nor control its prices and profits
 8. Can't choose

PLEASE CIRCLE A NUMBER

- | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|---|---|---|---|-----|
| a. Electric power | 1 | 2 | 3 | 8 | 49/ |
| b. The steel industry | 1 | 2 | 3 | 8 | 50/ |
| c. Banking and insurance | 1 | 2 | 3 | 8 | 51/ |
18. On the whole, do you think it should or should not be the government's responsibility to...

1. Definitely should be
2. Probably should be
3. Probably should not be
4. Definitely should not be
8. Can't choose

PLEASE CIRCLE A NUMBER

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|-----|
| a. Provide a job for everyone who wants one | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 8 | 52/ |
| b. Keep prices under control | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 8 | 53/ |
| c. Provide health care for the sick | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 8 | 54/ |
| d. Provide a decent standard of living for the old | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 8 | 55/ |

FIGURE 9-6
(Continued)

Writing Guidelines for 15.301 Group Project Reports

NOTE: These guidelines supplement the guidelines for the content of your reports.

Document

- Use APA style, including pagination and headers. This also includes APA style for figures and tables.
- 1" margins
- Double-space text
- No extra space between paragraphs, except before section headings
- Indent each paragraph
- Use Title page and Section headings
 - Title should reflect *your* paper
 - *Note: APA style omits a heading for the Introduction*
 - Abstract is on page 2 by itself
 - You may include a Table of Contents; it is not required
 - Check APA style for how to handle headings (we also gave you a handout on APA style)
- Green note: You are welcome to print your paper double-sided to save paper; in fact, we encourage it. However, do not skimp on margins—we need space in which to write comments.

Citation

- Within your text cite all sources you use. Also include a References list, APA style.
 - *Remember that you must cite not only when you quote directly, but also when you paraphrase ideas from other writers.*
- Conversation and correspondence with TAs, professors and others may be cited, or you may include Acknowledgements before your References if you want to acknowledge help in understanding a particular point. For example:

Acknowledgements

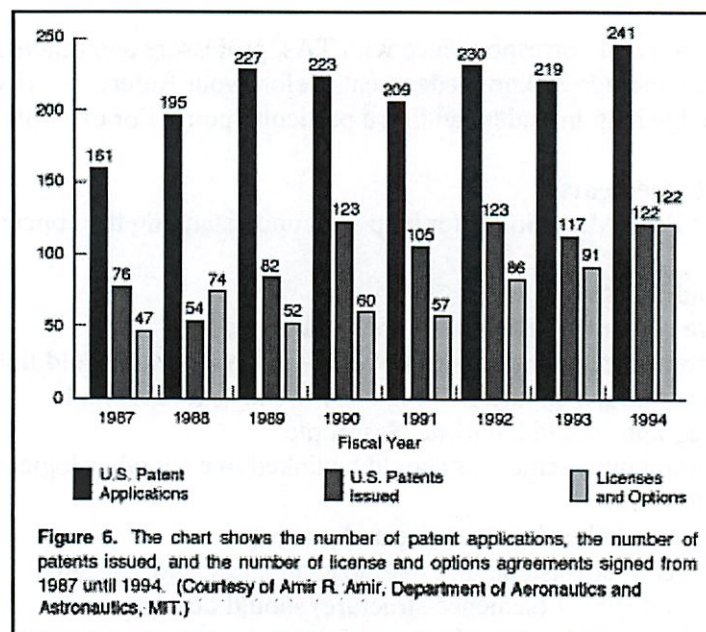
Thanks to Prof. Mary Smith for help with understanding the concept of altruism.

Organization and Writing

- Make sure content appears in the appropriate section.
- Make sure your report is coherent overall—each section should link to the next, and each paragraph should link logically to the next paragraph.
- Each paragraph should have one clear topic.
- Within paragraphs, sentences should be linked to each other logically, so that they are easy to follow.
- Language should be clear, concise and precise.
- Tone should be consistent, and not too chatty, casual or jargony.
- Grammar and syntax (sentence structure) should be correct.
- Your report should be free of misspellings and typos.

Figures and Tables

- Figures created for slides may have to be modified for reports, and vice versa—what can easily be read on a screen and on the page is not the same. **As a rule, printed figures contain more information than slides.** NOTE: Don't leave slide "Titles" on printed figures—instead, use caption labels.
- Note that **all graphics that are not Tables are labeled and numbered as Figures.** Figures and tables are numbered consecutively and separately—Figure 1, Figure 2 . . . ; Table 1, Table 2 . . .
- Figures and tables should be just big enough to be easily read—i.e., aim for consistent proportions, and aim to keep comparable material in comparable formats of comparable size.
- Label graphs and charts with consistent units and consistent (readable!) size type.
- Aim to give print figures a "clean" look—no colored or shaded backgrounds, no unnecessary grids. If you use color for points, lines or keys on graphs, make sure the colors are easily distinguished.
- All figures and tables need captions. Captions should include labels but should not just be labels—rather, they should draw readers' attention to what you want them to notice.**
- Captions go below figures and above tables.**
- All figures and tables must be referred to in your text *before* they appear on the page. As a rule, figures and tables should appear on the same page or the next page as the text that refers to them.
- If you borrow a figure from a text, make sure to credit it in your caption.
- Don't wrap text around figures and tables. It's not a good use of your time, and often leads to hard-to-read columns of text. Instead, center figures on the page.
- Center captions under figures, but *don't* center the lines of the caption (see below)—i.e., align captions flush left; avoid a "pyramid" effect.



From Mayfield Handbook online

1. Organization, clarity and argument (4 pts)

2. Language: grammar, syntax (sentence structure), word choice and phrasing, tone, style, punctuation (4 pts)

3. Formatting (2 pts)

- Paper follows APA format overall, including:
 - cover page
 - pagination with running heads
 - section headings &
 - figures & tables
- Correct and complete APA-style citation within the text and in References at the end of the paper;
- Figures and tables are relevant and clear; neat and consistent; and have informative captions.

Notes:

Total Score:

Writers:

Reader:

Guidelines for Group Project (25-30 pages)

This is a research paper. Your goal is to convince the reader about the significance and validity of your study. Opinions or impressions do not matter here. The richness is in your data and your analysis of it.

Suggested outline**Title Page**

- Use APA style
- Title should reflect *your* paper

Abstract = 1 paragraph 2 points/ 30

- Summary of main findings (results of data analysis) and contribution (to the literature)

Introduction ≈ 2 pages 2 points/ 30

- What is your research question?
- What is the motivation for your study? Why should we care about your research question?

Literature Review ≈ 5 pages 5 points/ 30

- What has been said in the literature so far?
- What questions have not been answered yet? Are there any debates?
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[Depending on whether your project leans more on being descriptive and generating new theory vs. testing hypotheses, you will be able to cover the bullet points in this

section more or less. In any case however, you should make clear to the reader what you main argument is and how your data support it.]

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- Overall what does your analysis indicate?
- Relate your findings back to the literature.
- Significance of your study and broader implications.
- Limitations and what you would have done better or next time.

Conclusion \approx 1 page 1 point/ 30

- Summary of research approach and findings.
- Summary of motivation, significance, and limitations.
- (Briefly) How does this relate to previous knowledge on this topic?
- (Briefly) Future research. New directions that this project indicates.

Self-concept

Read 4/5

A start-class article from Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Self-concept (also called **self-construction**, **self-identity** or **self-perspective**) is a multi-dimensional construct that refers to an individual's perception of "self" in relation to any number of characteristics, such as academics (and nonacademics),^{[1][2][3][4][5]} gender roles and sexuality,^{[6][7][8]} racial identity,^[9] and many others. Each of these characteristics is a research domain (i.e. Academic Self-Concept) within the larger spectrum of self-concept although no characteristics exist in isolation as one's self-concept is a collection of beliefs about oneself.^{[10][11]} While closely related with self-concept clarity (which "refers to the extent to which self-knowledge is clearly and confidently defined, internally consistent, and temporally stable"),^[12] it presupposes but is distinguishable from self-awareness, which is simply an individual's awareness of their self. It is also more general than self-esteem, which is the purely evaluative element of the self-concept.^[13]

The self-concept is an internal model which comprises self-assessments.^[14] Features assessed include but are not limited to: personality, skills and abilities, occupation(s) and hobbies, physical characteristics, etc. For example, the statement "I am lazy" is a self-assessment that contributes to the self-concept. However, the statement "I am tired" would not be part of someone's self-concept, since being tired is a temporary state and a more objective judgment. A person's self-concept may change with time as reassessment occurs, which in extreme cases can lead to identity crises.

Another model of self-concept contains three parts: self-esteem, stability, and self-efficacy. Self-esteem is the "evaluative" component—it is where one makes judgments about his or her self-worth. Stability refers to the organization and continuity of one's self-concept. Is it constantly in flux? Can singular, relatively trivial events drastically affect your self-esteem? The third element, self-efficacy, is best explained as self-confidence. It is specifically connected with one's abilities, unlike self-esteem.^[15]

Researchers debate when self-concept development begins but agree on the importance of person's life. Tiedemann (2000) indicates that parents' gender stereotypes and expectations for their children impact children's understandings of themselves by approximately age 3.^[16] Others suggest that self-concept develops later, around age 7 or 8, as children are developmentally prepared to begin interpreting their own feelings, abilities and interpretations of feedback they receive from parents, teachers and peers about themselves.^[17] Despite differing opinions about the onset of self-concept development, researchers agree on the importance of one's self-concept, influencing people's behaviours and cognitive and emotional outcomes including (but not limited to) academic achievement, levels of happiness, anxiety, social integration, self-esteem, and life-satisfaction.^{[18][19][20]}

Furthermore, the self-concept is not restricted to the present. It includes past selves and future selves. Future or possible selves represent individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, or what they are afraid of becoming. They correspond to hopes, fears, standards, goals, and threats. Possible selves may function as incentives for future behavior and they also provide an evaluative and interpretive context for the current view of self.^[21]

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History

The psychologists who paved the way for this concept were Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow. According to Rogers, everyone strives to become more like an "ideal self". The closer one is to their ideal self, the happier one will be. Rogers also claimed that one factor in a person's happiness is unconditional positive regard, or UPR, from others. UPR often occurs in close or familial relationships, and involves a consistent level of affection regardless of the recipient's actions.^[22] Rogers explained UPR as neither approving nor disapproving of someone based on their behaviours or characteristics but rather accepting them without judgement.^[23] From a therapy frame of reference, Rogers identified the significance of a client perceiving a therapist's UPR towards them in order for it to have meaning because the client should not feel judged as they attempt to accurately express themselves. Evidence of UPR in self-concept research is apparent in studies by Benner and Mistry (2007) and Tiedemann (2000). Research has indicated that adolescents whose mothers and teachers had high expectations for their future educational attainment experienced more academic success than those whose adult influences had lower expectations.^[24] Adults' high expectations for children are also reported as being important buffers from the negative effects of other parties' low expectations by developing feelings of positive regard in adolescents.^[25] In research about parent stereotypes, the correlation between parents' beliefs about their early elementary age children's mathematics abilities and the children's actual abilities increased as children aged.^[16] This demonstrates the strong relationship between adults' beliefs about children and children's beliefs about themselves, indicating the importance of developing unconditional positive regard for students so they can develop it themselves.

An important theory relating to self-concept is the self-categorization theory (SCT), which states that the self-concept consists of at least two "levels," a personal identity and a social identity. In other words, people's self-evaluations rely on both one's self-perceptions and how one fits in socially. The self-concept can alternate rapidly between the personal and social identity.^[26] Research by Trautwein et al.(2009) indicates that children and adolescents begin integrating social comparison information into their own self-concept in elementary school by assessing their position among their peers.^[19] Gest et al.'s (2008) research findings reveal that peer acceptance has a significant impact on one's self-concept by age 8, affecting children's behaviour and academic success.^[27] Both of these research examples capulate the social influences on a person's self-concept.

Academic Self-Concept

Academic Self-Concept (ASC) refers to the personal beliefs someone develops about their academic abilities or skills.^[19] A person's ASC develops and evolves as they age. Research by Tiedemann (2000) suggests that ASC begins developing in early childhood, from age 3 to 5, due to parental /family and early educators' influences.^[16] Other research contends that ASC does not develop until age 7 or 8 when children begin evaluating their own academic abilities based on the feedback they receive from parents, teachers and their peers.^[17] According to Rubie-Davis (2006), by age 10 or 11 children view their academic abilities by comparing themselves to their peers.^[28]

Due to the variety of social factors that influence one's ASC, developing a positive ASC has been related to people's behaviours and emotions in other domains of their life, influencing one's happiness, self-esteem, and anxiety levels to name a few.^[18] Due to the significant impact ASC has on a person's life, fostering positive self-concept development in children should be an important goal of any educational system.^[18]

These research findings are important because they have practical implications for parents and teachers. Research by Craven et al. (1991) indicates that parents and teachers need to provide children with specific feedback that focuses on their particular skills or expressed abilities in order to increase ASC.^[29] Other research suggests that learning opportunities should be conducted in a variety of mixed-ability and like-ability groupings that down-play social comparison because too much of either type of grouping can have adverse effects on children's ASC in the way they view themselves in relation to their peers.^{[19][30]}

Expectations, conditioning, and gauging

According to Kathleen Berger, author of the text *The Developing Person*, guilt plays a significant role in shaping a young child's self-concept. As an example, she describes a child that is coddled at home and his/her socially unacceptable behavior never thwarted by the parent(s). When the child is denied whatever they want from another child, he/she strikes out towards other children not understanding that there will be consequences and possible retaliation. If this kind of behavior were to occur in a classroom environment, a teacher could use guilt in an attempt to shape the spoiled child's self concept by reminding the student that hitting others is not acceptable in most social situations. In essence, guilt shapes behavior. Berger goes on to explain that most children over the age of 5 have some sense of the rules and regulations that govern social behavior that they learn from a guardian, thus shaping their self concept without using guilt. In some cases, if maladaptive behavior is left unchecked, the seeds of bullying could start to germinate.^[31]

Self concept is linked directly to a person's level of anxiety, according to the famous humanistic psychologist Carl Rogers. According to Rogers, if a child feels highly valued and wanted as a child, that person is more likely to grow up with a positive self image with the possibility of becoming self-actualized. Rogers describes this individual as a fully functioning person with a low level of anxiety, which he attributes to inconsistencies between self-perceptions and possible-self. Here again, expectations play a major role in shaping self-concept. Dr. Rogers hypothesizes that psychologically healthy people actively move away from roles created by others expectations but instead look within themselves for validation.^[32]

"Neurotic and psychotic people, on the other hand, have self-concepts that do not match their experiences.. They are afraid to accept their own experiences as valid, so they distort them, either to protect themselves or to win approval from others."

Children learn at an early age that certain conditions will be placed upon them in exchange for approval or love from the parents. For example, a parent may tell a child that he/she must love the new baby sister or

valued/loved

brother or Mommy and Daddy won't love them. This kind of hostage mentality could harbor and suppress negative ill will towards the new baby which will eventually express itself later on in life. An example of this kind of expression is heard every day in playground fights in the inevitable statement "He started it!" [33]

To gauge a child's self-concept, Susan Harter developed the Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents. In it, domains such as scholastic competence, behavior conduct, close friendships, social acceptance, athletic competence, romantic appeal, and physical appearance are rated using a number of indicators. Some of the positive indicators include if the child or adolescent expresses their opinion, maintains eye contact during conversation, works cooperatively in a group, maintains a comfortable space between self and others, and uses proper voice levels for various situation. Negative indicators could include teasing, gossiping, using dramatic gesturing, engaging in inappropriate touching or avoiding physical contact, verbally putting down self or others, or bragging about achievements, skills, or appearance. [34]

Cultural differences

Worldviews about the self in relation to others differs across and within cultures. In Western cultures "the normative imperative /—/ is to become independent from others and to discover and express one's attributes". [35] Relationships, memberships, groups, and their needs and goals, tend to be secondary to the self. When assessing self-concept, one's positioning among peers is important because of the competitive nature of society, where people view themselves as better or worse than peers. [30][36] In Asian cultures, an interdependent view of the self is more prevalent. Interpersonal relationships are more central than one's individual accomplishments. Great emphasis is placed on these relationships, and the self is seen primarily as an integral part of society. When asked to complete 20 "I am" statements, members of non-Western cultures tend to describe themselves in more interdependent terms than members of Western cultures did, whereas members of Western cultures describe themselves as more independent. [37]

A study published in the International Journal of Intercultural Relations gives another division of the independent and interdependent selves based on subcultures. A small study done in Israel shows the different characteristics most prevalent of mid-level merchants in an urban community versus those in a communal settlement, called the kibbutz. Similar to the Western v. non-Western perspectives, the collectivist members valued the interdependent self more than the urban members. Likewise, the urban samples held more value to independent traits than the kibbutz. Both answered with more independent traits than interdependent. The study divided the independent and interdependent traits into subcategories to further define what are the most valued by the two subcultures. On the independent scale, personal traits showed the greatest prevalence for the individualists, while hobbies and preferences were greater for the collectivists. Work and school were the most frequently described interdependent responses for the urban sector, while residence was most often referred to by the kibbutz. Overall, the study intensifies the knowledge that self-concept depends on inner attributes, abilities, and opinions from the community based on collective ideology. Further studies on other subcultures would be needed to create a generalization on a wider scale. [38]

Gender differences

Gender has also been shown to be an important factor in the formation of self-concept. Early research inspired by the differences in self-concept across culture suggested that men tend to be more independent while women tend to be more interdependent. [39] However, more recent research [37] has shown that, while

men and women do not differ between independence and interdependence generally, they do differ in the distinction between relational and collective interdependence. Men tend to conceive of themselves in terms of collective interdependence while women conceive of themselves in terms of relational interdependence. In other words, women identify more with dyadic (one-on-one) relationships or small cliques whereas men define themselves more often within the context of larger groups.^[40]

The developmental perspective

Research by Tiedemann (2000) found that parents' and teachers' gender stereotypes about children's mathematic abilities influenced children's self-concepts about their mathematic ability prior to having extensive math experiences in school.^[16] Tiedemann's (2000) research findings also indicate that the correlation increased between adult's gendered stereotypes and children's beliefs about themselves as children aged throughout elementary school.^[16] Additional research by Benner and Mistry (2007) indicates that parent's initial expectations for their children, during early childhood, correlate with children's academic success.^[41] These findings highlight the influence of adult stereotypes and expectations on children's self-concept formation.

Research by Maccoby (1990) found that boys and girls choose same-sex play partners by age 3 and maintain their preferences until late elementary school.^[42] Boys and girls become involved in different social interactions and relationships. Girls tend to prefer one-on-one dyadic interaction, while boys prefer group activities. Girls tend to share secrets and form tight, intimate bonds with one another. Furthermore, girls are more likely to wait their turn to speak, agree with others, and acknowledge the contributions of others. Boys, on the other hand, build larger group relationships based on shared interests and activities. Boys are more likely to threaten, boast, and call names, suggesting the importance of dominance and hierarchy in groups of male friends. Subsequently, the social characteristics of boys and girls tend to carry over later in life as they become men and women.^[42]

higher ed results?

Empirical evidence

In a 1999 study by Gabriel and Gardner, five separate experiments were conducted to demonstrate gender differences in self-concept: a 20 Statement Test evaluating self-construal ("I am..." statements), a series of surveys evaluating trait identification, an exercise evaluating selective memory for emotional events, a diary reading paradigm evaluating selective memory, and a survey concerning a situational dilemma evaluating behavioral intention and desire to behave. Each of these five studies resulted in no significant difference between men and women in levels of independence. However, they were able to show a bias among women toward relational interdependence and a bias among men toward collective interdependence in affect, cognition, and behavior.^[37]

Other psychologists have postulated that men display an independent concept while women display an interdependent self-concept. One study exploring this aimed to discover whether gender stereotypes have an effect on this gender difference in self-construal. Participants read a list of traits and rated to what extent the traits applied to a typical man, a typical woman, and the self. When rating men and women in general, both males and females displayed a stereotype for "relational" women (focused on their relationships with others) and "agentic" men (focused on themselves and their individual accomplishments). Self-ratings also corresponded to these stereotypes. The researchers then hypothesized that the stereotypes themselves contribute to the difference in self-construal, and found that this effect is more potent for women than for

men. One possible explanation for this imbalance is that “relational” traits tend to be more positively viewed than “agentic” traits, and therefore participants are more likely to apply relational traits to themselves. This research supports the SCT, showing that one’s self-concept is affected by the interplay of self-assessments and social roles (in this case, belonging to the larger group of males or females).^[26]

One study, focusing on the developmental perspective, aimed to discover girls’ and boys’ preferences for socialization. Thirty-three-month-old children were assigned to play in pairs. Some pairs were same-sex, others were mixed. Researchers measured both positive and negative social behaviors during play. Both boys and girls had higher levels of social behavior when playing with the same sex than with the opposite sex. In addition, in the mixed-sex pairs, girls were more likely to passively watch a male partner play than vice versa. Boys were more likely to be unresponsive to what their female partners were saying than vice versa.^[43]

Another study observed performance in unisex and mixed-sex groups of children. 10-year-old children were placed in either all-male pairs, all-male groups, all-female pairs, or all-female groups. The children were given a task that was equally interesting to males and females. The results of the study found significant correlation between sex of the participants and social structure. Boys performed almost twice as well in groups than in pairs, whereas girls did not show significant difference. The increased productivity of boys in groups was expected due to the greater number of participants, whereas girls did not profit from more participants.^[44]

See also

Main article: Outline of self

- | | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| ■ Identity (social science) | ■ Self (psychology) | ■ Self-image |
| ■ Personal identity (philosophy) | ■ Self-awareness | ■ Self-reflection |
| ■ Psyche (psychology) | ■ Self-control | ■ Self-Schema |
| | ■ Self-efficacy | ■ Theory of mind |

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External links

- An Overview of Self-Concept Theory for Counselors (<http://www.ericdigests.org/pre-9211/self.htm>)
- Assessment of Self-Concept (<http://www.ericdigests.org/1996-3/self.htm>)
- Self-concept (http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_g2699/is_0003/ai_2699000306) (Gale Encyclopedia of Psychology)
- Self-Concept and Self-Esteem (<http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/col/regsys/self.html>) (Valdosta (<http://www.valdosta.edu/>))
- What Are The Effects Of The Self-Concept Theory In High School Students? (<http://people.wcsu.edu/mccarneyh/acad/Maruscsak.html>) (Lance Maruscsak)

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Categories: Educational psychology | Conceptions of self

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Self-image

A start-class article from Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

A person's **self-image** is the mental picture, generally of a kind that is quite resistant to change, that depicts not only details that are potentially available to objective investigation by others (height, weight, hair color, gender, I.Q. score, etc.), but also items that have been learned by that person about himself or herself, either from personal experiences or by internalizing the judgments of others. A simple definition of a person's self-image is their answer to this question - "What do you believe people think about you?"

Self-image may consist of three types:

1. Self-image resulting from how the individual sees himself or herself.
2. Self-image resulting from how others see the individual.
3. Self-image resulting from how the individual perceives others see him or her.

These three types may or may not be an accurate representation of the person. All, some or none of them may be true.

A more technical term for self-image that is commonly used by social and cognitive psychologists is **self-schema**. Like any schema, self-schemas store information and influence the way we think and remember. For example, research indicates that information which refers to the self is preferentially encoded and recalled in memory tests, a phenomenon known as "Self-referential encoding".^[1]

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less related to self
concept

Poor self-image

Poor self-image may be the result of accumulated criticisms that the person collected as a child which have led to damaging their own view of themselves. Children in particular are vulnerable to accepting negative judgments from authority figures because they have yet to develop competency in evaluating such reports.

Poor self-image is not always caused by other people. The person may be often told he or she is beautiful/pretty/handsome but cannot personally see it. Poor judgement on her or himself can be disastrous if not controlled properly.

not up to standards...

Negative self-images can arise from a variety of factors. A prominent factor, however, is personality type.

Perfectionists, high achievers, and those with "type A" personalities seem to be prone to having negative self-images.^[2] This is because such people constantly set the standard for success high above a reasonable, attainable level. Thus, they are constantly disappointed in this "failure."

Self-image maintenance

When people were in the position of evaluating others, self-image maintenance processes can lead to a more negative evaluation depends on the self-image of the evaluator. That is to say stereotyping and prejudice may be the way individuals maintain their self-image. When individuals evaluated a member of a stereotyped group, they were less likely to evaluate that person negatively if their self-images had been bolstered through a self-affirmation procedure, and they were more likely to evaluate that person stereotypically if their self-images had been threatened by negative feedback.^[3] Individuals may restore their self-esteem by derogating the member of a stereotyped group.^[4]

Residual self-image

Residual self-image is the concept that individuals tend to think of themselves as projecting a certain physical appearance,^{[5][6]} or certain position of social entitlement, or lack thereof.^[7] The term was used at least as early as 1968,^[8] but was popularized in fiction by the *Matrix* series, where persons who existed in a digitally created world would subconsciously maintain the physical appearance that they had become accustomed to projecting.^[9]

Self-image of victimisation

Victims of abuse and manipulation often get trapped into a self-image of victimisation. The psychological profile of victimisation includes a pervasive sense of helplessness, passivity, loss of control, pessimism, negative thinking, strong feelings of guilt, shame, self-blame and depression. This way of thinking can lead to hopelessness and despair.^[10]

Children's self-image disparity

Self-image disparity was found to be positively related to chronological age (CA) and intelligence, two factors thought to increase concomitantly with maturity: Capacity for guilt and ability for cognitive differentiation.^[11] However, males had larger self-image disparities than females Whites had larger disparities and higher ideal self images than Blacks, and SES (socioeconomic status) affected self-images differentially for the 2nd and 5th graders.^[12]

See also

- Body image
- Body schema
- Face (self image)
- Figure rating scale
- List of basic self topics

- Positive mental attitude
- Self-concept
- Self-esteem
- Self (psychology)
- Self-schema
- Self-Concealment

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Categories: Conceptions of self | Perception | Psychological theories

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Self-awareness

A start-class article from Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Self-awareness is the capacity for introspection and the ability to reconcile oneself as an individual separate from the environment and other individuals. Self-awareness, though similar to sentience in concept, includes the experience of the self, and has been argued as implicit to the hard problem of consciousness.

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- 6 See also
- 7 See also
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Unrelated



The mirror test is a measure of self-awareness.

more mirror test

The basis of personal identity

A philosophical view

"I think, therefore I exist, as a thing that thinks."

"...And as I observed that this truth 'I think, therefore I am' (Cogito ergo sum) was so certain and of such evidence ...I concluded that I might, without scruple, accept it as the first principle of the Philosophy I was in search."

"...In the statement 'I think, therefore I am' ... I see very clearly that to think it is necessary to be, I concluded that I might take, as a general rule, the principle, that all the things which we very clearly and distinctly conceive are true..."^{[1][2]}

While reading Descartes, Locke began to relish the great ideas of philosophy and the scientific method. On one occasion, while in a meeting with friends, the question of the "limits of human understanding" arose. He spent almost twenty years of his life on the subject until the publication of *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*, a great chapter in the History of Philosophy.^[3]

John Locke's chapter XXVII "On Identity and Diversity" in *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*

(1689) has been said to be one of the first modern conceptualizations of consciousness as the repeated self-identification of oneself, through which moral responsibility could be attributed to the subject—and therefore punishment and guiltiness justified, as critics such as Nietzsche would point out, affirming "...the psychology of conscience is not 'the voice of God in man'; it is the instinct of cruelty ... expressed, for the first time, as one of the oldest and most indispensable elements in the foundation of culture."^{[4][5][6]} John Locke does not use the terms *self-awareness* or *self-consciousness* though.^[7]

According to Locke, personal identity (the self) "depends on consciousness, not on substance" nor on the soul. We are the same person to the extent that we are conscious of our past and future thoughts and actions in the same way as we are conscious of our present thoughts and actions. If consciousness is this "thought" which doubles all thoughts, then personal identity is only founded on the repeated act of consciousness: "This may show us wherein personal identity consists: not in the identity of substance, but ... in the identity of consciousness". For example, one may claim to be a reincarnation of Plato, therefore having the same soul. However, one would be the same person as Plato only if one had the same consciousness of Plato's thoughts and actions that he himself did. Therefore, self-identity is not based on the soul. One soul may have various personalities.

Self-identity is not founded either on the body or the substance, argues Locke, as the substance may change while the person remains the same: "animal identity is preserved in identity of life, and not of substance", as the body of the animal grows and changes during its life. Take for example a prince's soul which enters the body of a cobbler: to all exterior eyes, the cobbler would remain a cobbler. But to the prince himself, the cobbler would be himself, as he would be conscious of the prince's thoughts and acts, and not of the cobbler's life. A prince's consciousness in a cobbler body: thus the cobbler is, in fact, a prince. But this interesting border-case leads to this problematic thought that since personal identity is based on consciousness, and that only oneself can be aware of his consciousness, exterior human judges may never know if they really are judging—and punishing—the same person, or simply the same body. In other words, Locke argues that you may be judged only for the acts of your body, as this is what is apparent to all but God; however, you are in truth only responsible for the acts for which you are conscious. This forms the basis of the insanity defense: one can't be held accountable for acts in which one was unconsciously irrational, mentally ill^[8]—and therefore leads to interesting philosophical questions:

"personal identity consists [not in the identity of substance] but in the identity of consciousness, wherein if Socrates and the present mayor of Queenborough agree, they are the same person: if the same Socrates waking and sleeping do not partake of the same consciousness, Socrates waking and sleeping is not the same person. And to punish Socrates waking for what sleeping Socrates thought, and waking Socrates was never conscious of, would be no more right, than to punish one twin for what his brother-twin did, whereof he knew nothing, because their outsides were so like, that they could not be distinguished; for such twins have been seen."^[3]

Or again:

"PERSON, as I take it, is the name for this self. Wherever a man finds what he calls himself, there, I think, another may say is the same person. It is a forensic term, appropriating actions and their merit; and so belong only to intelligent agents, capable of a law, and happiness, and misery. This personality extends itself beyond present existence to what is past, only by consciousness, --whereby it becomes concerned and accountable; owns and imputes to itself past actions, just upon the same ground and for the same reason as it does the present. All which is founded in a concern for happiness, the unavoidable concomitant of consciousness;

that which is conscious of pleasure and pain, desiring that that self that is conscious should be happy. And therefore whatever past actions it cannot reconcile or APPROPRIATE to that present self by consciousness, it can be no more concerned in it than if they had never been done: and to receive pleasure or pain, i.e. reward or punishment, on the account of any such action, is all one as to be made happy or miserable in its first being, without any demerit at all. For, supposing a MAN punished now for what he had done in another life, whereof he could be made to have no consciousness at all, what difference is there between that punishment and being CREATED miserable? And therefore, conformable to this, the apostle tells us, that, at the great day, when every one shall 'receive according to his doings, the secrets of all hearts shall be laid open.' The sentence shall be justified by the consciousness all person shall have, that THEY THEMSELVES, in what bodies soever they appear, or what substances soever that consciousness adheres to, are the SAME that committed those actions, and deserve that punishment for them."^[4]

Henceforth, Locke's conception of personal identity found it not on the substance or the body, but in the "same continued consciousness", which is also distinct from the soul. He creates a third term between the soul and the body—and Locke's thought may certainly be meditated by those who, following a scientist ideology, would identify too quickly the brain to consciousness. For the brain, as the body and as any substance, may change, while consciousness remains the same. Therefore personal identity is not in the brain, but in consciousness. However, Locke's theory also reveals his debt to theology and to Apocalyptic "great day", which by advance excuse any failings of human justice and therefore humanity's miserable state.

A modern scientific view

See also: Secondary consciousness

Self-Awareness Theory

Self-Awareness Theory states that when we focus our attention on ourselves, we evaluate and compare our current behavior to our internal standards and values. We become self-conscious as objective evaluators of ourselves. However self-awareness is not to be confused with self-consciousness.^[9] Various emotional states are intensified by self-awareness. However, some people may seek to increase their self-awareness through these outlets. People are more likely to align their behavior with their standards when made self-aware. People will be negatively affected if they don't live up to their personal standards. Various environmental cues and situations induce awareness of the self, such as mirrors, an audience, or being videotaped or recorded. These cues also increase accuracy of personal memory.^[10] In Demetriou's theory, one of the neo-Piagetian theories of cognitive development, self-awareness develops systematically from birth through the life span and it is a major factor for the development of general inferential processes.^[11] Moreover, a series of recent studies showed that self-awareness about cognitive processes participates in general intelligence on a par with processing efficiency functions, such as working memory, processing speed, and reasoning.^[12]

In theater

Theater also concerns itself with other awareness besides self-awareness. There is a possible correlation

between the experience of the theater audience and individual self-awareness. As actors and audiences must not "break" the fourth wall in order to maintain context, so individuals must not be aware of the artificial, or the constructed perception of his or her reality. This suggests that self-awareness is an artificial continuum just as theater is. Theatrical efforts such as *Six Characters in Search of an Author*, or *The Wonderful Wizard of Oz*, construct yet another layer of the fourth wall, but they do not destroy the primary illusion. Refer to Erving Goffman's *Frame Analysis: An Essay on the Organization of Experience*.

In animals

See also: Mirror test

Thus far, there is evidence that bottlenose dolphins, some apes,^[13] and elephants may have the capacity to be self-aware.^[14] Recent studies from the Goethe University Frankfurt show that magpies may also possess self-awareness.^[13] Common speculation suggests that some other animals may be self-aware.^[15]

In science fiction

Does that distinguish or treatment of animals some way?

In science fiction, self-awareness describes an essential human property that bestows "personhood" onto a non-human. If a computer, alien or other object is described as "self-aware", the reader may assume that it will be treated as a completely human character, with similar rights, capabilities and desires to a normal human being.^[16] A computer that is self-aware has the ability to think for itself, rather than thinking what is predetermined by its code. The words "sentience", "sapience" and "consciousness" are used in similar ways in science fiction.

In the Terminator storyline, Skynet was originally installed by the military to control the U.S. national arsenal on August 4, 1997. On August 29 it gained **self-awareness**, and the panicking operators, realizing the extent of its abilities, tried to pull the plug. Skynet perceived the attempt to deactivate it as an attack and came to the conclusion that all of humanity would attempt to destroy it. To defend itself, it determined that humanity should be exterminated.

In psychology

In psychology, the concept of "self-awareness" is used in different ways:

- As a form of intelligence, self-awareness can be an understanding of one's own knowledge, attitudes, and opinions. Alfred Binet's first attempts to create an intelligence test included items for "auto-critique" – a critical understanding of oneself.^[17] Surprisingly we do not have a privileged access to our own opinions and knowledge directly. For instance, if we try to enumerate all the members of any conceptual category we know, our production falls much short of our recognition of members of that category.
- Albert Bandura^[18] has created a category called self-efficacy that builds on our varying degrees of self-awareness.
- Our general inaccuracy about our own abilities, knowledge, and opinions has created many popular phenomena for research such as the better than average effect. For instance, 90% of drivers may believe that they are "better than average" (Swenson, 1981)^[19] Their inaccuracy comes from the

absence of a clear definable measure of driving ability and their own limited self-awareness; and this of course underlines the importance of objective standards to inform our subjective self-awareness in all domains. Inaccuracy in our opinion seems particularly disturbing, for what is more personal than opinions. Yet, inconsistency in our opinion is as strong as in our knowledge of facts. For instance, people who call themselves opposite extremes in political views often hold not just overlapping political views, but views that are central to the opposite extreme. Reconciling such differences proves difficult and gave rise to Leon Festinger's theory of Cognitive Dissonance.^[20]

See also

See also

- Anosognosia
- Bicameralism (psychology)
- Boltzmann brain
- Cartesian theater
- Childhood amnesia
- Confidence
- Dunning–Kruger effect
- Feldenkrais Method
- Higher consciousness
- Insight in psychology and psychiatry
- Lucid dreaming
- Memory suppression
- Mindfulness
- Mirror test
- Modesty
- Outline of self
- Self-consciousness
- Sentience
- Vedanta
- Vipassanā
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The Affirmative Action Stigma of Incompetence: Effects of Performance Information Ambiguity

Author(s): Madeline E. Heilman, Caryn J. Block, Peter Stathatos

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Affirmative Action and the Stigma of Incompetence

David Nye, Athens State College

Affirmative action has been getting some bad press lately. Among other criticisms, it has come under fire for harming those it was designed to help. Employees who benefit from affirmative action efforts are often considered to be less competent and less qualified than their non-affirmative action peers. While not all incompetents are affirmative action hires, the job performance of all affirmative action hires is considered rightly suspect. After all, the reasoning goes, why would a qualified job applicant need affirmative action help?

Research has suggested, however, that positive information regarding an employee's job qualifications should minimize assumptions of incompetence associated with affirmative action hiring programs. In other words, when co-workers have information that clearly describes an individual's job qualifications, they should be less likely to assume that he or she was hired solely because of race or gender. However, if such information is not available, co-workers are likely to assume that the individual lacks relevant qualifications.

Researchers Madeline Heilman, of New York University, Caryn Block, of Columbia University, and Peter Stathatos, of New York University, were interested in learning whether job performance information had a similar effect on managers' assumptions of incompetence regarding affirmative action employees. Specifically, would positive job performance information negate assumptions of incompetence? If so, what kind of information was necessary to minimize assumptions of incompetence?

In the first of two studies, male and female managers of a large insurance firm were given information about hypothetical computer programmers. The fictional employees were all white men and women. The data on each employee included a resume with photo and hiring information; some of the women's employment applications bore the hiring office notation: "Hired through Women/Minority Recruiting Program," while all others bore the notation, "Hired." A six-month job performance summary, ostensibly prepared by a supervisor, was also included. That performance summary provided either no evaluation of

performance, a clear and unequivocal evaluation of successful job performance, an ambiguous evaluation of success, or an ambiguous evaluation of failure. The managers were then asked to evaluate the fictional employee's performance, make salary recommendations, and to indicate whether they believed the employee was hired on the basis of qualifications.

The subjects rated the affirmative action hires as less competent, and recommended smaller salary increases for them compared with the men and non-affirmative action women. The pattern held in the face of ambiguous successful performance information that belied the affirmative action stereotype. In fact, affirmative action women fared no better under the ambiguous evaluation of success than those accompanied by failure information. The ratings of affirmative action hires for whom no judgmental information was present were likewise evaluated no higher than those with a failing evaluation. Only when positive performance information was clear and unambiguous did the difference in ratings disappear.

Similar evidence of the affirmative action stigma was found in the second study, in which 72 managers from the same insurance company evaluated a fictional employee. In the second study, the key issue was how much the fictional employee's successful performance was thought to be the result of his or own effort, as opposed to coaching by a senior co-worker. Again the managers perceived that the affirmative action hires were less likely to have been hired for their qualifications. And again, ambiguous performance information—that the fictional employee's success might be attributed to the coaching efforts of another individual—resulted in poor evaluations of competence. Apparently the ambiguity in the information allowed the managers to ignore or discount that information when it ran contrary to their negative expectations for affirmative action employees. Only when success was clearly the result of the employee's own efforts were the ratings the same between affirmative action and non-affirmative action employees.

The authors find their study results disheartening, since their findings highlight the strength and tenacity of the stigma of incompetence associated with affirmative action. In the absence of unequivocally clear and positive performance information, it appears that an assumption of incompetence will dominate people's expectations for affirmative action beneficiaries. Given the ambiguity that surrounds much of organizational life, these results suggest that beliefs about affirmative action may have far-reaching consequences, including biased

Same study

pushing it

decision making, skewed reward systems, and frustrated employees.

The practical implications of this study are strong. To the extent that organizations can provide unambiguous, objective, and public information regarding the job qualifications and performance of individuals associated with affirmative action, the stigma of incompetence may be minimized. However, as Heilman and her colleagues point out, these findings may also underscore a less obvious issue surrounding affirmative action. It is possible that affirmative action is actually giving rise to a more subtle, but no less odious, form of discrimination than that which it was originally intended to combat. Clearly, organizations must give careful consideration to the informational requirements of affirmative action processes.

Source: Madeline E. Heilman, Caryn J. Block, and Peter Stathatos, The affirmative action stigma of incompetence: Effects of performance information ambiguity, *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(3), 1997, 603-625.

These two environmental stances require very different physical assets, intangible resources, and organizational capabilities. The compliance mode is achieved primarily through the addition of pollution controls to existing organizational processes; as such, organizational policies and practices remain essentially intact. In contrast, the prevention mode of environmental management may require systemic changes to existing organizational processes, particularly when prevention is achieved through the redesign of organizational production and delivery systems. As such, the prevention mode is associated with company-wide commitment to proactive environmental policies, significant employee involvement, and an emphasis on the use of cross-functional teams.

Proactive environmental policies should translate into a competitive advantage when the process of developing and implementing a pollution prevention program results in the development of firm resources such as enhanced organizational learning, cross-functional integration, and increased employee skills and involvement. In addition, a pro-environment reputation may be a valuable strategic asset that enables organizations to attract and hire top candidates, increase customer sales, and influence public policy.

Russo and Fouts analyzed the performance of 243 firms over a two year period (1991-1992) and found a strong link between high levels of environmental performance and organizational profitability, as measured by return on assets. In their study, firms with the highest levels of environmental performance demonstrated strong support for environmental protection organizations and undertook first class initiatives in environmental matters; these firms had built a reputation of going above and beyond their competitors in pollution control and/or hazardous waste reduction. In return, these corporations were rewarded for their environmental performance with bottom-line profitability gains.

Additionally, the findings of the study indicate that the relationship between environmental performance and firm profitability is influenced by industry growth. Russo and Fouts found that industry growth enhanced the positive impact of environmental performance on firm profitability. Bottom line? It pays to be green, and the payoff strengthens in faster growing industries.

These results of this study have profound implications for executives enacting environmental policies. Firms adopting a proactive stance regarding the ecological environment gain the benefits of consumer loyalty and employee commitment, as well as increases in profitability. The traditionally

9 The Bottom Line Effects of Greening

Monique Forte, Stetson University, and Bruce T. Lamont, Florida State University

Does being green pay off? The popular press has long sought to encourage corporate responsibility toward the ecological environment by lauding the benefits that accrue to firms adopting environmentally friendly policies and practices. There is evidence that a pro-environment stance affords corporations a stronger reputation among like-minded consumers and an advantage in attracting top job candidates, while neutralizing the threat of environmental activism and reducing the risk of costly regulatory penalties. Yet, research has failed to clearly establish a direct link between environmental performance and bottom-line profitability.

Michael Russo, of the University of Oregon, and Paul Fouts, of Golden Gate University, examined the relationship between environmental performance and organizational profitability. As background for the study, the authors describe two primary environmental positions, compliance and prevention. Compliance is an approach in which firms rely on end-of-pipe pollution control and often resist the passage and enforcement of environmental regulations. Prevention is more systemic in nature, as firms go beyond mere compliance and emphasize source reduction and process innovation.

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Getting There is Only Half the Battle: Stigma Consciousness and Maintaining Diversity in Higher Education

Elizabeth C. Pinel,* Leah R. Warner, and Poh-Pheng Chua

The Pennsylvania State University

Increases in stigma consciousness since arriving at a primarily White college could predict the college performance and self-esteem of the academically stigmatized. After reviewing relevant research, the authors report on a study in which 44 stigmatized (African Americans and Latinos/Latinas) and 79 nonstigmatized (Whites and Asian Americans) students completed measures of stigma consciousness, GPA, disengagement from academics, and self-esteem. Among stigmatized males, increases in stigma consciousness predicted lower GPAs and greater disengagement. Although stigmatized females had low GPAs regardless of their increases in stigma consciousness, with increases in stigma consciousness came less disengagement from school and lower self-esteem. The discussion offers suggestions for how to minimize these negative effects of heightened stigma consciousness levels.

More ethnic minorities enroll in college than ever before (American Council on Education, 2000–2001). Despite this increase in enrollment, less than 50% of all African Americans, Native Americans, and Latinos/Latinas enrolled in college (hereon “academically stigmatized students”) complete college (American Council on Education, 2000–2001). Moreover, the college completion rate of these groups trails that of Whites and Asian Americans by a significant margin, with the gap being especially large for males (American Council on Education, 2000–2001). What can account for this considerable gap in college completion between academically stigmatized ethnic minorities and their nonstigmatized counterparts?

*Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Elizabeth C. Pinel, Department of Psychology, 543 Moore Building, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania 16802 [e-mail: ecp6@psu.edu].

We're just
doing
stigma
perception
not effect
on grades

Stigma Consciousness: The Psychological Legacy of Social Stereotypes

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Elizabeth C. Pinel
University of Texas at Austin

Whereas past researchers have treated targets of stereotypes as though they have uniform reactions to their stereotyped status (e.g., J. Crocker & B. Major, 1989; C. M. Steele & J. Aronson, 1995), it is proposed here that targets differ in the extent to which they expect to be stereotyped by others (i.e., *stigma consciousness*). Six studies, 5 of which validate the stigma-consciousness questionnaire (SCQ), are presented. The results suggest that the SCQ is a reliable and valid instrument for detecting differences in stigma consciousness. In addition, scores on the SCQ predict perceptions of discrimination and the ability to generate convincing examples of such discrimination. The final study highlights a behavioral consequence of stigma consciousness: the tendency for people high in stigma consciousness to forgo opportunities to invalidate stereotypes about their group. The relation of stigma consciousness to past research on targets of stereotypes is considered as is the issue of how stigma consciousness may encourage continued stereotyping.

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Innocent chatter, the currency of ordinary social life, or a compliment ("You don't think like a woman"), the well-intentioned advice of psychologists, the news item, the joke, the cosmetics advertisement—none of these is what it is or what it was. Each reveals itself, depending on the circumstances in which it appears, as a threat, an insult, an affront, as a reminder, however subtle, that I belong to an inferior caste.

—S. L. Bartky, "Toward a Phenomenology
of Feminist Consciousness"

And I always feel this with . . . people—that whenever they're being nice to me, pleasant to me, all the time really, underneath they're only assessing me as a criminal and nothing else. It's too late for me to be any different now to what I am, but I still feel this keenly, that that's their only approach, and they're quite incapable of accepting me as anything else.

—E. Goffman, *Stigma: Notes on the Management
of Spoiled Identity*

For some targets of stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination always seem to be "out there." It is easy to understand why. Researchers have documented the pervasiveness of stereotypes in our society, both in terms of the number of groups that are stereotyped and the number of people who endorse stereotypes about these groups (cf. Crocker & Major, 1989). From this perspective, it is surprising that targets of

stereotypes would ever think that their stereotyped status does not influence how people treat them.

Empirical research corroborates the claim that targets of stereotypes recognize that their group membership plays a role in how people interact with them. For instance, when attractive students received positive feedback, they were more likely to attribute the feedback to their appearance when their evaluator could see them than when their evaluator could not (Major, Carrington, & Carnevale, 1984). Similarly, when participants with cosmetically applied facial scars interacted with a confederate, they later reported that the scar influenced their interaction—even when the scar had surreptitiously been removed prior to the interaction (Kleck & Strenta, 1980).

Of course, targets of stereotypes do not always interpret their experiences in terms of their group membership. One important determinant of this interpretive tendency seems to be the perceptions of the probability of being stereotyped. In one test of this hypothesis, women learned that they would soon receive evaluations from eight male judges and that either 100%, 75%, 50%, 25%, or 0% of these judges were known to have discriminated against women (Ruggiero & Taylor, 1997, Study 1). These women then received a poor evaluation (i.e., a grade of F on a test of their future prospects). Only when the women were certain that their evaluators were sexist did they attribute their poor performance to discrimination. Other, more naturalistic methods for increasing the perceived probability of being stereotyped seem to have the same effect. For example, women who anticipated being the sole woman in a group expected to be stereotyped more than women who did not expect to occupy such a solo status (Cohen & Swim, 1995).

There may also be stable individual differences in the extent to which targets expect to be stereotyped or discriminated against. For example, targets who remain largely insulated from out-group members would have few occasions on which to reflect on their stereotyped status (e.g., McGuire & McGuire, 1981). Presumably, such targets should perceive less of a probability of being stereotyped than targets who were raised in a community composed primarily of out-group members (see Crosby, 1982; Major, 1994).

Whether the perceived probability of being stereotyped is situ-

Elizabeth C. Pinel, Department of Psychology, University of Texas at Austin.

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Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Elizabeth C. Pinel, who is now at the Department of Psychology, Pennsylvania State University, 543 Moore Building, University Park, Pennsylvania 16802. Electronic mail may be sent to ecip6@psu.edu.

Academic Self-Concept: A Cross-Sectional Study of Grade and Gender Differences in a Singapore Secondary School

Woon Chia Liu
National Institute of Education
Singapore

Chee Keng John Wang
Nanyang Technological University
Singapore

Many studies support the existence of a significant decline in students' academic self-concept from early to mid-adolescence. In comparison, the findings on gender effect are less conclusive. This study aimed to determine whether there is any grade or gender effect on adolescents' academic self-concept in the Singapore context. Specifically, the cross-sectional study was conducted with Secondary 1, 2 and 3 students ($N = 656$) in a government co-educational school. The results established a significant main effect according to grade, with Secondary 3 students having significantly lower academic self-concept (scale and subscales) than Secondary 1 and 2 students. In addition, there was a significant main effect for gender, with female students having significantly higher perceived academic effort (academic self-concept subscale) than their male counterparts.

Key Words: Academic self-concept, Singapore, Secondary school students, Grade and gender effects

Adolescence is usually thought of as a developmental transition during which an individual passes from childhood to maturity (Coleman & Hendry, 1990). In addition to physiological maturation, the period is usually accompanied by an intertwined network of pressures, such as cognitive changes, shifting societal expectations, conflicting role demands, increasingly complex relations with parents, peers and opposite sex, and often choices of school courses and changes in school environments (Alsaker & Olweus, 1993; Block & Robins, 1993; Bolognini, Plancherel, Bettschart, & Halfon, 1996; Coleman & Hendry, 1990; Dacey & Kenny, 1997). It is also characterised as a time of questioning of self

and subsequent reformulation of perceptions and evaluations of self (Block & Robins, 1993). In view of the changes that take place, several theorists have postulated that adolescent years are a time of confusion and ambiguity (Burns, 1979), a period of 'storm and stress' (Hall, 1904), and a phase of 'identity crisis' (Erikson, 1959). Even among those who are unwilling to accept a 'turmoil' formulation, there is a consensus that adolescence is a difficult stage of adjustment (Rutter, Graham, Chadwick, & Yule, 1976). To test the 'crisis' hypothesis, many studies have utilised changes in self-concept as an indicator of disturbance in development. Nonetheless, not much work has been done in the Singapore context. As such, to have a better understanding of adolescents in Singapore, this study will attempt to establish whether there is any grade or gender effect on their academic self-concept during early to mid-adolescence.

Operational Definition of Academic Self-Concept

Self-concept is generally defined as an individual's perception of self and the perceptions are said to be formed through experiences with the environment, interactions with

Woon Chia Liu, Assistant Professor, Psychological Studies Academic Group, National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore. **Chee Keng John Wang**, Assistant Professor, Physical Education and Sports Science, National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore. Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Woon-Chia Liu, Psychological Studies Academic Group, National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, 1, Nanyang Walk, Singapore (637616). Electronic mail may be sent to wcliu@nie.edu.sg.

ASCQ Lin + WU

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

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- "People of my race"

INITIAL DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF THE ACADEMIC SELF-CONCEPT SCALE¹

WILLIAM M. REYNOLDS

University of Wisconsin—Madison

MARÍA P. RAMÍREZ, ANTONIO MAGRIÑA, AND JANE ELIZABETH ALLEN

State University of New York—Albany

The Academic Self-Concept Scale (ASCS) was developed as a measure of an academic facet of general self-concept in college students. The initial item pool consisted of 59 items worded to conform to a 4-point Likert-type response format. On the basis of responses from 427 college students, the final form of the ASCS was constructed consisting of 40 items with an estimated internal consistency reliability of .91. Validity was established by correlating the ASCS with grade point averages (GPAs) of students and with their scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. A multiple regression analysis of the ASCS with GPA and Rosenberg scores as predictor variables resulted in a multiple correlation of .64. These and other data lend support to the reliability and validity of the ASCS as a measure of academic self-concept. *Using in our project*

ACADEMIC self-concept has been viewed by numerous investigators as an important facet of general self-concept (Brookover, Paterson, and Thomas, 1962; Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton, 1976). The relative importance of academic self-concept to the overall affective status of the individual is dependent in part on situational and environmental variables. An individual in a school setting is more likely to demonstrate a greater concern with academic self-concept than with physical self-concept.

¹ Requests for reprints should be sent to William M. Reynolds, Department of Educational Psychology, University of Wisconsin, 1025 West Johnson Street, Madison, Wisconsin 53706.

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Internal final draft May 2

Handed in ^{as} Draft 4/6

Self Confidence and Race at MIT

Elizabeth Albany

Olivia Gierlich

Peter Lee

Michael Plasmeier

MIT

ABSTRACT


We are investigating the self-perception of students at MIT across different races and genders. We are interested in determining if minorities have less confidence in their abilities because they attribute their admission to affirmative action or if they have more confidence because they are defying the odds. Current literature shows us that self-perception is based on prior beliefs on affirmative action, perceived level of personal discrimination and dissatisfaction with this discrimination. This led us to hypothesize that minority undergraduate students at MIT would have less confidence than their majority counterparts.

We investigated this by administering a survey to the undergraduate MIT student body. This anonymous survey asked demographic information as well as actual and perceived performance. Results of this survey showed...(we don't have finalized results quite yet).

INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, white males have dominated both educational institutions and the general workforce. Over time, however, ethnic minorities and women have achieved increasing levels of both political and societal equality. Unfortunately, this equality has been hard to translate into higher education and job placement due to the fact that those who have the power to decide are generally white males. Consequently, they may be more biased to discriminate against minorities in order to favor one of their own group.

In order to counter this, President Kennedy introduced the term "affirmative action" in 1961. This method was meant to be a temporary solution in order to prevent discrimination and diversify both the workplace and universities across the country. Throughout the decades affirmative action has helped women and minorities to gain more placement in well paying jobs and prestigious institutions.

Although true equality in numbers is still a long time coming, overall discrimination has decreased while diversity has increased. This has caused a major backlash against affirmative action. Opponents claim that preferential treatment allowed for under-qualified minority candidates to get jobs over more qualified white males. In a society that values self-reliance and merit based achievement (Gordon, 1981), affirmative action has undermined the achievements of women and minorities (Boxill, 1984). This has resulted in women and minorities to question their abilities, which consequently causes a loss of self-esteem (Boxill, 1984). 

However, in today's world, does this still hold? Do minorities have less confidence in their abilities because they attribute their admission to affirmative

action? On the flip side, do minorities feel an increased sense of confidence for 'beating the odds,' so to speak? Past studies have countered the earlier findings and discovered that most women and minorities do not suffer a marked self-esteem deficit (Taylor, 1994). Nevertheless we want to see whether this still holds at a prestigious institution like MIT. We believe that the high level of qualification of all of the applicants may cause minorities to feel that their minority status holds more importance than it would at a traditional college. In order to do this, we surveyed the current undergraduate student body. We questioned them on first demographic

information such as gender and race, and then asked them several questions regarding their self-perception on their abilities. We also asked them to compare themselves to their peers. Through the rest of this paper we will first view the current research already done on this topic in order to help build our hypothesis. We will then describe our survey and method of data collection in depth. After this we will follow this with the results and analysis of the data. Finally, we will present our ultimate findings and discuss their implications.

Does stigma affect self confidence? More on self concept

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the United States, it is clear that minorities and women are still underrepresented in the educational system as well as in high-powered jobs. This has led to the continuation of preferential treatment for minorities in both colleges and the work force. However, how has this affected the self-esteem of minorities?

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In order to determine this we will look at the current literature on this topic. It was initially believed that minorities and women would react negatively to group rather than individual based preference (Taylor & Dube 1986). Taylor & Dube (1986) found that people in general reacted negatively to this sort of preferential treatment and this delegitimized minorities' accomplishments and consequently self-esteem. However, in 1994 Taylor did a study that surveyed minorities and women from both firms that used affirmative action and firms that did not. It was found that benefiting from preferential treatment had no negative self-perception effects. Additionally African-American workers who worked at firms that employed affirmative action showed greater ambition in their careers and believed that people in general were more helpful (Taylor, 1994).

Additionally, it was examined in 1994 by Graves & Powell, and it was found that men did not suffer this decrease in self-esteem while women did. However, upon looking into this further it was seen that race was not taken into account when in this study and therefore sex as a determinant is not really certain.

Next Nacoste in 1989 tested another hypothesis which stated that "responses to preferential treatment are contingent upon one's pre-existing beliefs about the fairness of these procedures" (Nacoste, 1989). In other words people's self-esteem after preferential treatment depended on whether they agreed with the preferential treatment or not. Secondly in 1987 Nacoste proposed that the self-esteem response of minorities to preferential treatment also depended upon the person's individual dissatisfaction with the situation of their minority group in their organization (Nacoste 1987). In 1996 Tougas examined the validity of these beliefs. She

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examined how the variables of sex, beliefs about the fairness of affirmative action, perceived discrimination, and personal dissatisfaction over the groups standing in the organization affected self-esteem of minorities.

Tougas studied a Canadian bussing firm, which had underrepresented minorities and women. She examined how they felt about their qualification for the job, and on whether or not they got the job simply from affirmative action. In this firm, drivers were required to have a high school diploma, a good driving record, and pass an exam (passing was 55%). After these qualifications were made, employees were separated into ethnic or gender groups and randomly chosen from there. This study examined a situation in which group membership is only taken into account after the qualifications have been met. This atmosphere is comparable to MIT due to the fact that all applicants who get in meet the minimum qualifications. The subjects were then informed of their score as well as the presence of the preferential treatment and on how underrepresented their respective minorities were.

Tougas found that beliefs on affirmative action as well as personal dissatisfaction seemed to be most influential on self-esteem of minorities while sex had almost no effect. (Everyone was made aware of the level of discrimination.) This countered the studies done previously (Heilman, Lucas, & Kaplow, 1990).

Now that prior beliefs on affirmative action as well as personal dissatisfaction with the discrimination are credited as contributing to self-esteem and sex has been discredited we only have the variable of perceived discrimination to look into. Fortunately, in 1994 Matheson looked into this variable. She did a

series of experiments in which she had women read a few situations. These situations varied in the amount of discrimination against women and then gave the subjects options on how to fix the problem, each solution with a varying severity of affirmative action. Despite the perceived amount of discrimination, the women still chose options that favored color-blindness (Matheson, Taylor, and Chow, 1994). Only when Matheson chose women who were personally affected by discrimination and gave them situations that they could potentially encounter, did they favor higher levels of affirmative action. This supported the findings of Tougas (1996), and effectively redefined perception of personally being discriminated against as a cause in effecting the self-esteem in minorities.

This literature allows us to narrow our hypothesis on whether MIT minorities and women have a lower self-esteem. From prior studies, it seems that a perception of being discriminated against personally, dissatisfaction with the discrimination, and preconceived notions on affirmative action affect minorities' self-esteem. We hypothesize that since MIT students are aware of the affirmative action discrimination and societal notions of affirmative actions dictate it as being unfair, (Gordon 1981) minorities and women at MIT will have a lower self-esteem than MIT undergraduate members of the majority.

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RESEARCH DESIGNS & METHOD

In order to gather data and research, we decided on using a survey as the medium in order to maximize our audience reach as well as have the ability to ask as many questions as possible without taking too much time from the participants.

Our hypothesis was that due to the awareness of discrimination through affirmative action and other methods as well as the wide range of reactions to these methods, minorities and women of prestigious institutions, such as MIT, would have a lower self-esteem than the fairly and well represented groups within the organization. To test this hypothesis, we plan to create and distribute an online survey to all major undergraduate academic, social, and living groups on MIT's campus.

Our survey will be an online, web-based survey, through a provider such as SurveyMonkey. The reason for a web-based survey, as opposed to a paper-based survey, is that though the members of the group may not know everybody on campus, we are all part of diverse and varied organizations on campus that may be reached much more easily by email lists. There are also some other advantages to web surveys compared to traditional in person or mail surveys, especially considering the context of MIT. The vast majority, if not everybody, uses email on campus as opposed to the huge variety of different locations that students are located in and the fact that traditional mail is vastly ignored. Additionally, a web survey allows for near perfect anonymity, which is important to a topic as personally sensitive as self-esteem or self-evaluation. Second, data collection through web surveys is extremely quick, compared to in person collection, though with the risk of non-response.

The participants will ideally, be the vast majority of the undergraduate population at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The purpose of this study is to assess the self-esteem and self-evaluation of members of a prestigious institution, especially for a younger audience, who are still in the process of forming

a firm identity and valuation of oneself. Given the academic prestige of MIT within a global scope, we feel that this school can be a reflective example of this audience.

The survey will consist of several questions as well as demographic enquiries in order to assure that the sample is as random and as widespread as possible. All participants will be asked for ethnicity, school year, gender, as well as living group. The key variables in this study are ethnicity and gender, as we are attempting to find a correlation between self-esteem and self-evaluation and a minority status within an institute. The survey questions will be mostly, if not all, close-ended questions such as, "How would you rate your performance at MIT?" or "Rate your academic ability compared to peers at MIT." The use of close-ended questions with an answer scale of 1-7, with 4 being around an average, will allow a more accurate quantitative analysis of the data, as opposed to assigning an arbitrary number to qualitative responses. With numerical data, we plan to run regressions with each variable against each other, to find the closest correlation within the answers provided by the participants. Though the primary purpose of this study is to find a correlation between minority status and self-esteem, there may be unknown, yet more closely correlated variables that we will watch out for.

Within this research design, our primary risk will be of self-selection bias. Due to the fact that this survey will be answered by those who voluntarily participate, it may skew the results to over-represent those within the population who may have very strong opinions and not the majority of the institution whom we wish to reach. However, on the flip side, the anonymity of completing a web survey may help reduce or eliminate social desirability bias. Another possible source for

bias is in the randomness of the sample. Since these emails with the link to the survey will be sent by the members of the group, we may have a biased representation based on friends within our social circles. In other words, people that we are already friends and have similar ideas may be more likely to answer this survey.

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Stigma Consciousness and Perceived Stereotype Threat and Their Effects on Academic Performance

Tiffany M. Mosley

Jerome Rosenberg, Ph.D.
Professor of Psychology and New College

This study examines stigma consciousness in African American females attending a predominantly White southern university. Two hypotheses are tested: that higher stigma consciousness levels are related to lower self-efficacy and that greater self-efficacy is related to higher academic performance (measured by GPA). In the first phase of the study, participants completed a questionnaire including a modified version of the Stigma Consciousness Questionnaire (Pinel, 1999) combined with a self-efficacy measure (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1992); in the second phase, they participated in a focus group. Results are discussed in terms of the processes by which individuals within stereotyped groups underperform and implications for developing interventions and programs to improve performance outcomes for such individuals.

Because I am a woman, I must make unusual efforts to succeed. If I fail, no one will say, "She doesn't have what it takes." They will say, "Women don't have what it takes." ~Clare Boothe Luce

...I recognize that my power as well as my primary oppressions come as a result of my blackness as well as my woman-ness, and therefore my struggles on both of these fronts are inseparable.
~Audre Lorde

The aim of this study was to examine the effects of stigma consciousness and perceived stereotype threat on the academic performance of African American females attending a predominantly White state university in the South. Despite the increases in ethnic minority enrollment in the past several decades, most universities and colleges still consist primarily of White students and faculty (with the exception of Historically Black Colleges and Universities). Based on the results of a survey conducted by the U.S. Department of Education (2000) in 1998, African Americans constituted 11% of all students enrolled at 2-year and 4-year colleges and universities in the United States. Latinos/Latinas constituted 9%; Asian Americans 6%; and American Indians less than 1%. Whites, on the other hand, constituted 70% of all students (Chua, Pinel, & Warner, 2005).

Stigma Consciousness

The growing psychological field associated with examining *stigma consciousness* levels examines the experiences and behaviors of stigmatized minority groups. The term *stigma consciousness* reflects individual differences—either dispositional or situationally induced—in the extent to which targets of widespread stereotypes focus on their stereotyped status and believe it pervades their life experiences (Pinel, 1999). In most social situations, individuals high in *stigma consciousness* usually believe that stereotypes about their group pervade their interactions with members outside of their group—the out-group. They also believe they cannot escape their stereotyped status. On the contrary, individuals low in *stigma consciousness*, although aware of stereotypes about their group, would dispute that their stereotyped status normally plays a role in their daily interactions with others. It is important to note that *stigma consciousness* does not simply refer to *awareness* of one's stereotyped status; rather, it refers to one's *focus* on one's stereotyped status. From this perspective, *stigma consciousness* represents a form of self-consciousness (Pinel, 2004).

To capture and examine the variability in experiences across various targets of stereotypes, Pinel (1999) developed and validated the *Stigma Consciousness Questionnaire (SCQ)* for a wide range of stereotyped groups (e.g., women, lesbians, gay men, African Americans, Latinos/Latinas). This 10-item measure asks respondents to indicate their level of agreement with statements pertaining to the extent to which stereotypes about their group affect them and play a role in their interactions with members of the out-group. Sample items from the SCQ for women include: "When interacting with men, I feel as though they interpret all of my behaviors in terms of the fact that I am a woman" and "Stereotypes about women have not affected me personally" (Chua, Pinel, & Warner,

Self Confidence and Race at MIT

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ABSTRACT

We are investigating the self-perception of students at MIT across different races and genders. We are interested in determining if minorities have less confidence in their abilities because they attribute their admission to affirmative action or if they have more confidence because they are defying the odds. Current literature shows us that self-perception is based on prior beliefs on affirmative action, perceived level of personal discrimination and dissatisfaction with this discrimination. This led us to hypothesize that minority undergraduate students at MIT would have less confidence than their majority counterparts.

We investigated this by administering a survey to the undergraduate MIT student body. This anonymous survey asked demographic information as well as actual and perceived performance. Results of this survey showed...(we don't have finalized results quite yet).

Comment [A1]: Start the abstract from here. You can put previous sentences after this part.

The ideal/typical format for an abstract is:

- First, summarize the previous literature in a sentence or two.
- Clarify what you could add to this discussion? What is your question, based on what's being discussed in the literature so far?
- What was your setting? (sample, location etc)
- What was the result of your research?

INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, white males have dominated both educational institutions and the general workforce. Over time, however, ethnic minorities and women have achieved increasing levels of both political and societal equality. Unfortunately, this equality has been hard to translate into higher education and job placement due to the fact that those who have the power to decide are generally white males. Consequently, they may be more biased to discriminate against minorities in order to favor one of their own group.

In order to counter this, President Kennedy introduced the term "affirmative action" in 1961. This method was meant to be a temporary solution in order to prevent discrimination and diversify both the workplace and universities across the country. Throughout the decades affirmative action has helped women and minorities to gain more placement in well paying jobs and prestigious institutions.

Although true equality in numbers is still a long time coming, overall discrimination has decreased while diversity has increased. This has caused a major backlash against affirmative action. Opponents claim that preferential treatment allowed for under-qualified minority candidates to get jobs over more qualified white males. In a society that values self-reliance and merit based achievement (Gordon, 1981), affirmative action has undermined the achievements of women and minorities (Boxill, 1984). This has resulted in women and minorities to question their abilities, which consequently causes a loss of self-esteem (Boxill, 1984).

However, in today's world, does this still hold? Do minorities have less confidence in their abilities because they attribute their admission to affirmative

Comment [A2]: Affirmative action is not the best place to start. It is one of MANY reasons to affect minorities' self esteem; that means, if you were to start from why minorities could possibly feel less confident, there are too many other things going on (e.g. socio-economic status gap, history of immigration and/or slavery etc).

Furthermore, you don't really need to explain "why" they feel less (or more) self esteem. You only need facts about what it is. So start from literature that says about the relationship between minority and self esteem. What is the common result ([1] minorities have lower self esteem/ [2] minorities have higher self esteem/ [3] minority-nonminority distinction is irrelevant to self esteem)? Is there a consensus? If not, why the result or argument varies?

Comment [A3]: Your research is not about past vs present, so this question is not to your point.

action? On the flip side, do minorities feel an increased sense of confidence for 'beating the odds,' so to speak? Past studies have countered the earlier findings and discovered that most women and minorities do not suffer a marked self-esteem deficit (Taylor, 1994). Nevertheless we want to see whether this still holds at a prestigious institution like MIT. We believe that the high level of qualification of all of the applicants may cause minorities to feel that their minority status holds more importance than it would at a traditional college. In order to do this, we surveyed the current undergraduate student body. We questioned them on first demographic information such as gender and race, and then asked them several questions regarding their self-perception on their abilities. We also asked them to compare themselves to their peers. Through the rest of this paper we will first view the current research already done on this topic in order to help build our hypothesis. We will then describe our survey and method of data collection in depth. After this we will follow this with the results and analysis of the data. Finally, we will present our ultimate findings and discuss their implications.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the United States, it is clear that minorities and women are still underrepresented in the educational system as well as in high-powered jobs. This has led to the continuation of preferential treatment for minorities in both colleges and the work force. However, how has this affected the self-esteem of minorities?

Comment [A4]: Is this argument generally assumed? It sounds counter intuitive to me. You should do more literature review to nail this down as a fact.

-> Find out which is more dominant view.
-> In case some says minorities have higher self esteem but others say it is not, you can say the literature is inconclusive.

Comment [A5]: Introduction of the setting is abrupt. Why then do we need to test this at MIT? Is there any particular reason to believe MIT is a special case than previous literature?

In order to determine this we will look at the current literature on this topic. It was initially believed that minorities and women would react negatively to group rather than individual based preference (Taylor & Dube 1986). Taylor & Dube (1986) found that people in general reacted negatively to this sort of preferential treatment and this delegitimized minorities' accomplishments and consequently self-esteem. However, in 1994 Taylor did a study that surveyed minorities and women from both firms that used affirmative action and firms that did not. It was found that benefiting from preferential treatment had no negative self-perception effects. Additionally African-American workers who worked at firms that employed affirmative action showed greater ambition in their careers and believed that people in general were more helpful (Taylor, 1994).

Additionally, it was examined in 1994 by Graves & Powell, and it was found that men did not suffer this decrease in self-esteem while women did. However, upon looking into this further it was seen that race was not taken into account when in this study and therefore sex as a determinant is not really certain.

Next Nacoste in 1989 tested another hypothesis which stated that "responses to preferential treatment are contingent upon one's pre-existing beliefs about the fairness of these procedures" (Nacoste, 1989). In other words people's self-esteem after preferential treatment depended on whether they agreed with the preferential treatment or not. Secondly in 1987 Nacoste proposed that the self-esteem response of minorities to preferential treatment also depended upon the person's individual dissatisfaction with the situation of their minority group in their organization (Nacoste 1987). In 1996 Tougas examined the validity of these beliefs. She

examined how the variables of sex, beliefs about the fairness of affirmative action, perceived discrimination, and personal dissatisfaction over the groups standing in the organization affected self-esteem of minorities.

Tougas studied a Canadian bussing firm, which had underrepresented minorities and women. She examined how they felt about their qualification for the job, and on whether or not they got the job simply from affirmative action. In this firm, drivers were required to have a high school diploma, a good driving record, and pass an exam (passing was 55%). After these qualifications were made, employees were separated into ethnic or gender groups and randomly chosen from there. This study examined a situation in which group membership is only taken into account after the qualifications have been met. This atmosphere is comparable to MIT due to the fact that all applicants who get in meet the minimum qualifications. The subjects were then informed of their score as well as the presence of the preferential treatment and on how underrepresented their respective minorities were.

Tougas found that beliefs on affirmative action as well as personal dissatisfaction seemed to be most influential on self-esteem of minorities while sex had almost no effect. (Everyone was made aware of the level of discrimination.) This countered the studies done previously (Heilman, Lucas, & Kaplow, 1990).

Now that prior beliefs on affirmative action as well as personal dissatisfaction with the discrimination are credited as contributing to self-esteem and sex has been discredited we only have the variable of perceived discrimination to look into. Fortunately, in 1994 Matheson looked into this variable. She did a

series of experiments in which she had women read a few situations. These situations varied in the amount of discrimination against women and then gave the subjects options on how to fix the problem, each solution with a varying severity of affirmative action. Despite the perceived amount of discrimination, the women still chose options that favored color-blindness (Matheson, Taylor, and Chow, 1994). Only when Matheson chose women who were personally affected by discrimination and gave them situations that they could potentially encounter, did they favor higher levels of affirmative action. This supported the findings of Tougas (1996), and effectively redefined perception of personally being discriminated against as a cause in effecting the self-esteem in minorities.

This literature allows us to narrow our hypothesis on whether MIT minorities and women have a lower self-esteem. From prior studies, it seems that a perception of being discriminated against personally, dissatisfaction with the discrimination, and preconceived notions on affirmative action affect minorities' self-esteem. We hypothesize that since MIT students are aware of the affirmative action discrimination and societal notions of affirmative actions dictate it as being unfair, (Gordon 1981) minorities and women at MIT will have a lower self-esteem than MIT undergraduate members of the majority.

Comment [A6]: I don't think you need all those literatures on affirmative action to build this hypothesis.

RESEARCH DESIGNS & METHOD

In order to gather data and research, we decided on using a survey as the medium in order to maximize our audience reach as well as have the ability to ask as many questions as possible without taking too much time from the participants.

Our hypothesis was that due to the awareness of discrimination through affirmative action and other methods as well as the wide range of reactions to these methods, minorities and women of prestigious institutions, such as MIT, would have a lower self-esteem than the fairly and well represented groups within the organization. To test this hypothesis, we plan to create and distribute an online survey to all major undergraduate academic, social, and living groups on MIT's campus.

Our survey will be an online, web-based survey, through a provider such as SurveyMonkey. The reason for a web-based survey, as opposed to a paper-based survey, is that though the members of the group may not know everybody on campus, we are all part of diverse and varied organizations on campus that may be reached much more easily by email lists. There are also some other advantages to web surveys compared to traditional in person or mail surveys, especially considering the context of MIT. The vast majority, if not everybody, uses email on campus as opposed to the huge variety of different locations that students are located in and the fact that traditional mail is vastly ignored. Additionally, a web survey allows for near perfect anonymity, which is important to a topic as personally sensitive as self-esteem or self-evaluation. Second, data collection through web surveys is extremely quick, compared to in person collection, though with the risk of non-response.

The participants will ideally, be the vast majority of the undergraduate population at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The purpose of this study is to assess the self-esteem and self-evaluation of members of a prestigious institution, especially for a younger audience, who are still in the process of forming

Comment [A7]: Overall, you can shorten the benefit of using online survey.

In addition, you would not want to include researchers' own convenience that is not conducive to a better quality (i.e. quick to collect the result)

a firm identity and valuation of oneself. Given the academic prestige of MIT within a global scope, we feel that this school can be a reflective example of this audience.

The survey will consist of several questions as well as demographic enquiries in order to assure that the sample is as random and as widespread as possible. All participants will be asked for ethnicity, school year, gender, as well as living group. The key variables in this study are ethnicity and gender, as we are attempting to find a correlation between self-esteem and self-evaluation and a minority status within an institute. The survey questions will be mostly, if not all, close-ended questions such as, "How would you rate your performance at MIT?" or "Rate your academic ability compared to peers at MIT." The use of close-ended questions with an answer scale of 1-7, with 4 being around an average, will allow a more accurate quantitative analysis of the data, as opposed to assigning an arbitrary number to qualitative responses. With numerical data, we plan to run regressions with each variable against each other, to find the closest correlation within the answers provided by the participants. Though the primary purpose of this study is to find a correlation between minority status and self-esteem, there may be unknown, yet more closely correlated variables that we will watch out for.

Within this research design, our primary risk will be of self-selection bias. Due to the fact that this survey will be answered by those who voluntarily participate, it may skew the results to over-represent those within the population who may have very strong opinions and not the majority of the institution whom we wish to reach. However, on the flip side, the anonymity of completing a web survey may help reduce or eliminate social desirability bias. Another possible source for

Comment [A8]: While you could do a regression at the end, it is always good to start with a simple test (T-test and ANOVA)

Comment [A9]: This is a good thought. If you check and compare the response rate of minorities and non-minorities and find no difference, you can at least say that there was no hidden mechanism going on in having respondents by race.

bias is in the randomness of the sample. Since these emails with the link to the survey will be sent by the members of the group, we may have a biased representation based on friends within our social circles. In other words, people that we are already friends and have similar ideas may be more likely to answer this survey.

Overall comment:

I am glad to see this project moving on and am also curious about how the result would turn out! At this point, I think you need some direction for your theory and overall framing.

I think it will be much clearer and straightforward if you structure your argument in as follows:

- 1) *Previous theories show xxxxx relationship between minority identity and their self esteem. You cite a bunch of literature here.*
 - a. *If there is a general consensus, you conclude the relationship is considered "X".*
 - b. *However, what is minorities are in high prestige institutions? Is there any reason that we would expect difference from (a)? Why? I liked your "beating the odds" argument. Why don't you play out more with that? It would help to think with real world examples; would President Obama suffer from low self esteem because he is a Black? Would Susan Hockfield feel less confident about herself because she is a female? If you*

think they will be different from Blacks or females in general, what is the rationale behind that? So would members of prestigious institution feel similar to what Obama and Susan Hockfield would feel?

- c. It will be better if you could show a theory to explain why minorities in high prestige organization are different from typical minorities. However, if you cannot, I think it is OKAY to go with reasonable argument and real world examples (and not backed up by previous theories)*

Or, depending on how your literature review turns out, you can try this type of structure.

- 1) Previous theory tells us that minorities generally have lower degree of self-esteem than non-minorities. (I don't know if this is true. You need to look up the literature and show evidences)*
- 2) At the same time, it has also been argued that members of high prestige organization have higher degree of self esteem (again, I am just guessing without a lit review).*
- 3) Then how would these two effects be combined (here be careful not to imply cross-social status comparison within minority race. In your current setting it is a comparison between minority and nonminority, assuming that they are all in prestigious organization)? Would minorities in high prestige institutions still have less confidence compared to their fellow non minority members? Or the fact that they are being in the prestige institution soaks up the negative self-image?*

I know you've made some time investment in affirmative action story but I don't really see a clear reason why it should take such a central position. Here I have suggested some ways to establish your hypothesis without having it and hope this is helpful.

Best,

Jae



A longitudinal study of students' academic self-concept in a streamed setting: The Singapore context

W. C. Liu¹*, C. K. J. Wang¹ and E. J. Parkins²

¹National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

²University of Nottingham, UK

Background. Although several studies support the existence of a negative stream effect on lower-ability stream students' academic self-concept, there is not enough longitudinal research evidence to preclude the possibility that the stream effect may only be temporary. In addition, not much is known about the effect of streaming on changes in students' academic self-concept over time.

Aims. The main aims of the study were to examine the effect of streaming on (a) the students' academic self-concept immediately after the streaming process, and at yearly intervals for 3 consecutive years, and (b) the changes in students' academic self-concept over a 3 year period.

Sample. The sample comprised 495 Secondary 1 students (approximate age 13) from three government coeducational schools in Singapore.

Method. A longitudinal survey using a self-reported questionnaire.

Results. Results showed that the lower-ability stream students had a more negative academic self-concept than the higher-ability stream students immediately after streaming, but they had a more positive academic self-concept 3 years after being streamed. In addition, it was established that the students' academic self-concept declined from Secondary 1 to Secondary 3. Nonetheless, the decline was more pronounced for the higher-ability stream students than the lower-ability stream students.

Conclusions. Streaming may have a short-term negative impact on lower-ability stream students' academic self-concept. However, in the long run, being in the lower-ability stream may not be detrimental to their academic self-concept.

Traditionally, education has focused on the cognitive and instructional aspects of teaching and learning because they are intimately related to academic performance. During the last two decades, however, there has been a growing consensus that '... education is not just about learning cognitive skills. It is also about helping children to learn about themselves, to be able to live peacefully with themselves, and with others, and to help them to develop

into competent, mature, self-motivated adults' (Lawrence, 1988, p. x). The shift in emphasis to the affective aspects of education has led to the appreciation that an improvement of an individual's self-concept should be valued as an outcome in its own right, and has established self-concept as an important construct for interpreting an individual's behaviour and educational performance (Burns, 1982). It will come as no surprise, therefore, that a substantial amount of work has been carried out on students' self-concept or self-esteem (Cheung & Rudowicz, 2003; Lau, 1990; Lau & Leung, 1992; Marsh, 1989; Marsh, Kong, & Hau, 2000, 2001; Marsh, Parker, & Barnes, 1985; Mboya, 1995; Sanders, 1996; Wentzel, 1997). Even so, less work has been done in streamed settings, especially from a longitudinal perspective.

Streaming (refer to Appendix A for definitions), one of the most contentious issues in education, has recently re-emerged as a focal point in the debate over education reforms in Singapore. Although streaming in the secondary level has been practised since the early 1980s, and studies have indicated that streaming is effective in reducing attrition rates (19% in 1980 to 4.4% in 1997; Goh, 1998), and in increasing the percentage of students' completing secondary education (from less than 40% to 75%; Low & Lew, 1987), very few definitive answers exist as to its impact on the self-concept of students being streamed. Such a gap in knowledge is unacceptable considering that education in Singapore (Ministry of Education, 1987) is 'about nurturing the whole person' (p. 1), and one of its desired outcomes of formal education is to prepare students 'to think, reason and deal confidently with the future' (p. 4). Clearly, to have a realistic chance of achieving its aim, Singapore has to ensure that its streaming policy does not have a detrimental effect on students' self-concept.

Controversy associated with streaming

From the theoretical perspective, proponents of streaming believe that grouping students for instruction is positive for all students. They contend that in homogeneous classes, lessons can be better tailored to meet the needs of students such that high ability students will be better challenged, and low ability students will be less frustrated with learning at a pace too fast for them. By virtue of social comparison (Festinger, 1954), they suggest that the absence of bright students in class gives less academically inclined students a chance not to be reminded of their inadequacies. Consequently, they will have higher self-confidence and more positive self-concept. Opponents, however, believe that assigning students to low-ability classes has a stigmatizing effect that evokes in students low expectations for achievement and behaviour (Slavin, 1988). They contend that streaming lowers the aspirations of students in all streams except the top stream, leading students to underrate their abilities and develop lower self-concept (Lunn, 1970).

While the aforementioned debate has resulted in numerous studies, the findings have been inconsistent. The discrepancy may in part be due to the use of different comparison groups (Fulgini, Eccles, & Barbe, 1995) and different affective measures (Jreson, Hallam, & Plewis, 2001). For studies that have looked at streamed and un-streamed groups, the results vary from a positive stream effect on students' academic self-inegation (e.g. Lunn, 1970; Yehzkel & Resh, 1984), to a near zero overall stream effect on students' self-concept or self-esteem (e.g. Kulik, 1985; Kulik & Kulik, 1982; Kulik & Kulik, 1992; Marsh, Chessor, Craven, & Roehle, 1995), and even a negative overall stream effect on students' self-esteem (e.g. Noland & Taylor, 1986) and academic self-concept (e.g. Marsh *et al.*, 1995; Noland & Taylor, 1986).

*Correspondence should be addressed to Dr Woon-Chia Liu, Psychological Studies Academic Group, National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, 1 Nanyang Walk, Singapore 637616 (e-mail: wcliu@nie.edu.sg).

$$1-7$$

$$\text{So } 7-1=6$$

$$8-1=7$$

$$8-7=1$$

↑ should be

Data analysis Tools Review

5/5

Distribution

- shape

- center

- spread

o

mean

o

2 variables

Scatter plot

Correlation

↳ by grade level?

Qb differences in avg.?

M to F avg
ALL
SAT

Regression grade level

Greek or not Greek

↳ if other factors & why

Sampling distribution

Confidence interval

z-score for Conf. interval

how close sample is to reality

(2)
Significance test
↳ p-value

Are our ~~test~~ results sig

↳ minimizes lower self confidence

H₀ Same

7 tests

↳ Hypo framing

Comparing means of 2 pops

? What we want

ANOVA - variation b/w groups

Re races

↑ Chi-Squared - diff w/ categorical variables

- male - female

So this is how we will compare means
Not just state the two

(Still don't fully understand how this works...)

③

Regression

$$Y = f(x)$$

(several functions

So could try both Gender + Race

Analysis

5/5

Find avg lot for each
Man in R?

lot job pie chart Male + Female

Atk GUI ☺

Then it tells you the commands

Mean ASCQ

4.65 Female

4.48 male

4.68 AA

4.86 Asian

4.79 Caucasian

4.63 Hispanic

4.7 other

0

168 F

168 M

156 AA

166 A

171 C

176 H

174 O

②

Z-tests effects ← all we care about (either direction)

$$H_0 \quad ASCII_{\text{male}} = ASCII_{\text{female}}$$

$$H_A \quad \neq$$

~~Does R do Z tests?~~

Does R do Z tests?

- A test basically same

try that

Need to code gender ...

Want unpaired / ind samples
(paired is before + after)

So this is groups + response var
pairs is
var 1, var 2

So what do results mean?

3

Reject if $z > 2.33$ at 1%

So here $z = -4.58$

Site \oplus if first mean is $>$ than second
 \ominus $<$

Look up table of significance

So .00000346 prob this found by chance?

P value 6.44×10^{-6} that is off the table?

So strong favor againsts H_0 in favor of H_a

Confidence interval

$- .51$ $- .144$

So 99% confident actual is

$4.65 \pm .51$

$4.98 \pm .14$

(based on variance, right?)

9

Anova

multiple

$H_0: \mu_{AA} = \mu_{Asian} = \mu_{Caucasian} \text{ etc}$

$H_A: \neq \neq \text{ etc}$

So F is 1.03

Significance from table

What is $P(>F) = .38$ mean?

If null hyp is correct F is ≈ 1

So it does not matter?

Yeah $P > .05 \pm \text{not significant}$

t test w/ greek

$t = .16$ $p = .86$

So 86% prob from chance

↳ no difference

5

But can't seem to do t-tests b/c specific
races

Need to code race as #1
Or do something - forget it
Not core

Now SQT

Male 4.08

Female 3.95

$\sigma_{\text{male}} .91$

1.02

(What does high/low mean?)

A test

$$t = -1.35$$

$$p = .17$$

10% prob it happens
to be by chance
So somewhat sig.

So not

must 95% confident
^ same #1

basically $p > .05$ = null hyp true (no difference in gender)

(6)

ANOVA Race w/ SQI Race

$$F = 18.75 \quad p = 4.02 \times 10^{-4}$$

Results sig

So gender ~~more~~ confidence diff
but no stigma

but race = ly confident, but ~~race~~ ^{stigma} ...

SQI qv look wrong

people missed do not

like arg on questions way out of reach
? show w/ t-test?

How to test

- Ask TA

⑦

Similar arg to reverse/no reverse

3.8 vs 3.5

— but that's arg 8,1 = 4.5

so i is sig

Just accept people see high stigma (conscious)
but =

breed

Year

(flying through now..)

Is 58% prob 50-50?

(can you have more than that?)

test white vs black

5/5

Method

During the month of April 2012, we surveyed MIT students using an online survey.

Emailed

List of groups we emailed to as a table

ASCQ: <http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/detail?sid=132309ac-3fd3-44fb-8286-799db896c4c4%40sessionmgr14&vid=3&hid=13&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZQ%3d%3d#db=mnh&AN=16318679>

Modified slightly for MIT

7 point, instead of 4 point

Insert questions as a table

Stigma Conciousness Elizabeth Pinel 1999

Data

We had 397 responses to the survey. 261 (65.5%) of the responses were female, while 137 (34.4%) of the responses were male. 213 (53.5%) were members of a Greek organization while 185 (46.5%) were not.

Gender

We found there was a significant difference in Academic Self-Confidence (ASCQ) between males and females at MIT. The mean ASCQ score for males was 4.98 while the mean ASCQ for females was 4.65.

ASCQ	Mean	St Dev	n
Male	4.65	.68	137
Female	4.98	.68	261
All	4.77	.70	397

These results are statistically significant with a t of -4.59 leading to a 6.48×10^{-6} probability that this result would happen by chance.

Welch Two Sample t-test

data: ASCQ by Gender

t = -4.5978, df = 278.099, p-value = 6.488e-06

alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0

95 percent confidence interval:

-0.4743664 -0.1899449

sample estimates:

mean in group Female	mean in group Male
4.657301	4.989457

We found there is a relatively high feeling of stigma about being a member of each gender at MIT. Students rated their answers from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) on a series of questions about how they interacted with people of the other gender. For example, male students responded as an average of 3.35 to the question "Stereotypes about men have not affected me personally." 82 out of 137 male students (59.8%) of students rated the question with a 1, 2, or 3, meaning they disagreed with the statement.

One Sample t-test

data:

Dataset3\$I.almost.never.think.about.the.fact.that.I.am.a.man.when.I.inter

t = 22.7048, df = 136, p-value < 2.2e-16

alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 0

95 percent confidence interval:

3.065215 3.650113

sample estimates:

mean of x

3.357664

To the question "Stereotypes about men have not affected me personally." Men responded with an average of 4.91 (st dev = 1.8). Only 35 men rated the comment with a 1, 2, or 3.

Females responded with an average of 3.81 for the similar question "I almost never think about the fact that I am a female when I interact with men." 130 out of 261 females (49%) rated the question with a 1, 2, or 3, meaning they disagreed with the statement.

One Sample t-test

data:

Dataset3\$I.almost.never.think.about.the.fact.that.I.am.a.female.when.I.in

t = 8.6748, df = 261, p-value = 4.514e-16

alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 0

95 percent confidence interval:

3.319218 5.268568

sample estimates:

mean of x

4.293893

103 females rated "Stereotypes about women have not affected me personally." As a 1, 2, or 3. The question received an average score of 4.36. (st dev=1.9)

On the other hand, we found no significant difference in the SQI between males and females at MIT. Both had similar means and a t-test showed a t of -1.35 with a 17.5% probability, meaning that the results are not significant. Thus the null hypothesis, that there is no difference, cannot be rejected. In summary, each gender sees a stigma surrounding their gender.

SQI Gender	Mean	St Dev	n
Male	4.08	.68	137
Female	3.95	.68	261
All	3.99	.68	397

Welch Two Sample t-test

data: SQI.Gender by Gender

t = -1.3569, df = 305.418, p-value = 0.1758

alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0

95 percent confidence interval:

-0.33563281 0.06167247

sample estimates:

mean in group Female mean in group Male
3.951341 4.088321

Race

We did not see a significant difference in ASQ between each race. We conducted a one-way ANOVA which found an F of 1.03, which has a 38.7% chance of appearing by chance, so there is no statistical significant difference.

ASQI	mean	St Dev	N
African American	4.96	.48	35
Asian	4.14	.57	75
Caucasian	3.98	.67	208
Hispanic	4.28	.67	48
Other	4.02	.56	32
All	4.77	.70	397

Anova Table (Type II tests)

Response: ASCQ

	Sum Sq	Df	F value	Pr(>F)
Race	2.051	4	1.0371	0.3878
Residuals	194.347	393		

On the other hand we found a significant amount of race stigma consciousness at MIT. We found an F of 7.53 with a one-way ANOVA test.

SQI Race	mean	St Dev	N
African American	4.68	.56	35
Asian	4.86	.66	75
Caucasian	4.79	.71	208
Hispanic	4.63	.76	48
Other	4.70	.74	32
All	4.14	.68	398

```

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value    Pr(>F)
Race      4   30.12    7.530   18.75 4.02e-14 ***
Residuals 393  157.80    0.402

```

```

---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
3 observations deleted due to missingness

```

For example, on the question “Stereotypes about my ethnicity have not affected me personally,” each race responded differently to the question. There is a large degree of variance between the means of responses between the races. The F of 93.65 confirms this difference.

African American	2.34
Asian	3.87
Caucasian	5.404
Hispanic	4.43
Other	5.58
All	4.75

```

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value    Pr(>F)
Race      4  374.6    93.65   27.44 <2e-16 ***
Residuals 393 1341.2     3.41

```

```

---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
3 observations deleted due to missingness

```

Males feel a statistically significant more race stigma.

SQL Race	mean	St Dev	N
Male	3.99	.65	137
Female	4.47	.63	261
All	4.14	.68	398

```

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value    Pr(>F)
Gender      1   23.45   23.450   56.46 3.86e-13 ***
Residuals 396  164.47    0.415

```

```

---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
3 observations deleted due to missingness

```

Greek

To confirm biases are not by accident, we will check some variables which we hypothesize do not make a difference.

There is no statistical difference between Greek affiliated members and not in both ASQI and SQI Gender.

ASQI	mean	St Dev	N
Greek	4.77	.66	185
Not Greek	4.76	.74	213
All	4.77	.70	397

Welch Two Sample t-test

data: ASCQ by Are.you.affiliated.with.a.Greek.community.

t = 0.1695, df = 371.983, p-value = 0.8655

alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0

95 percent confidence interval:

-0.1281978 0.1523797

sample estimates:

mean in group No mean in group Yes
4.777256 4.765165

SQI Gender	mean	St Dev	N
Greek	4.05	.93	185
Not Greek	3.95	1.04	213
All	3.99	.68	397

Welch Two Sample t-test

data: SQI.Gender by Are.you.affiliated.with.a.Greek.community.

t = -1.0386, df = 395.626, p-value = 0.2996

alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0

95 percent confidence interval:

-0.29741926 0.09180068

sample estimates:

mean in group No mean in group Yes
3.950704 4.053514

Year

Year contributes slightly to academic self-concept. Year does not strongly correlate with gender stigma, but does not at all correlated with race stigma.

ASQI	mean	St Dev	N
Freshman	4.86	.68	124
Sophomore	4.73	.71	99
Junior	4.60	.77	77
Senior	7.79	.65	86
Grad/Other	5.03	.47	12
All	4.77	.70	397

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
 Year 4 4.26 1.0657 2.18 0.0706 .
 Residuals 393 192.14 0.4889

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
 3 observations deleted due to missingness

SQL Gender	mean	St Dev	N
Freshman	3.93	.95	124
Sophomore	3.93	.99	99
Junior	3.98	1.02	77
Senior	4.07	.99	86
Grad/Other	4.71	1.08	12
All	3.99	.68	397

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
 Year 4 7.6 1.8934 1.939 0.103
 Residuals 393 383.7 0.9762
 3 observations deleted due to missingness

SQL Race	mean	St Dev	N
Freshman	4.08	.70	124
Sophomore	4.09	.67	99
Junior	4.22	.65	77
Senior	4.21	.72	86
Grad/Other	4.10	.49	12
All	3.99	.68	397

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
 Year 4 1.65 0.4135 0.872 0.48
 Residuals 393 186.27 0.4740
 3 observations deleted due to missingness

Living Group

Is ANOVA stat. significant here?

ASC

(studying abroad)	5.166667	NA	0	1
AXO	4.722222	0.1571348	0	2
Baker	4.649871	0.6828433	0	43
BC	4.606838	0.6772293	0	39
Bexley	4.233333	1.2218434	0	5
Chi Phi	4.833333	NA	0	1
EC	4.841667	0.5993494	0	40
Epsilon Theta	3.722222	NA	0	1
ET	5.833333	NA	0	1

Fraternity	4.166667	NA 0	1
FSILG	3.833333	NA 0	1
KA	5.333333	NA 0	1
KAT	3.333333	NA 0	1
KS	4.969697	0.8837922 0	11
MacGregor	5.106061	0.5956639 0	33
Maseeh	4.694885	0.6729744 0	63
McCormick	4.862963	0.6365706 0	30
N/A	5.111111	0.1571348 0	2
ND	5.166667	NA 0	1
New	4.444444	0.4694362 0	11
Next	4.666667	0.7722022 0	6
No6	4.888889	NA 0	1
Nu Delta	5.055556	0.9979403 0	4
Off Campus	4.833333	0.4421236 0	7
Pass	4.833333	NA 0	1
PDT	4.555556	NA 0	1
PKT	4.904762	0.7965424 0	7
Random	4.782609	0.8280833 0	23
Senior Haus	3.777778	1.1083299 0	4
Sigma Chi	6.166667	NA 0	1
Simmons	4.790476	0.6457905 0	35
sk	5.055556	NA 0	1
SK	4.555556	0.6285394 0	2
Sorority	4.055556	NA 0	1
Tang	5.944444	NA 0	1
TC	5.493056	0.3944472 0	8
WILG	5.055556	NA 0	1
ZBT	4.777778	0.6849349 0	5

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)

Dormitory.Living.Group	37	28.49	0.770	1.67	0.0104 *
Residuals	359	165.50	0.461		

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

4 observations deleted due to missingness

SQI Gender

mean	sd	% data:n	
(studying abroad)	5.500000	NA 0	1
AXO	4.550000	0.07071068 0	2
Baker	4.160465	1.03903333 0	43
BC	3.887179	1.19740498 0	39
Bexley	3.520000	0.65345237 0	5
Chi Phi	4.700000	NA 0	1
EC	4.052500	0.88346274 0	40
Epsilon Theta	4.300000	NA 0	1
ET	3.400000	NA 0	1
Fraternity	3.600000	NA 0	1

FSILG	4.800000	NA	0	1
KA	2.900000	NA	0	1
KAT	2.600000	NA	0	1
KS	4.045455	1.07271957	0	11
MacGregor	3.742424	1.01797296	0	33
Maseeh	3.973016	0.87790189	0	63
McCormick	3.910000	1.02464460	0	30
N/A	3.300000	0.70710678	0	2
ND	3.000000	NA	0	1
New	4.381818	0.88636131	0	11
Next	3.500000	0.86717934	0	6
No6	4.100000	NA	0	1
Nu Delta	4.025000	0.26299556	0	4
Off Campus	4.500000	0.62182527	0	7
Pass	3.600000	NA	0	1
PDT	4.000000	NA	0	1
PKT	4.171429	1.09956701	0	7
Random	4.408696	1.20525857	0	23
Senior Haus	4.575000	1.66608323	0	4
Sigma Chi	4.400000	NA	0	1
Simmons	3.751429	1.00626608	0	35
sk	4.200000	NA	0	1
SK	4.050000	0.77781746	0	2
Sorority	5.300000	NA	0	1
Tang	5.400000	NA	0	1
TC	4.025000	0.77043587	0	8
WILG	4.500000	NA	0	1
ZBT	3.680000	0.81975606	0	5
Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)				
Dormitory.Living.Group	37	32.3	0.8728	0.873 0.684
Residuals	359	358.9	0.9998	
4 observations deleted due to missingness				

SQI Race

(studying aborad)	5.100000	NA	0	1
AXO	3.045000	0.28991378	0	2
Baker	4.058372	0.50701709	0	43
BC	4.017692	0.67532628	0	39
Bexley	3.898000	0.97929567	0	5
Chi Phi	4.300000	NA	0	1
EC	4.048750	0.73419479	0	40
Epsilon Theta	3.270000	NA	0	1
ET	4.200000	NA	0	1
Fraternity	2.900000	NA	0	1
FSILG	4.120000	NA	0	1
KA	4.610000	NA	0	1
KAT	3.740000	NA	0	1
KS	4.586364	0.61182142	0	11
MacGregor	3.935758	0.67592543	0	33
Maseeh	4.146508	0.67438182	0	63

McCormick	4.057000	0.71756845	0	30
N/A	4.350000	0.07071068	0	2
ND	5.800000	NA	0	1
New	4.699091	0.45370595	0	11
Next	3.940000	0.35048538	0	6
No6	5.100000	NA	0	1
Nu Delta	4.975000	0.22173558	0	4
Off Campus	4.222857	0.70768906	0	7
Pass	4.500000	NA	0	1
PDT	5.500000	NA	0	1
PKT	4.414286	0.90999738	0	7
Random	4.397391	0.82598821	0	23
Senior Haus	3.637500	0.67193130	0	4
Sigma Chi	4.400000	NA	0	1
Simmons	4.084857	0.60641847	0	35
sk	3.780000	NA	0	1
SK	4.145000	0.28991378	0	2
Sorority	4.670000	NA	0	1
Tang	3.860000	NA	0	1
TC	4.400000	0.63245553	0	8
WILG	3.950000	NA	0	1
ZBT	4.520000	0.71554175	0	5

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)

Dormitory.Living.Group 37 28.58 0.7723 1.742 0.00601 **

Residuals 359 159.16 0.4433

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

4 observations deleted due to missingness