RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF–CONCEPT AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS: A CASE OF MWALA DIVISION, MACHAKOS DISTRICT, KENYA.

BY

JONATHAN MUEMA MWANIA

A Research Project Report Submitted to the Graduate school in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of Master of Education Degree in Guidance and Counselling of Egerton University

EGERTON UNIVERSITY

DECEMBER, 2007

DECLARATION

This research project report is my original work and has not been submitted for the award of a degree or diploma in any other university.

Signature: _____ Date: 15/01/2008

Jonathan Muema Mwania

EM16/1382/05

RECOMMENDATION

This research project report has been submitted for examination with my approval as University supervisor.

Signature: _____ Date: 15/01/2008

Dr. F. O. Ogola

DEDICATION

This research project report is dedicated to my family members who have made me what I am today.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

A number of people contributed and assisted in one way or another in the successful production of this research project report. To all of them, I wish to extend my sincere gratitude. I am indebted to my project supervisor Dr. F. O. Ogola of the Department of Psychology, Counselling and Educational Foundations of Egerton University. I would like to thank him very much for his encouragement, willingness to spare time for discussions, counsel and direction. I enjoyed working with this selfless, competent, caring and friendly supervisor. I am grateful, as well, for the efforts of all the staff members of the Department. Their commitment, support, patience, scholarly advice and positive criticisms I constantly received from them were extremely crucial towards completion of this project report. The final product of this work would be far poorer quality without the efforts of these individuals. Thirdly, I would like to acknowledge the administration and students of the six sampled schools who took time off their busy academic schedules to attend to my research needs. Last but not least, I owe much gratitude to my family members for all the support and encouragement they accorded me throughout my studies. God Bless Them All.

ABSTRACT

There is a need to help secondary school students to attain higher academic achievements in the national examinations. This is because good performance in these examinations acts as a channel through which students proceed to higher education levels and good jobs. This study sought to find out the relationship between self–concept of students and their academic performance in Mwala division of Machakos district. The study employed an *ex post facto* research design. The target population included all the 360 Form Four students in the six public secondary schools. A proportionate random sample of 186 students was selected from the six schools. Data was collected through administration of questionnaires to the respondents. The collected data was then processed and analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics with the aid of Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS) version 11.5 for windows. The findings showed that: students' academic achievement depends on their level of self-concept; students have the ability to attain higher levels of self-concept regardless of their gender and the type of school; and the kind of teachers' feedback about academic performance and ability of the students influences their self-concept. The findings of this study could help teachers to boost the level of self-concept of the students and this in turn may will lead to the improvement in academic performance. It could also help the Ministry of Education to see the necessity of training more teacher counselors to enhance positive self –concept in students. Further, the findings could help both parents and teachers to demystify traditional stereotypic gender-role dispositions about the ability of students so as to boost the level of self-concept and academic achievement. Lastly, it may help teachers to focus on positive feedback about academic performance of students in order to encourage them to work hard. This may in turn enhance improvement in students' performance.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

GOK - Government of Kenya

KCSE - Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education

SPSS - Statistical Package for social Sciences

TIQET - Totally integrated Quality Education and Training.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

In order to improve academic performance in secondary schools, different strategies have been laid down (G.O.K, 1999). That is, education stakeholders always endeavour to ensure that students perform well in their examinations. Examinations provide major channels of securing chances for higher education and good and promising jobs. Our schools are undergoing tremendous, social, political and democratic challenges and this has had negative effects on students' academic performance. Educationists, teachers, parents and churches have had to rethink and come up with ways of solving the problems in our schools in order to achieve good academic performance.

According to Muola (1990) examinations have been accepted by the educationists and other stakeholders as an important aspect of our educational system. He further says that examinations have always been used as the main basis for judging student's ability and also as a means of selection for educational advancement and employment. Muola argues that poor performance of pupils has drawn the attention of the government, educationists, teachers, administrators, researchers and even pupils. This is because good academic results are anticipated by parents, teachers and the community at large. Education is expected to prepare the youth for national development and remove elitism among many other objectives (Sifuna, 1986). For this reason, examination is viewed as a very important tool for achieving these objectives.

Secondary school students sit for Kenya Certificate of Secondary Examination (K.C.S.E) at the end of the fourth year. Different approaches and strategies have been tried out in order to improve academic performance. Strategies such as extra tuition, motivation of both teachers and students, maintenance of high levels of discipline among students, proper training and supervising of teachers and students, and the implementation of guidance and counselling programmes to help the student adjust well to school work and school environment (G.O.K, 1999). It is through guidance and counselling that students' self –concept can be improved. The provision of efficient counselling assists in the improvement of self- image for both boys and girls and broadens their educational and occupational aspirations, hence effective utilization of unutilized human resources (Mutie & Ndambuki, 1999).

According to Makinde (1984), Guidance and counselling programmes involve giving personal help and advice to the students and establishing a relationship, which develops self – knowledge, growth and personal resources. Mutie and Ndambuki further argue that adolescence is an important time of the development of self-esteem, a positive self-image or self evaluation.

Studies have been done to bring out the relationship between secondary school students' self-concept and their academic performance. For example, Coopersmith (1967) in his study entitled *the antecedents of self–esteem* found that expectations of success or favourable experiences are likely to result in confident posture, but expectations of failure are likely to result in apprehension, anxiety and lack of persistence. He also found that negative self-concept reflecting the individual's conviction that he is weak and inferior, may lead him/her to conclude that his/her opinions are not worth stating. Self–concept determines our choice of activities; our intensity of efforts, and our persistence in the face of obstacles and unpleasant experiences, in part by reducing the anxiety that might interfere with performance of the activity (Bandura *et al.*, 1982). This means that persons with high self-concept are more effective and do better at a given level of intelligence than persons with low self-concept. It also implies that positive attitudes towards self indicate positive achievement while negative attitudes indicate failure. Self–concept helps to explain academic performance of students in academic courses (Schunk, 1989). This means that self–concept and academic performance may be related. Melgosa (2002) asserts that self–concept is a very important determinant of adolescent's academic performance. She says that poor self–concept in adolescents (particularly girls) may cause poor academic performance. Therefore, self-concept and academic performance seem to be related. It is against this background that the study attempted to establish whether there is a relationship between self–concept and academic performance among secondary school students in Mwala division of Machakos District.

1.2 Statement of Problem

Self–concept is known to exert a powerful influence, affecting the way people perceive, judge and behave (Atwater, 1994). That is, as situations and people around change, self–concept has a function of reassuring them that they are basically the same person they were yesterday. For this reason self-concept is a driving force in peoples' endeavour to realise their needs. On the basis of this, the study assessed the extent to which self–concept influenced academic performance among secondary school students in Mwala Division of Machakos

District. That is, the study endeavoured to determine whether self-concept has a direct influence on the performance in secondary schools in Mwala division.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

This study sought to establish the relationship between self–concept and academic performance among secondary school students in Mwala Division of Machakos District.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study aimed at achieving the following specific objectives:

(i) To determine whether the way the teacher labels students affect the students' self-concept in Mwala division.

(ii) To determine whether school type influences the self–concept of secondary School students in Mwala division.

(iii) To determine whether gender differences exist in self-concept levels among Secondary school students in Mwala division.

(iv) To determine whether there is a significant relationship between students' self-concept and academic performance among secondary school students in Mwala division.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The study was guided by the following hypotheses.

Ho1: There is no significant relationship between teacher labelling and the level of self-concept among students

Ho2: The type of school does not significantly influence the level of self-concept among the students

Ho3: There is no significant gender difference in the levels of self-concept among the students

Ho4: There is no significant relationship between students' self-concept and academic performance

1.6 Significance of the Study

The outcome of the study is important to teacher counsellors in helping secondary school students to develop positive self-concepts, which in turn lead to good academic performance in secondary schools. The results also help teachers in secondary schools to know the importance of positive self-concept in students and hence avoid utterances, which make the students develop negative self-concept. The schools' administration could use the study to implement strong guidance and counselling programmes to enhance students' positive self-concept which in turn lead to good academic performance.

1.7 Scope and Limitation of the Study

The study was conducted in the secondary schools in Mwala Division of Machakos District. It involved only the form four students. This was because they had been in school for a longer period of time and therefore their academic records and trends could easily be established. It sought to establish the relationship between student's self-concept and academic performance.

Some school administrators were apprehensive and suspicious about giving their Form four students' academic records to a stranger who could use it against them. There was therefore the possibility of them giving inaccurate academic achievement records. To control this, the research requested the students to write their mean grades for the required examinations on their questionnaires to check whether they were the same as those from the academic records.

1.8 Assumptions of the Study

The study was based on the following assumptions:

(i) Secondary school students had developed particular levels of self-concept

(ii) School type, gender and labelling had an influence on self–concept.

(iii) Academic achievement in terms of examination results reflected true ability of the students.

(iv) The target populations have more or less the same characteristics and academic environment.

(v) Respondents provided honest responses

1.9 Definition of Terms

Academic performance: Level of performance evaluated using examinations as a yardstick. In this study the form IV end of first term and second term mock examinations were used and assessed in terms of the overall mean grade attained. Examinations have been accepted by the educationists and other stakeholders as an avenue to getting jobs and even further education opportunities.

Gender: These are psychological attributes, characteristics and behaviours that are acquired within a social context and are related to the social meanings of sexual categories in given society (Williams, 1987). In this study, gender refers to boy and girl students.

High Academic Performance: This is the performance above the normal level. In this study it ranges from 7-12 points (C+ to A).

High Self-concept: This is the level of self-concept above the normal level. In this study it ranges from 97 to 160.

Labelling: These are descriptive words or phrases applied to a person to describe or classify him/her. In this study, labelling refers to the feedback that teachers give their students about their performance and ability.

Low Academic Performance: This is the performance below the usual or normal level. In this study it ranges from 5 to 1 points (C- to E).

Low Self-concept: This is the level of self-concept below the usual or the normal level. In this study it ranges from 32 to 95.

Moderate Academic Performance: This is an average performance that is neither very good nor very bad. In this study it is 6 points (C plain).

Moderate Self-concept: This is the average level of self-concept. It is neither too high nor too low. In this study it is 96.

Self – concept: Overall image or awareness people have of themselves. It includes all those perceptions of "I" and "me" together with the feelings, beliefs and values associated with them (Atwater, 1994). Self -concept governs the way people experience their bodies. It determines our choice of activities; our intensity of

efforts, and our persistence in the face of obstacles and unpleasant experiences, in part by reducing the anxiety that might interfere with the performance of activity (Bandura *et al.*, 1982) This means that persons with high self concept are more effective and do better at a given level of intelligence than persons with low self-concept.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the literature on the students' self-concept. The review discusses the global overview of self-concept and its contextualization. Also covered is the relationship between self-concept and self-esteem; self-concept and academic performance; gender differences in self-concepts levels; school type and self-concept; and teacher labelling. The chapter concludes by explaining the theoretical and conceptual frameworks adopted for the study.

2.2 Global Overview of Self-Concept

Kihlstrom and Cantor (1984) define self–concept as one's mental representation of oneself. In the authors' view, it means the individual as he/she views himself/herself. Kihlstrom and Cantor's conception of the self as a cognitive structure has two sets of implications, namely; its relation to the external environment, and its possibilities for change. Both are to some degree addressed by Kihlstrom and Cantor. Their approach to personality and the self starts with the assumption that social cognitions are the most important mental processes, namely those involving mental representations of the self of others, and of situations in which interactions with others take place.

Kihlstron and Cantor assert that the self–concept is made up of cognitions about oneself. These cognitions result from constellations in the environment of that person. Greenwald and Pratkanis (1984) describe the self as a central cognitive structure, a self –concept with content that varies from person to person. The self is seen here both as the object of an attitude and as an "active", functioning organization that both acquires and receives knowledge and is thus better described as a central attitudinal schema. According to Atwater (1994) the self – concept includes all those perception of "I" and "Me' together with the feelings, beliefs and values associated with them. As such, the self–concept is actually a cluster of selves, even though we habitually refer to it in the singular. Atwater asserts that self –concept provides us with our personal identity or sense of who we are. He says that even though situations and people around us change, our self-concept reassures us that we are basically the same person we were yesterday. Our self–image is more real to us than our bodies, and it governs the way we experience our bodies. One example of thinking about self is the concept of possible selves put forth by Markus and her colleagues, (Markus & Nurius, 1986, Inglehart *et al*

1989). Your possible selves include your visions of the self, you dream of becoming – the rich self, the thin self, the loved and admired self. They also include the self you fear becoming–the unemployed self, the alcoholic self, the academically failed self. Such possible selves motivate us by laying out specific goals to pursue and the energy to work toward them.

2.3 Contextualization of Self–Concept

The ability to see oneself as a distinct entity is a necessary first step in the evolution and development of a self-concept (Sedikides & Skowronski, 1997). In support of this, Myers (1995) notes that infancy's number one social achievement is attachment. Childhood's major social achievement is a positive sense of self. Further, (Damon & Hart, 1988) note that self –recognition emerges gradually over about a year, starting in roughly the sixth month, when the child reaches towards the mirror to touch her image as if it were another child. .Beginning with this simple recognition, the child's self – concept gradually becomes stronger. By school age, children begin to describe themselves in terms of their gender, their group memberships and their psychological traits. Damon and Hart argue that the infants come to see themselves as good and skilful in some ways but not others. They form a concept of which traits, ideally, they would like to have. By age 8 or 10, their self-images have become quite stable. According to Myers, it is at age 12 when most children have developed a self-concept-a sense of their own identity and worth. Although we cannot ask the baby directly, we can again capitalize on what she can do- letting her behaviour provide clues to the beginning of her self –awareness.

Baumrid (1991) carried out a study entitled *Parenting styles and Adolescent Development* which revealed that children with the highest self-esteem, self-reliance and social competence usually have warm concerned authoritative parents. Further, Baumrid argues that although in most studies the subjects have been mid-class white families, studies with families of other races and in more than 200 cultures worldwide confirm the social and academic benefits of loving and authoritative parenting. It is evident here that if people are given control over their lives they become motivated and self–confident.

Those who experience little control more often see themselves as helpless and incompetent. Myers, (1995) argues that socially mature, agreeable children elicit greater trust and more reasonable treatment from their parents than do less competent and less cooperative children. Atwater (1994) identifies several types of selves: The self-image; the self I see myself to be, the ideal self; the self I'd like to be, and my social selves; the way I feel others see me. These phrases are expounded on in subsections 2.3.1 to 2.3.3.

2.3.1 Self Image

Atwater (1994) describes self-image as the way one sees himself / herself and as the self one thinks he / she is. He argues that it is made up of highly personal self image's and since it is so private each of us is an expert on his / her own image however realistic or unrealistic his / her perception may be. Atwater continues to say that our self image is made up of the many self perceptions we have acquired growing up, especially in our formative years and it is mostly influenced by the way we are seen and treated by significant others, especially our parents. Further, Mutie and Ndambuki (1999) say that adolescence is an important time for the development of self image. They argue that the adolescents compare their real and ideal selves and judge themselves by how well they measure up to social standards and expectations and how well they perform. Increasing evidence from Mutie and Ndambuki shows that the adolescents form opinions of themselves by seeing themselves as others see them.

2.3.2 Ideal self

A larger gap between a child's real self and ideal self is usually a sign of maturity and social adjustment (Maccoby, 1980). He argues that children who set high standards for themselves seem aware of the difference between what they are and what they would like to be and working toward the goal of ideal self then mature.

According to psychoanalytic view proposed by Sigmund Freud, we are not fully aware of our ideal self because we have acquired much of it by identifying with parental demands and prohibitions during the formative years of childhood (Atwater, 1994). Further, Atwater argues that many of the "shoulds" and "should nots" of our conscience represent unconscious and unrealistic demands that may keep us from growing up. An example is the perfectionist student who feels he must make all A's or he will not be a worthwhile person.

2.3.3 Multiple selves

Self –concept includes hundreds, perhaps thousands of self-perceptions in varying degrees of clarity and intensity that we have acquired in growing up (Atwater, 1994). Much of the diversity of the self reflects our social rules, so that even the normal happy person wears "many masks". At the same time there are many other self-perceptions that are les clearly associated with social rules. Atwater continues to argue that some Self - images arise from experience of our own bodies, others reflect needs, interests, traits and habit patterns acquired through experience, and these self–images may be integrated within our overall self –concept in varying degrees.

2.4 Relationship between Self–Concept and Self-Esteem.

Self-concept is related to self-esteem in that people with high levels of self-esteem have high levels of self-concept (Franken, 1994). In support of this Myers (1995) further observes that low self-esteem people do not necessarily see themselves as worthless and wicked, but they do lack good things to say about themselves. More often than not unhappiness and despair co-exist with low–self esteem. Those whose self-image falls short of what they think they ought to be are vulnerable to anxiety (Higgins, 1987). According to Coopersmith (1967) persons who seek psychological help frequently acknowledge that they suffer from feelings of inadequacy and unworthiness and see themselves as helpless and inferior – incapable of improving their situations and lacking the inner resources to tolerate or reduce the anxiety readily aroused by everyday events and stress. He further observes that a person with high self –esteem maintains a fairly constant image of these capabilities and of his distinctiveness as a person.

2.5 Self-Concept and Academic Performance

Maslow (1970) explained why people get motivated in his theory of motivation. He argued that motivation is a goal-seeking behaviour, which is closely linked to need satisfaction and which diminishes with the satisfaction of a current need. He came up with a hierarchy of needs which include physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, self-esteem needs and self-actualization needs. In the contexts of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the need for achievement would be associated with one of the higher levels, the need for esteem. Rogers (1980) developed a concept known as the phenomenon self or self-concept. He assumes the existence of an actualizing tendency at the biological level-the human organism's tendency to develop and fulfill itself. In the processes of actualizing itself, it engages in a valuing process.

Those experiences that are perceived as enhancing are valued positively and sought after; those that are perceived as blocking fulfillment are valued negatively and avoided.

Psychologists and educators are becoming increasingly aware of the fact that a person's idea of himself, or self-concept, is closely connected to how he behaves and learns (Hamacheck, 1971). Increasing evidence from Hamacheck indicates that low performance in basic school subjects as well as the misdirected motivation and lack of academic involvement characteristics of the under-achiever, the dropout, the culturally disadvantaged, and the failure may be due in part to negative perception of the self. Hamacheck further notes that many students have difficulties in school not because of low intelligence or bad hearing but because they have learned to consider themselves as unable to do academic work. For example, if a student says "I'll never pass that test, I just know it", the student is expressing something about how he feels about himself.

Markus and Nurius (1986) and Inglehart *et al* (1989) give examples of several selves which include: the rich self, the thin self, the loved self, the admired self, the unemployed self, the alcoholic self and the academically failed self. The authors say that such possible selves motivate us by laying out specific goals to pursue and the energy to work toward them. Still other studies (Coopersmith, 1967) revealed that persons whose performance does not match their personal aspirations evaluate themselves as inferior, no matter how high their attainments. These persons are likely to report feelings of guilt, shame or depression and to conclude that their actual achievements are of little importance. Coopersmith observes that unless and until they attain their desired goals, they regard themselves as unsuccessful and unworthy. Such individuals are likely to perform poorly. Children who form a positive self – concept are more confident, independent, optimistic, assertive and sociable (Maccoby, 1980). Such children are likely to perform highly in their examinations. Hamachek (1995) asserts that a positive self –concept will allow a person to take risks, tolerate ambiguity, face fears and engage in many activities whereas a low self – concept will create intense shyness, fear of adults and peers.

2.6 Gender Differences in Self –Concept Levels

One of the most important psychological aspects in a child is the development of gender roles, which are behaviour patterns that are considered appropriate for males or females in a given culture (Sdorrow, 1993). According to Sdorrow gender roles vary across cultures and

over time. He notes that during the nineteenth century, as the United States moved from an agricultural country to an industrial country, the concept of "separate spheres" arose. In the male sphere men began to play" the good provider" role, and in the female sphere women began to play the "home maker" role. The first formal theory of Sigmund Freud assumed that the resolution of what he called the Oedipus conflict at age 5 or 6 led the child to adopt the gender of the same– sex parent.

Sutrrow (1993) study on children has revealed that gender identity develops by the age of 3 long before the resolution of the Oedipus conflict and that gender identity develops even in children who live in one– parent households. It is possible that children learn gender roles through observing gender–role models and by being rewarded for appropriate gender role behaviour. Though there are no observable differences in the physical appearance of male and female newborns whose genitals are covered, parents were more likely to describe newborn daughters as cuter, weaker and less co-ordinated than new born sons (Rubin, Provenzano & Luria, 1974).

In support of this, Muola (2000) argues that there are still people in our society who hold these stereotyped beliefs to sex roles as indicated in parents' attitudes towards students. Indeed, traditional gender roles appear to have perpetuated stereotypic gender – role dispositions (Myers, 1995). For example, as long as women are more likely to be homemakers and men are more likely to be workers outside the home, children will be more likely to view these as appropriate gender – related behaviours. This may actually lead the girls to have poor self –concept because the society considers them inferior to the boys and lead to their poor performance in school. Moreover educational approaches to changing gender roles will be less effective than the increased presence of males and females in non-traditional gender roles (Eagly, 1984).

Dweck *et al* (1978) in his study entitled *Sex differences in learnt helplessness* found that girls are more likely to show helplessness patterns of attributions than boys. Their study showed that they are also more likely sooner or show decreased performance after failure or threat of failure. One explanation for this effect suggested by the psychologists was the difference in socialization of boys and girls. They noted that boys are encouraged to be more independent and so develop their own standards, which make them less susceptible to the judgment of others.

2.7 School Type and Student Self-Concept.

According to Muola (2000), school environment and the people (teachers and peers) affect the child's self-concept. Dweck and Bush (1976) also found that helplessness in girls was not a generalized trait. In fact, the authors observed that it did not occur when the judgments of failure came from peers rather than adults. They found that girls respond with greatest helplessness to the evaluation of female adults.

Education experts say that mixed or single sex schools have good and bad sides (Mwanzia *et al*., 2005). They continue to argue that in mixed schools boys and girls uplift one another. Where boys are weak, the girls help and vice versa. Education officials say girls are better in languages and boys in the sciences and mathematics and they do help one another. They learn to live together and are sensitive to one another. Although the schools do not perform exceptionally well in K.C.S.E, Obigo (2005) says the integration of the sexes has nothing to do with it. For example, Moi High School, Kabarak is one of the co-educational schools in the country which performs very well. The school has over the years been among the top 20 schools in the K.C.S.E examinations. Rew (2005) believes that mixed schools are the best training ground for girls to be bold and confident because they want to compete with the boys. This means the self- concept of the girls may improve because of their interaction with boys. It is clear that single sex schools have been performing better than mixed schools.

2.8 Teacher labelling

Psychologists have developed an interest in the factors that can enhance or impair academic performance. Dweck *et al* (1978) looks at the ideas of learned helplessness. The study looks at how the performance of children is affected by the way teachers give them feedback about their performance. It also looks at patterns of classroom feedback and attempts to identify the difference in these patterns for girls and boys that might explain the helplessness effect. The basic suggestions they tested was that the widespread use of negative commends to boys in all manner of circumstances reduces the impact of negative comments about academic performance. They argue that whereas the less frequent use of negative comments for girls makes the negative evaluations about their work seem to be a comment on their ability rather than their conducts.

The implication of the preceding argument is that the more criticism the teacher delivers in relative to praise, the more feedback about academic failure will be attributed to a

characteristics to the teacher ("you are just saying that because you don't like me") rather than of the child. And the more positive the teacher is to girls the more likely feedback about academic success will be attributed to her favorable attitude ("you are just saying that because you like me"). Increasing evidence from Dweck and his colleagues indicate that if the teacher praises the boys or criticizes the girls about their school work, this will have more effect because it does not fall into the usual pattern. The paper reports two studies. The first is an observational study of feedback given by teachers to girls and boys in a classroom. It was predicted that, compared to girls, boys would receive:

(i) More negative feedback,

(ii) A greater proportion of their feedback for conduct and non –intellectual aspects of the work

(iii) More attributions of their failure to their motivation.

Dweck *et al* (1978) also predicted that teachers would use positive feedback more specifically to refer to the academic performance of the boys, but more generally for girls to refer to conduct and non-intellectual aspects of their work. Despite the fact that girls received more and less negative evaluations than boys, the patterns of the comments and attributions made by the teachers were more likely to increase feelings of helplessness to girls than to boys.

Another psychologist, Rosenthal (1994) has shown that teachers' belief about a given student's ability and potential has a small but significant effect on her behaviour towards that student and on the student's eventual achievements. Rosenthal's standard procedure is to tell teachers at the beginning of school years that some of the children in the class are underachievers and just ready to "bloom" intellectually although in fact the children labeled this way are chosen randomly. Those labeled as having more potential typically show more gains during the school years than do those who have not been labeled in this way. So the comparative judgments teachers make about individual children can have pervasive effects.

According to Bee (1997), children absorb these explanations and adjust their behaviour accordingly. He observes that the beliefs about their own abilities that students develop through this process are usually quite accurate. He argues that students who consistently do well in comparison to others come to believe that they are academically competent. Further, and perhaps more important, they come to belief that they are in control of academic

outcomes. Interestingly, Bee says that this seems to be less true of girls than of boys, at least in American culture. Bee notes that on average girls get better school grades than boys do, but they have lower perceptions of their own ability. When they do well, they are more likely to attribute it to hard work rather than to ability: when they do poorly, they see it as their own fault (Stipek & Gralinski, 1991).

2.9 Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by Rogers (1971) self theory and Maslow (1970) self actualisation theories. Rogers believed that people are governed by an innate impulse toward positive growth. He believes that psychological adjustment "exists when the concept of the self is such that all sensory and visceral experiences of the organism are, or may be, assimilated on a symbolic level into a consistent relationship with the concept of self". The characteristics of psychologically adjusted or fully functioning people are openness to experience, absence of defensiveness, accurate awareness, unconditional positive self-regard, and generally harmonious relations with other people.

Rogers (1971) pointed out that self-actualisation requires acceptance of one's self, which is your answer to the question, "Who are you?" but each of us experiences some incongruence between the self and personal experience. We may learn to deny our feelings, perhaps claiming that we are not angry, embarrassed, or sexually aroused even when we are. This would make us feel phoney or, as Rogers would say, not genuine (Sdorow, 1993). This incongruence between the self and experience causes anxiety, which, in turn, motivates the person to reduce the incongruence by altering the self or reinterpreting the experience.

Rogers (1980) developed a concept known as the phenomenon self or the self-concept. The term phenomenon refers to that which is apparent to or perceived by the senses; in short, reality as experienced by the individual. He argues that it is the "perceived reality" rather than absolute reality that is the basis of behaviour. Human behaviour is the goal–directed attempt by the organism to satisfy its needs as it experiences or perceives them. Rogers assumes the existence of an actualising tendency at the biological level- the human organism's tendency to develop and fulfil itself. In the course of actualising itself, the organism engages in a valuing process. Experiences that are perceived as enhancing are valued positively and sought after; those that are perceived as blocking fulfilment are valued negatively and avoided. The degree to which individuals trust this valuing process depends in a large

measure on their self –concept, especially the self–image derived from one's experience with significant others during the formative years of childhood. As children become aware of themselves, they automatically develop a need for positive regard (Atwater, 1994). However, parental acceptance tends to come with strings attached, and the child incorporates these "conditions of worth" into his/her self–concept. From now on, this extraneous valuing process competes with the organismic valuing process. To gain acceptance from parents, a child may express thoughts, feelings and behaviours acceptable to them.

Another psychologist, Maslow (1970) developed a theory known as self-actualisation theory. He based his theory on the characteristics of healthy, creative people who used all their talents, potential and capabilities, rather than on studies of disturbed individuals as Freud had done. These healthy people according to Maslow (1971) strive for and achieve self-actualisation. They develop their own potential to its fullest, yet instead of competing with others, each strives to be "the best me I can be".

Maslow (1968) took an optimistic view of human beings, stressing their possibilities and capabilities for love, joy, and artistic expression. Maslow believed that because human instincts are so weak in comparison with those of animals, a person's impulses towards self-actualization can be distorted by society's habit, or faulty education. Because Maslow believed that people differed in their capabilities and that some needs were idiosyncratic, his explanation of personality stressed disposition over situation. But he also took into account, in a large sense the impact of the environment on a person's personality. The value of culture could have a powerful influence on the development of personality characteristics; so could the degree to which the environment had met the person's needs. Thus, the larger situation would have an impact on the individual's disposition, and in this way, could have a strong though indirect effect on behaviour.

Maslow like Rogers, assumes the existence of an actualizing tendency in the organism at the biological level. Each person has an inherent need to actualize his or her potentialities, (Maslow, 1970). For Maslow, the core of such growth needs functions in relation to a hierarchy of needs. Only as the individual's most basic needs are met, does to the higher growth needs become a potent force in motivation. As long as the individual's needs of hunger, safety, and human companionship remain unsatisfied, the person's existence is governed mostly by the deficiency motivation. But once these needs are relatively satisfied,

the individual becomes more aware of his/her growth motivation and of the need to fulfill needs such as autonomy and creativity. It may take an entire life for growth needs to unfold, so that self–actualization is more of a lifelong process than a readily attainable goal.

Maslow (1971) held that some people have reached a healthier, more optimal level of functioning than the average person. He called them self–actualising people and held that studying them may teach us much about our potential for growth. Such people are relatively free from major psychological problems and have made the best possible use of their talents and strengths. Compared to the average person, self–actualising people have certain characteristics in common, such as continued freshness of appreciation of everyday realities; greater acceptance of themselves and others, high creativity and high resistance to conformity. The relevance of the above theoretical framework to this study was that it is the drive to actualise that makes a student to work hard in order to achieve his or her academic dreams. Teachers in classroom situation, work hard to meet students' needs of affection, safety, belongingness, achievement, self-esteem, social recognition and self-actualisation. According to Franken (1994) self-concept is related to self-esteem in that people with high level of self-esteem have high level of self-concept. This implies that when teachers meet students' needs of self-esteem, it in turn boosts their self-concept. The preceding theoretical framework assisted in creating conceptual framework discussed in section 2.10.

2.10 Conceptual Framework

The theoretical framework of this study and the related variables are conceptualized in Figure 1.

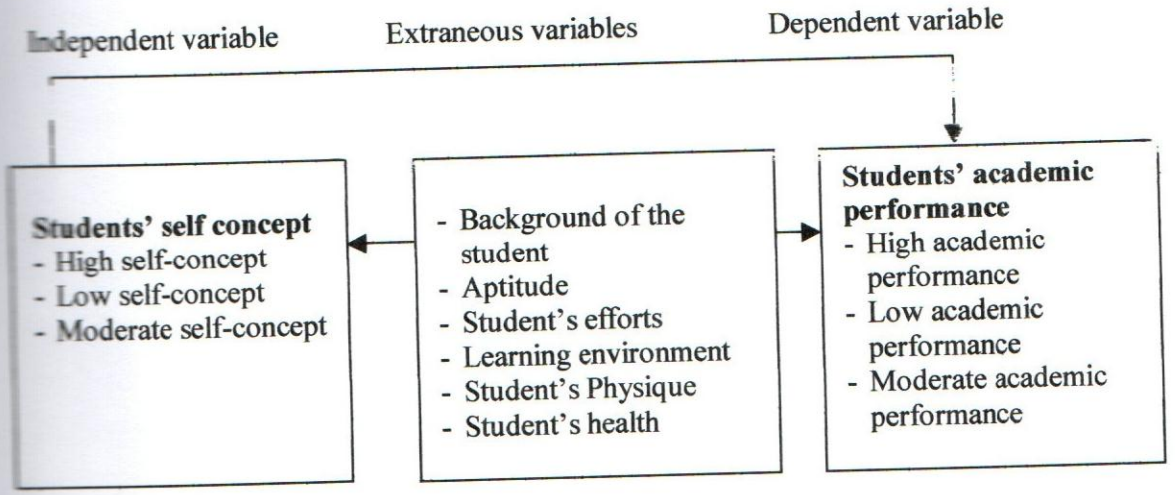

Figure 1: Self-Concept and Academic Performance

The independent variables are the student self–concept which helps the students to have confidence in their potentials and consequently influences academic performance. Self–concept as an independent variable directly affects academic performance which is the dependent variable. There are extraneous variables such as background of the student, aptitude, student's efforts, and learning environment which might influence the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. In other words, the extraneous variables influence the results of the study unless they are controlled. Randomisation was used to control the possible influence of extraneous variables in the study. It ensured that no systematic differences or error of the given characteristics existed among the subjects. It ensured equivalent representative groups that were essentially similar to a major characteristic. Randomisation according to Kathuri and Pals (1993) involves spreading an effect of a variable evenly across the groups of the study. This is accomplished by using a procedure in which each individual in the defined population has an equal and independent chance of being selected as a member of the sample. "Independent" means that the selection of one individual does not affect in any way the selection of any other individual. However, absolute control of extraneous variables is not possible in any study. It is for this reason that the research results were interpreted on the basis of degrees of confidence rather than certainty. Variables captured in conceptual representation were important in the realization of the objectives stated in section 1.4. Methodology described in chapter 3 was employed to achieve this.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology, which includes the following; research design, location of the study, population of the study, sampling procedure and sample size, instrumentation, data collection procedure and data analysis. It outlines the various procedures that were used in the study.

3.2 Research Design

The study utilized *ex-post –facto* research design. This is a design in which the researcher, rather than creating the treatment, examines the effects of a naturalistically occurring treatment after that treatment has occurred (Kathuri & Pals, 1993). The researcher attempted to relate this after-the-fact treatment to an outcome or dependent measure. In this kind of a research, the treatment is included by selection rather than manipulation. For this reason, it is not always possible to assume a simple causative relation between independent and dependent variables. If the relation fails to be obtained, then it is likely that no causative relationship holds. But if the predicted relationship is obtained, this does not necessarily mean that the variables studied are causally related. This research design was adopted because self-concept would be obtained after a questionnaire was administered to the respondents. Students' academic performance was obtained from the students' academic records. In the study, self–concept was a phenomenon in existence. Student academic performance was also in existence and so there is no manipulation of variables. Therefore, an assessment of what was already in existence was done and the cause and effect inferred.

3.3 Location of Study

The study was carried out in Mwala Division of Machakos District. The location was chosen because the researcher is familiar with the area since he is a teacher in a school in the study area. The area was used as a case study for in-depth analysis of students' self-concept and its determinants.

3.4 Population of the Study

The target population for this study included all the Form Four public secondary school students in Mwala division. The division had 15 public secondary schools with a total

population of 4006 students (3250 boys and 756 girls). The six schools were stratified into three categories that included boys' schools, girls' schools and mixed schools.

3.5 Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

Purposive, stratified and simple random sampling procedures were used in selecting the required sample for this study. Purposive sampling was used in this study in selecting six schools out of the 15 to include two boys', two girls' and two mixed schools. It helped to pick cases that were typical of the population being studied (Kathuri & Pals, 1993). According to these authors, in purposive sampling, the researcher does not necessarily have a quota fill, from within various strata as in quota sampling, neither does he or she just picks the nearest items as in convenience sampling. Rather the researcher's judgment is used to select the respondents, then picks only those who best meet the purpose of the study. This was done so as to ensure that all the three categories of schools were adequately involved in the study. Table 1 summarizes the Form Four student population in the six selected schools, by gender. Note that because of confidentiality, the actual school names were not used in this study.

Table 1

Breakdown of the Target Population by Gender

	Number of Form four Students		
Name of school	Boys	Girls	Total
A	60	-	60
B	-	60	60
C	47	33	80
D	80	-	80
E	-	40	40
F	22	18	40
Total	209	151	360

Source: Mwala Division Education Office, (2006)

Table 1 indicates that the six schools had a student population of 360 in Form Four classes. In order to determine the sample size of students to be drawn from the 360 Form four students in the six selected schools, this study adopted a formula by Kathuri and Pals (1993) for estimating a sample size, n, from a known population size, N.

$$n = \frac{\chi^2 NP\,(1-P)}{d^2\,(N-1) + \chi^2\,P\,(1-P)}$$

Where:

n = required sample size

N = the given population size of form four students, 360 in this case

P = Population proportion, assumed to be 0.50

d^2 = the degree of accuracy whose value is 0.05

χ^2 = Table value of chi-square for one degree of freedom, which is 3.841

Substituting these values in the equation, estimated sample size (n) was:

$$n = \frac{3.841 \times 360 \times 0.50\ (1 - 0.5)}{(0.05)^2\ (360 - 1) + 3.841 \times 0.5 \times (1 - 0.5)}$$

$$n = 186$$

Proportionate stratified sampling was used in selecting the 186 students from the six purposively selected schools. This method requires the selection of units at random from each stratum in proportion to the actual size of the group in the total population. This ensured that the sample was proportionately and adequately distributed among the six schools according to the population of each school as shown in table 2.

Table 2

Distribution of the Sample Size

Schools	*Sampled Population from Form Four*		*Total*
	Boys	Girls	
A	31	0	31
B	0	31	31
C	18	23	41
D	41	0	41
E	0	21	21
F	12	9	21
Total	102	84	186

A proportionate sample of male and female students was then selected from the two mixed schools using proportionate stratified sampling (Table 2). This sampling procedure gives each unit in the population an equal opportunity to be included. The procedure according to Kathuri and Pals (1993) involves assigning a number and then using the number to select the sample size required. This ensured that male and female students from the mixed schools were involved according to their respective population in each school. Lastly, simple random sampling using random number table was used to select the specified number of students of

each gender to be included in the sample from each school. The students corresponding to the number picked were included in the sample.

3.6 Instrumentation

Data was collected through administration of a structured questionnaire with the selected respondents. The questionnaire used a five-point range likert scale to assess students' self-concept. The likert scale was adopted from Atwater (1994) and Coopersmith (1967). The scale sought to measure the students' levels of agreement or disagreement with 32 statements related to their self-concept. The study also assessed the academic performance of students using academic progress reports (Form Four first and second terms mock examination mean grades) of each of the selected student. The academic performance scores were obtained from their class teachers.

The research instrument was validated in two ways. In the first method, the researcher went through the instrument in relationship with the set objectives to make sure that it contained all the necessary information. The second method involved consulting and seeking for the opinion of the experts from the Department of Psychology, Counselling and Educational Foundations. The instruments were then taken for piloting on a population that is similar to the target population, two of the nine schools that were not included in the sample. The piloting included 10 students from each of the two schools. The objective of piloting was to allow for modifications of various questions in order to rephrase, clarify and clear up any ambiguities in the questionnaire. Piloting also assisted in testing the reliability of the instruments. Through the use of Cronbach's alpha (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999) a reliability coefficient of 0.7557 was obtained. Such reliability coefficients were considered to be sufficient enough to confirm and reflect the internal consistency of the instruments (Aronson *et al.*, 1990).

3.7 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher proceeded to collect data from the selected respondents after receiving permission from the University and Divisional Education Office in Mwala division. Permission was also sought from the head teachers of the six sampled schools in the study area. The researcher visited the selected schools before hand for acquaintance with targeted respondents, especially teacher counsellors and head teachers. This exercise assisted the researcher in familiarizing himself with the respondents, explaining the essence of the study

and booking appointments for the data collection. After familiarization, data was then collected from the respondents using the instrument described in section 3.6. The class teachers in each school assisted in the distribution and collection of the questionnaires from the sampled students. The class teachers provided the academic performance (mean grades) of each student who filled the questionnaire. The completed instruments were collected from the class teacher by the researcher within a period of two days.

3.8 Data Analysis

Data collected was processed, coded and analyzed to facilitate answering the research objectives and hypotheses. This was done using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive analyses (percentages, frequencies, tables and cross-tabulations) were used to summarize and organize data and to describe the characteristics of the sample population. Inferential statistics were used in making deductions and generalizations about the whole population. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) inferential statistics deal with inferences about a population based on results obtained from samples. Inferring sample results to the population is necessary since this research deals with a sample. The more representative a sample is, the more generalizable the results are expected to be in a population. Mugenda and Mugenda argue that inferential statistics are concerned with determining how likely it is for the results obtained from a sample to be similar to results expected from the entire population. Pearson's correlation coefficient (Aronson *et al.*, 1990) was used in testing the first and fourth null hypotheses; t-test and chi square were used in the second null hypothesis; and ANOVA and chi square in the third hypothesis. Pearson's correlation coefficient was tested at $\propto = 0.01$ significance level, while t-test, ANOVA and chi square tests were tested at $\propto = 0.05$ significance level. This was done with the aid of a computer programme - Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11.5 for windows.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the research results. The discussion addresses the research objectives of the study which included:

(i) To determine whether the way the teacher labels students affect the students' self-concept in Mwala division.

(ii) To determine whether school type influences the self–concept of secondary School students in Mwala division.

(iii) To determine whether gender differences exist in self-concept levels among Secondary school students in Mwala division.

(iv) To determine whether there is a significant relationship between students' self-concept and academic performance in Mwala division.

For each objective, a null hypothesis was formulated. The findings of these objectives were analyzed descriptively and the hypothesis tested inferentially using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11.5 for windows.

4.2. Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Approximately 89% of the respondents were 19 years old, 7% were 18 years and 4% were 20 years of age. This implies that they were at the peak of the adolescent stage. According to Mutie and Ndambuki (1999), adolescence is an important time for the development of self image and it is at this time that the adolescents compare their real and ideal selves and judge themselves by how well they measure up to social standards and expectations and how well they perform. They form opinions of themselves as other see them.

98% of the respondents were from rural areas while 2% were from urban areas. Mwala division being a semi-arid area, most of the respondents were from poor families. The rich minority are mostly from urban areas. Most of the respondents had both parents and few with either single parent or totally orphaned. The greatest percentage were Christians while the other religions were represented by a very small percentage.

4.3. Findings

This section presents the findings of the study. The findings focus on: students self–concept and academic performance in Mwala division, gender and self–concept of the students in

Mwala division, type of school and self–concept of students in Mwala division and teacher labelling and students' self-concept. The findings are elaborated in sub-sections 4.3.1 to 4.3.4.

4.3.1. Teacher Labelling and Students' Self– concept

The first objective of this study sought to determine whether the way teachers label students affect the students self-concept. In order to address this objective the study assessed the way teachers labeled students in the study area. This was done on a 5-point range likert scale using 6 statements relating to the way teachers responded (comment) to the academic performance of the students. The sample respondents were requested to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with each of the statements. Table 3 summarizes the distribution of their responses.

Table 3

Teachers' versus Labelling of students

	Response (%)				
Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
My teacher tells me that I have a great potential.	60.2	32.3	3.8	3.8	0.0
I relate well with my teacher	31.2	45.2	6.5	13.4	3.8
My teacher acknowledges my efforts.	24.2	57.5	3.2	11.8	3.2
My teacher makes me feel I am not good enough.	5.9	23.1	6.5	32.3	32.3
My teacher dismisses my points	3.2	9.1	6.5	47.8	33.3
My teacher tells me that I cannot make it.	0.5	2.2	5.4	27.4	64.5

N = 186

An examination of Table 3 indicates that the teachers appreciated and encouraged students in their academic work. They recognized their abilities and were always available for the students. Such positive feedback from the teachers about the academic ability and performance of the students was likely to encourage them to work hard. Dweck, *et al.*, (1978) support this by observing that positive feedback of the teachers about the performance of their students encourages high academic achievement in class.

The response to each constituent statement was scored on a scale of 1, indicating the most unfavourable feedback of the teachers about students' performance, to 5, indicating the most favourable feedback. The individual statement scores were added up to form a total score for

each respondent, which measured unfavourable-favourableness of teachers' labelling of the respondent. The total score varied between 6, indicating the most unfavourable feedback score, and 30, indicating the most favourable feedback score. The higher the score, the more positive (favourable) was the teachers' feedback about the academic performance of the respondents, and vice versa. The total score was later coded into three ordinal categories in order to differentiate between the levels of unfavourable-favourableness of teachers' labelling of the respondents. This included a score below 18 (6-17) meaning unfavourable, a score of 18 (average/neutral) and a score above 18 (19-30) meaning favourable. Table 4 depicts the level of unfavourable-favourableness of teachers' labelling of the respondents.

Table 4

Level of Teachers' Labelling on students

Level of Teacher Labelling	*Frequency*	*Percent*
Unfavourable	6	3.2
Average/neutral	1	.5
Favourable	179	96.2
Total	186	100.0

Table 4 indicates that 96.2 percent of the respondents recorded a favourable teacher labelling. This suggests that their teacher gave them favourable feedback about their academic performance. As noted earlier, such favourable feedback that teachers gave their students about academic performance encourage them to work hard as they feel recognized and appreciated. Rosenthal (1994) supports this by arguing that favourable feedback from the teachers positively affects students' attitude toward their academic work. Rosenthal argues that teachers' belief about a given student's ability and potential has a small but significant effect on her behaviour towards the student and the student's eventual achievements. His standard procedure is to tell teachers at the beginning of school years that some of the children in the class are underachievers and just read to "bloom" intellectually although in fact the children labeled this way were chosen randomly. Those labeled has having more potential typically show more gains during school years than do those who have not been labeled in this way. Consequently, the comparative judgments teachers make about individual children can have pervasive effects. Bee (1997) adds that students absorb these feedbacks and adjust their behaviour in school accordingly. He observes that beliefs about their own abilities that students develop though this process are usually quite accurate. He argues that students who consistently do well in comparison to others come to believe that they are

academically competent. Further, and perhaps more important, they come to believe that they are in control of academic outcomes. This boosts their academic achievements in class.

The first objective of this study was also accompanied by the first null hypothesis which stated that "there is no significant relationship between teacher labelling and the level of self-concept among students". Correlation analysis was also used to test this hypothesis. In this case, teacher labelling was treated as the independent variable while self-concept was the dependent variable. Both teacher labelling and self-concept were measured on a 5-point likert scale as discussed in sections 4.5 and 4.2, respectively, and their total scores calculated. Table 5 shows a correlation coefficient matrix of teacher labelling and self-concept.

Table 5

Pearson Correlation of Teacher Labelling and Self-Concept

Variables	*Statistics*	*Self- concept*	*Teacher labeling*
Self-concept	Pearson Correlation	1	.493(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	186	186
Teacher labelling	Pearson Correlation	.493(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	186	186

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5 indicates that there is a positive and significant relationship between teacher labelling and self-concept ($r = .493$, $p < 0.01$). Since $p < 0.01$, the first null hypothesis that suggested, "there is no significant relationship between teacher labelling and the level of self-concept among students", was rejected. This suggests that favourable feedback that teachers gave their students about academic performance improved their self-concept, and vice versa. This means that for high academic achievement to be realized in schools, teachers should strive and give favourable feedback to students about their abilities to perform well in school. These results were supported by Dweck, *et al* (1978), Rosenthal (1994) and Bee (1997) who argue that the feedback that teachers give students about their academic performance affect their academic achievement and behaviour in class. This therefore influences students' perceptions of their ability and ultimate self-concept.

4.3.2. Type of School and Self-Concept of the Students

The second objective of this study sought to determine whether school type influences the level of self-concept among students. The objective was accompanied by the second null hypothesis which stated that "the type of school does not significantly influence the level of self-concept among the students". Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test whether this hypothesis was significant or not. ANOVA is used to determine the differences in means between one or more samples by examining the amount of variance within each of the samples, relative to the amount of variance between the samples. It was preferred to t-test in this case since we are comparing the means of more than two samples, that is, the grouping variable (type of school) consists of more than two categories of schools. For ANOVA to be used, the test variable, that is self-concept, in this case, was an interval/ratio variable (measured in the actual scores), while the grouping variable, that is type of schools were a nominal or ordinal variable. Table 6 summarizes the self-concept descriptive statistics for each school category.

Table 6

Students' Self-Concept by Type of School

Type of school	*N*	*Mean*	*Std. Deviation*	*Minimum*	*Maximum*
Boys	72	114.99	10.676	84	140
Girls	52	115.35	10.673	95	141
Mixed	62	117.85	10.849	95	147
Total	186	116.04	10.753	84	147

Table 6 indicates that mixed schools had a higher self-concept mean score (117.85) compared to 114.99 and 115.35 of boys' and girls' schools, respectively. This suggests that students in mixed secondary schools recorded higher self-concept than in the other categories of schools. Mwanzia, *et al.,* (2005) support this by observing that although all types of schools have their good and bad sides, in mixed schools, boys and girls uplift one another in their academic and social life. In these schools, students from either gender complement the academic strength and weaknesses of one another and thereby improving their self-concept and academic performance. In such situations, where boys are weak, the girls help, and vice versa. Female students perform generally better in languages while male students do so in science-based subjects. The students help one another to uplift their academic standards. They learn to live together and are sensitive to one another. High self-concept in mixed schools could be attributed to the nature of the schooling environment. Rew (2005) believes that mixed schools

are the best training ground for girls to be bold and confident because they want to compete with the boys. This means that the self-concept of the boys may improve because of their interaction with boys. This interaction makes the girls to feel equal to boys and this boosts their self-concept. In this study, ANOVA was then used to find out whether the above self-concept mean scores among the schools were significant or not. Table 7 summarizes the results.

Table 7

Self-concept versus Type of School

Variance	*Sum of Squares*	*Df*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*Sig.*
Between Groups (explained variances)	309.207	2	154.604	1.342	.264
Within Groups (unexplained variances)	21082.449	183	115.205		
Total	21391.656	185			

Since $p > 0.05$, accept the second null hypothesis that stated "the type of school does not significantly influence the level of self-concept among the students". This suggests that student's self-concept is independent of the school category, even though those from mixed schools tended to record a higher mean score. This means that self-concept significantly depends on other factors other than the type of school and a student in any school can achieve high or low self-concept.

The above results using ANOVA were also corroborated by chi square test using a contingency table (cross tabulation). In order to calculate the Chi square statistic, type of school was cross tabulated by level of self-concept. Table 8, shows a cross tabulation of level of self-concept by type of school.

Table 8

Self-Concept by Type of School

Level of self-Concept	*% & no. of respondents*	*Type of school*			*Total*
		Boys	Girls	Mixed	
Low	No. of respondents	3	1	1	5
	% of respondents	4.2%	1.9%	1.6%	2.7%
Average/neutral	No. of respondents	1	0	0	1
	% of respondents	1.4%	.0%	.0%	.5%
High	No. of respondents	68	51	61	180
	% of respondents	94.4%	98.1%	98.4%	96.8%
Total		72	52	62	186

$\chi^2 = 2.615$ df = 4 $p = 0.624$

Table 8 shows that there was no significant difference in students' self-concept among the type of schools. It can be observed that the trend of distribution of the students from either of the school types in the three levels of self-concept was almost similar as majority (94.4 %, 98.1 % and 98.4 % from boys', girls and mixed schools, respectively) of them fell in the high self-concept category. This was further supported by the chi-square value that suggested no significant relationship between the two variables ($p > 0.05$ significance level).

4.3.3. Gender and Self-Concept of the Students

The third objective of this study sought to determine whether there were gender differences in the levels of academic self-concept among students. This objective was accompanied by the third null hypothesis stated that "there is no significant gender difference in the levels of self-concept among the students". The independent samples t-test and chi square tests were used to test this hypothesis. Independent samples t-test is used to determine if the means of two unrelated samples significantly differ. In this study, independent samples t-test was used to determine if the self-concept mean scores differed between female and male students. For the t-test to be used, the test variable, that is self-concept, in this case, was supposed to be an interval/ratio variable (measured in the actual scores), while the grouping variable, that is gender of the students (male and female), be a categorical variable (nominal or ordinal variable). Table 9 depicts the t-test comparing the self-concept by gender.

Table 9

T-Test Comparing the Self-Concept by Gender

Variable (Gender)	N	Self-concept mean score	Standard dev.	t-value	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Male	102	116.07	11.135	0.036	184	.972
Female	84	116.01	10.337			

An examination of Table 9 indicates that male students recorded a slightly higher self-concept means score (116.07) compared to that of their female counterparts (116.01). However, since $p > 0.05$, the third null hypothesis that suggested that "there is no significant gender difference in the levels of self-concept among the students", was accepted. This suggests the level of self-concept of students did not depend on their gender. This could be attributed to the same schooling environment, teaching conditions, physical and biological development and even socio-economic characteristics that all the students in the sampled

schools were exposed to. These results contradicted previous studies on self-concept indicating that boys have a higher self-concept than girls (Dweck, *et al.*, 1978; Sdorrow, 1993; Myers, 1995; Muola, 2000). They attributed the differences to traditional stereotypic gender-role dispositions which tended to favour male children than their female counterparts. The findings in this study could be partly attributed to the changing attitudes towards education of children of all sexes. However, Gichuru (2005) observes that the clamuor for affirmative action, recognition of the rights of women and girls, and access to educational opportunities by all have lessened the gender stereotypes and enhanced equity among children regardless of their gender. This could also be attributed to the organizations that fight for the rights of women and feminism, a movement to liberate women in the male dominated society. Our schools have also struggled to give both girls and boys equal educational opportunities and support. This could have boosted the girls' morale hence leading to high concept. Thus, this implies that the society has changed its perception on female children and their roles. Therefore, female children no longer perceive themselves as being lesser and different from their male counterparts.

The results in table 9 which used independent sample t-test were also collaborated by chi square test using a contingency table (cross tabulation). Chi-square was used to compare the frequency of cases found in one variable in two or more unrelated samples or categories of another variable. It is preferred when dealing with variables that have been categorized, gender of the students: male and female, and levels of self-concept: low, average and high. In order to calculate the Chi square statistic, gender of the students was cross tabulated by level of self-concept. Table 10 shows a cross tabulation of level of self-concept by gender of the students.

Table 10

Level of self concept by Gender of the Students

Level of self-Concept	*% & no. of respondents*	*Gender*		*Total*
		Male	Female	
Low	No. of respondents	3	2	5
	% of respondents	2.9%	2.4%	2.7%
Average/neutral	No. of respondents	1	0	1
	% of respondents	1.0%	.0%	.5%
High	No .of respondents	98	82	180
	% of respondents	96.1%	97.6%	96.8%
Total		102	84	186

$\chi^2 = 0.889$ df = 2 $p = 0.641$

Table 10 indicates that there was no significant gender difference in self-concept among the students. It can be observed that the trend of distribution of the students of either gender in the three levels of self-concept was almost similar as majority (96.1 % and 97.6 % of the male and female students, respectively) of them fell in the high self-concept category. This was further supported by the chi-square value that suggested no significant relationship between the two variables ($p > 0.05$ significance level).

4.3.4. Students' Self-Concept and Academic Performance in Mwala Division

In this study, the level of self-concept among students from the sampled schools was measured on a 5-point range likert scale using 32 statements relating to their self-evaluation in terms of own identity and personal worth. The sample respondents were requested to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with each of the statements. Table 11 summarizes the distribution of their responses.

Table 11

Students' Self-Concept

Statement	Response (%)				
	SA	A	U	D	SD
I take a positive attitude towards myself.	65.1	24,2	4.3	3.8	2.7
Life is what I make it to be.	65.1	26.9	4.3	1.6	2.2
I am pretty sure of myself.	60.2	31.7	4.8	3.2	0.0
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	57.5	40.3	2.2	0.0	0.0
I am as capable as most other people	51.6	34.9	3.2	7.5	2.7
I feel confident that I can do something about the problems that may arise in the future.	49.5	40.3	4.8	3.8	1.6
In making life major decisions, I usually trust my own ''inner sense''.	47.3	42.5	4.8	4.8	0.5
I am satisfied with myself.	42.5	22.0	4.3	19.9	11.3
I am proud of my school work.	39.2	46.2	5.4	7.5	11.6
My parents understand me.	34.4	52.7	4.3	7.0	1.6
I can only argue for ideas which I believe.	31.2	43.5	7.0	17.2	1.1
I am pretty happy.	28.5	53.8	6.5	10.8	0.5
Kids usually follow my ideas.	26.9	58.6	9.7	3.8	1.1
I feel self-conscious when I am with people in a superior position to mine at school.	24.7	36.6	7.5	19.9	11.3
I am often sorry for the things I do.	21.0	35.5	11.3	18.8	13.4
I always know what to say to people.	13.4	48.4	7.5	24.7	5.9
I often get upset in school.	8.6	41.9	4.8	30.6	14.0
I do not condemn other people when they pass judgement against me.	11.3	32.8	4.8	35.5	15.6
It is pretty tough to be me.	16.1	22.0	9.1	25.3	27.4
I always tell the truth.	11.8	27.4	13.4	38.2	9.2
My views are solid, no one can change them!	10.2	31.2	9.7	19.4	29.6
I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	10.2	29.6	2.2	25.3	32.8
In life, others are usually better at decision-making than I am.	9.7	21.5	7.0	26.9	34.9
I never get scolded.	5.9	23.1	14.5	36.0	20.4
I don't feel very normal, but I want to feel normal.	9.1	20.4	9.7	28.5	32.3
I live too much by other peoples standards.	7.5	19.9	11.8	37.1	23.7
I am shy and self anxious in social situations.	5.9	19.4	4.8	40.9	29.0
I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.	5.4	11.8	3.8	40.9	38.2
I never worry about anything.	5.9	5.4	5.9	43.0	39.8
I often wish I were someone else.	4.2	14.0	4.3	21.5	55.9
Things usually don't bother me.	2.7	12.4	9.1	50.0	25.8
I am a failure.	1.1	7.0	8.6	19.9	63.4

N = 186

An examination of Table 11 indicates that the respondents valued themselves and their ability to perform well in academic and non-academic domains positively. They were satisfied with themselves, their ability to perform well like any other and the influence of other people in their lives. This was demonstrated by at least 50.5 percent agreement with the first seventeen statements and 51.1 percent disagreement with the last fifteen. This suggests that self-concept of students depend on their personal motivation and influence of other people around them in academic and non-academic lines. These findings concur with Shavel and Bolus (1982) who argue that during the school years, a learner's self-concept becomes organized along both academic and non-academic lines. They suggested that self-concept of a student evolves through constant self-evaluation in different situations. Hence, children and adolescents compare their performance with their own standards and with the performance of peers.

The response to each constituent statement was scored on a scale of 1, indicating least level of self-concept, to 5, indicating highest level of self-concept. The individual statement scores were added up to form a total score for each respondent, which measured the respondent's self-concept. The total score varied between 32, indicating the least overall self-concept score, and 160, indicating the highest overall self-concept score. The higher the score, the more positive (higher) was the level of self-concept of a student, and vice versa. The total score was later coded into three ordinal categories in order to differentiate between the levels of self-concept among the respondents. This included a score below 96 (32-95) meaning low self-concept, a score of 96 (average/neutral) and a score above 96 (97-160) meaning high self-concept. Table 4 depicts the level of self-concept of the respondents.

Table 12

Level of Self-Concept

Level	*Frequency*	*Percent*
Low	5	2.7
Average/neutral	1	.5
High	180	96.8
Total	186	100.0

Table 12 indicates that 96.8 percent of the respondents recorded a high level of self-concept. This suggests that they had a positive self-evaluation of themselves and their abilities. Such students were more likely to perform better in both their academic and non-academic work. This could be attributed to their personal motivation in what they do and the positive

influence of other people in their lives. Marsh (1990) and Maccoby (1980) support these findings by observing that personal motivation of the student to learn and the influence of other people around him/her determine the level of self-concept. Students with a high self-concept are intrinsically motivated to learn and perform better. Such students have a basic belief in their abilities, are more confident, independent, optimistic, assertive and sociable. Hence, students in a school need a high self-concept to enable them attain better academic achievement. Hamachek (1995) adds that positive influence and recognition of a student's ability by other people facilitates a sense of adequacy and appreciation. This leads to high (positive) self-concept of the student in school. Hamachek asserts that a positive self–concept will allow a person to take risks, tolerate ambiguity, face fears and engage in many activities whereas a low self–concept will create intense shyness, fear of adults and peers.

The fourth objective of this study sought to determine whether there was any significant relationship between students' self-concept and academic performance. Accompanying this objective was the fourth null hypothesis which stated that "there is no significant relationship between students' self-concept and academic performance". Correlation analysis was used to test this hypothesis. This was used to determine the strength and the direction of the relationship between the two variables (self-concept and academic performance). In this case, self-concept was treated as the independent variable while academic performance was the dependent variable. Self-concept in this study was measured on a 5-point likert scale using 32 statements with a total score varying from 32 to 160. Academic performance, on the other hand, was measured using the mean grade scores of the first and second term examinations of the selected students. The scores varied from a minimum of 1 point (mean grade of E) to a maximum of 12 points (mean grade of A). Table 13 shows a correlation coefficient matrix of self-concept and academic performance mean score.

Table 13

Pearson Correlation of Academic Achievement and Academic Self-concept

Variables	*Statistics*	*Self- concept*	*Academic performance*
Self-concept	Pearson Correlation	1	.651(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	186	186
Academic performance	Pearson Correlation	.651(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	186	186

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 13 indicates that there is a strong, positive and significant relationship between self-concept and academic performance mean score ($r = .651$, $p < 0.01$). Since $p < 0.01$, the first null hypothesis that suggested, "there is no significant relationship between students' self-concept and academic performance", was rejected. This suggests that students with a high self-concept recorded high academic performance in school, and vice versa. These results were supported by findings of previous studies that indicated a positive and significant relationship between self-concept and academic achievement. For instance, Purkey (1970) observes that students with higher self-concept are likely to be successful in school. Hamacheck (1971) notes that self-concept is closely connected to and determines how a student behaves and learns. Hamacheck indicates that low performance in basic school subjects as well as the misdirected motivation and lack of academic involvement characteristics of the under-achiever, the dropout, the culturally disadvantaged and the failure may be due in part to negative perception of the self. He further notes that many students have difficulties in school not because of low intelligence or bad learning but because they have learned to consider themselves as unable to do academic work. For example, if a student says "I'll never pass that test, I just know it", the student is expressing something about how he feels about himself. According to Moccoby (1980) children who form a positive self-concept are more confident, indpendent, optimistic, assertive and sociable. The results were also supported by Coopersmith (1967) who revealed that persons whose performance does not match their personal aspirations evaluate themselves as inferior, no matter how high their attainments. Bassey (2002) adds that students with positive self-concept towards their education perform better.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the findings of the study, conclusions drawn from these findings, and the recommendations based on the conclusions. Also included are suggestions for further research on students' self-concept.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

Based on the objectives, hypotheses and data analysis, the following findings were established:

(i) There was a significant relationship between students' self-concept and academic performance. This suggests that students with a high self-concept recorded high academic performance in school, and vice-versa.

(ii) There was no significant gender difference in the levels of self-concept among the students. This suggests that the level of self-concept of students did not depend on their gender. This could be attributed to the same schooling environment, teaching conditions, physical and biological development and even socio-economic characteristics that all the students in the sampled schools were exposed to.

(iii) The type of school did not significantly influence the level of self-concept among the students. This suggests that students' self-concept is independent of the school category. This means that self-concept depends significantly on other factors other than the type of school and a student in any school can achieve high or low self-concept.

(iv) There was a significant relationship between teacher labeling and the level of self-concept among students. This suggests that favourable feedback that teachers gave their students about academic performance improved their self-concept, and vice-versa. This means that for high academic achievement to be realized in schools, teachers should strive and give favourable feedback to students about their abilities to perform well in school.

5.3 Conclusions

From the summary of the research findings based on the objectives and hypotheses, the following conclusions were drawn:

(i) Students' academic achievement depends on their level of self-concept. This suggests that students with a high self-concept recorded high academic performance in school, and vice-versa.

(ii) Students have the ability to attain higher levels of self-concept regardless of their gender and the type of school. This suggests that the level of self-concept of students did not depend on their gender. This could be attributed to the same schooling environment, teaching conditions, physical and biological development and even socio-economic characteristics that all the students in the sampled schools were exposed to. Also students' self-concept is independent of the school category. This means that self-concept depends significantly on other factors other than the type of school and a student in any school can achieve high or low self-concept.

(iii) The kind of teachers' feedback about academic performance and ability of the students influences their self-concept. This suggests that favourable feedback that teachers gave their students about academic performance improved their self-concept, and vice-versa. This means that for high academic achievement to be realized in schools, teachers should strive and give favourable feedback to students about their abilities to perform well in school.

5.4 Recommendations

In the view of the above conclusions, the following recommendations were made about students' self-concept:

(i) There is a need to boost the level of self-concept of the students in order to improve their academic achievement. This could be realized through establishing strong guidance and counseling programmes that may lead to improvement of self-concept of secondary school students. This is in line with respondent and work done by Atwater (1994) who says that self-concept exerts powerful influence, affecting the way you perceive, judge and behave.

(ii) There is need to demystify traditional stereotypic gender-role dispositions about the ability of students so as to boost high level of self-concept and academic achievement. This could be realized by sensitizing the society and the students on these stereotypes through guidance and counseling. This is in line with the respondents and the work done by Gichuru (2005) who observes that the clamour for affirmative action, recognition of the rights of women and girls, and access to

educational opportunities by all have lessened the gender stereotypes and enhanced equity among children regardless of their gender.

(iii) There is need for teachers to focus on positive feedback about academic performance of students in order to encourage them to work hard. This could be realized by educating teachers through guidance and counseling on the importance of positive feedback on academic performance to students. This is in line with the respondents and the findings of Dweck *et al* (1978) who talks about the importance of positive feedback to boys and girls.

(iv) There is need for parents to take their children to any of the three categories of schools. This could be realized through educating parents through guidance and counseling on the importance of any of the three categories of the schools. This is in line with the respondents and the findings of Mwanzia *et al* (2005) who argue that even students in mixed schools uplift one another.

5.5. Suggestions for Further Research

This study suggests the following areas for further research:

(i) Influence of family background attributes on the level of self-concept of a student.

(ii) Academic expectations and level of self-concept of the students

REFERENCES

Aronson, E., Ellsworth, J., Carlsmith, F., Gonzales, L. (1990) *Methods of Research in Social Psychology* (2nd ed.), New York: McGraw – Hill.

Atwater, E. (1994). *Psychology for living. Adjustment, Growth and behaviour Today.* (5th Ed.) New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Bandura , A., Reese, L. & Adams , N.E. (1982). Microanalysis of action and fear arousal as a function of deferential levels of perceived self –efficacy . *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 43*, 5 –21.

Bassey, B. A. (2002). *Students' evaluation of Instruction attitudes towards mathematics achievement of SS3 students in Southern Cross River State.* Unpublished masters degree thesis, University of Calabar, Nigeria.

Baumrind, D. (1991). Parenting styles and Adolescent Development. In J. Brooks – Gunn, R. Lerner, and A.C Petersen (Eds.), *The Encyclopedia of Adolescence*. New York: Garland. (P.104).

Bee, H. (1997). *The developing child.* (8th Ed.). New York: Longman

Brockner, J., & Hulton, A. J. B. (1978) How to reverse the vicious cycle of low self esteem: The importance of attentional focus. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 14*, 564 – 578.

Brown, J. D. (1991). Staying fit and staying well: Physical fitness as a moderator of life stress. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60, 555 – 561.

Bryman, A., & Cramer,E (2001). *Quantitative Data Analysis with SPSS for Windows: A guide for Social Scientists.* London and New York: Routledge.

Coopersmith, S. (1967). *The Antecedents of Self – esteem*. San Francisco: Freeman.

Damon, W., & Hart, D. (1988). *Self–understanding in childhood and adolescence,* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press (P.104).

Dweck, C.S., Davidson, W., Nelson, S., and Enna, B. (1978). Sex differences in learnt helplessness. The contingencies of evaluative feedback in the classroom; and an experimental analysis. *Developmental psychology, 14*, 268-76.

Dweck, C. S., & Bush, E. S. (1976). Sex differences in learned helplessness: Differential Debilitation with peer and adult evaluators. *Developmental psychology,12*, 147-56.

Eagly, A.H. (1984) Gender and social influence: A social psychological analysis. *American Psychologists, 38*, 971–981.

Franken, R. (1994). *Human Motivation* (3rd Ed.), Pacific Grove: Cole Publishing Company.

Gichuru M. C. (2005). *The Relationship Between Self-concept and Academic Performance among Secondary School Students in Ol-Joro Orok Division of Nyandarua District, Kenya.* Unpublished Masters Project Report. Egerton University, Kenya.

G. O.K (1999). *Report of the Commission of inquiry on Education System of Kenya. Totally Integrated Quality Education and Training (T.I.Q.E.T)*. Nairobi, Government Printer.

Greenwald, A.G. & Pratkanis, A.R. (1984). The Self. In R.S. Wyer and T.K . Scrull (Eds.), *Handbook of Social Cognition*, (Vol. III, pp.129 –78). Hillsdale, N.J: Erlbaum.

Hamachek, D. (1995). Self–concept and school Achievement: Interaction Dynamics and a tool for assessing the Self –Concept component. *Journal of Counselling and Development, 73* (4), 419 – 425.

Hamachek, D.(1971). *Encounters with the self.* New York:Holt,Rinehartand Winston.

Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self–discrepancy: A theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review, 94*, 319 –340.

Inglehart, M. R., Markus, H., & Brown, D.R. (1989). The effects of possible selves on academic achievement – A panel Study. In J. P. Forgus and J. M. Innes. (Eds.), *Recent advances in social psychology: An international perspective*. New York: Elsevier Science Publishers (P.482).

Kathuri, N. J., & Pals, D.A. (1993). *Introduction to Educational Research*. Egerton University: Educational Media Centre.

Kihlstrom, J. F. & Cantor, N.(1984). Mental representations of the self . In L. Berkowitz (ed.), *Advances in experimental Social Psychology*, (Vol. XVII, PP 1 – 47) New York: Academic Press.

Maccoby, E. (1980). *Social Development: Psychological growth and parent child relationship*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Makinde, O. (1984). *Fundamentals of Guidance and Counselling*. New York: McMillan International College.

Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist, 41*,954 – 969.

Marsh, H. (1990). The structure of academic self- concept. *Journal of Educational psychology, 82*, 623-636.

Maslow, A.H. (1971). *The farther reaches of human nature*. New York: Viking.

Maslow A.H. (1970). *Motivation and Personality.* (2nd ed.). New York: Harper and Row

Maslow, A. H. (1968). *Toward a Psychology of Being*. (2nd Ed). New York: Van Nostrand.

Melgosa, J. (2002). *To Adolescents and Parents.* Madrid: Editorial Safeliz.

Mugenda, O. & Mugenda, J.D. (1999). *Research Methods: Quantitative and Qualitative Approach*. Nairobi: Acts Press.

Muola, J. M. (2000). *A study of the self-concept of children with visual handicaps in integrated and special schools in Kenya.* Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, Egerton University, Kenya.

Muola, J. M (1990). *The effect of academic achievement motivation and home environment on academic performance among standard 8 students*. Unpublished masters Thesis, Kenyatta University, Kenya.

Mutie, E. K. & Ndambuki , P. (1999). *Guidance and Counselling for Schools and Colleges* . Nairobi: Oxford University Press.

Mwanzia, M., Harold, A., Mureu, L., and Gikandi B. (2005) *The Good and Bad of Co-education* . The Standard September 15th P– 27. Nairobi. Kenya.

Myers, D. G. (1995). *Psychology* (4th Ed.), Michigan : Worth Publishers.

Obingo, W. (2005, Sept. 15th). The Good and Bad of Co-education. *The Standard September,* P. 27. Nairobi. Kenya.

Purkey, W.W. (1970*). Self-concept and school achievement*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Rogers, C. H. (1971). *A Theory of Personality.* In S. Maddi (Ed.), *Perspectives on Personality.* Boston: Little Brown.

Rogers, C.H. (1980). *A way of being*. Boston: Haughton Mifflin.

Rosenthal, R. (1994) Interpersonal expectancy effects. A 30-year perspective. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 3*,176-179.

Rubin, J.R, Provenzano, F.J., & Luria, Z. (1974). The eye of Beholder: Parents' views on the sex of newborns. *American Journal of orthopsychiatry* , *44*, 512 –519.

Schunk , D.H. (1989). Self–efficacy and achievement behaviours. *Educational Psychology Review, 1*, 173 –208.

Sdorrow, L.M. (1993). *Psychology*. (2nd ed.). New York: Brown Communication Inc.

Sedikides,C., & Skowronski, J.J (1997). The symbolic self in evolutionary context. *Personality and social psychology Review, 1*, 80-102.

Shavelson,R. J, and Bolus, R. (1982). *Self concept*. The interplay of theory and methods. *Psychology, 74*, 3 – 17

Sifuna, D.N (1986) Reactions to western education in Kenya. *Quarterly Review of Religious studies,* vol.1

Stipek, D., & Gralinski, H. (1991). Gender differences in children's achievement-related beliefs and emotional responses to success and failure in Math. *Journal of Educational psychology, 83*, 361-371.

Williams, J. (1987). *Psychology of women. Behaviour in Bisocial context. (*3rd ed.). New York: Norton.

APPENDIX 1: STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE ON SELF–CONCEPT

Introduction

Dear respondent,

This study is out to look for a way of improving academic performance. You have been chosen to participate in which it is believed you will facilitate its success. You are requested to be as genuine as possible. The information supplied will be treated confidentially and will be used to improve academic performance in schools. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

A. General information of the student's school

1.1 Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

B. STUDENT SELF-CONCEPT

The statements below explain peoples' feelings. You are requested to read and understand them and then indicate whether it describes the way you feel. Select only one response for each statement and put a (✔) beside the selected response. There is no wrong or right answers to the statements so answer them according to your opinion. The selected responses are as follows:

Strongly agree (S.A)
Agree (A)
Undecided (U)
Disagree (D)
Strongly disagree (SD)

1. I am pretty sure of myself.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

2. I often wish I were someone else.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

3. I am able to do things as well as most other people

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

4. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

5. I take a positive attitude towards myself.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

6. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

7. I am satisfied with myself.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

9. I never worry about anything.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

10. I certainly feel useless at times.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

11. I am proud of my school work.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

12. At this time, I think I am not good at all.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

13. I am pretty happy.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

14. I am often sorry for the things I do.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

15. I understand myself.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

16. It is pretty tough to be me.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

17. I do not question my worth as a person even if I think others do.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

18. My teacher acknowledges my efforts.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

19. Kids usually follow my ideas.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

20. I live too much by other peoples standards.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

21. My parents understand me.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

22. My teacher makes me feel I am not good enough.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

23. I always tell the truth.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

24. I am shy and self anxious in social situations.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

25. I can make up my mind and stick to it.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

26. I am frequently bothered by feelings of inferiority.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

27. I never get scolded.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

28. I am doing as well in school as I would like to.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

29. Things usually don't bother me.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

30. I always know what to say to people.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

31. I sort of only believe in myself.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

32. I feel confident that I can do something about the problems that may arise in the future.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

33. I do not condemn if other people pass judgment against me.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

34. I don't feel very normal, but I want to feel normal.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

35. When I am in a group, I usually don't say much for fear of saying the wrong thing.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

36. I always tell the truth.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

37. I often get upset in school.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

38. I have a tendency to side step my problems.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

39. I am a failure.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

40. I feel self-conscious when I am with people who have a superior position to mine at school.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

41. My teacher dismisses my points

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

42. Life is what I make it to be.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

43. My views are solid, no one can change them!

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

44. Usually, opinions of my friends are more important than my own.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

45. In life, others are usually better at decision-making than I am.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

46. In making life major decisions, I usually trust my own ''inner sense''.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

47. I believe that my opinions are almost always right.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

48. I relate well with my teacher

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

49. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

50. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

51. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

52. I'm not always the person I appear to be.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

53. I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite as well as I should.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

54. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favour.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

55. My teacher tells me that I cannot make it.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

56. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

57. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

58. My teacher tells me that I have a great potential.

(SA) ☐ (A) ☐ (U) ☐ (D) ☐ (SD) ☐

APPENDIX 2: RESEARCH PERMIT

MWALA DIVISION EDUCATION OFFICE,
P.O BOX 15,
MWALA.

7TH AUGUST,2006

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MWALA DIVISION.

This is to certify that Mwania J. Muema, registration number Em16/1382/05 a student of Egerton University has been granted permission to carry out research on "The relationship between self-concept and academic performance among secondary school students in Mwala Division of Machakos District"

Please accord him the assistance he may require in order to achieve his objectives. May God bless you as you carry out your research.

Yours Sincerely,

AREA EDUCATION OFFICER, MWALA

JOHN NDUTU,
Area Education Officer
Mwala Division.

EGERTON
Tel: 051-
62276//9/62280/-4
Fax: 051- 62213

UNIVERSITY

P.O. Box 536
Njoro, Kenya

EMAIL: regadmin@egerton.ac.ke

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY, COUNSELLING AND EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS.

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING STUDENT RESEARCH

The above programme is offered in our University at Master's level. In order to complete the programme a student has to carry out a field research.

I wish to introduce to you MWAMA J. MUEMA registration number...EM16/1382/05..... for your kind assistance in his field research work.

Please, accord him the help he may need in order to achieve this objective. While he is carrying out a research, he is familiar and bound by the ethical standards of collecting information, safeguard of the same, and using the findings pro-actively.

On behalf of the University, I wish you well and thank you for your partnership in the training of our students.

Sincerely,

CHAIRMAN
EGERTON UNI,
EDUC. PSY & COUN,
P.O. BOX 536 NJORO

Dr. M. Chepchieng
CHAIRMAN, DEPARTMENT OF, PSYCHOLOGY, COUNSELLING AND EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS.

For: Vice-Chancellor- Egerton University