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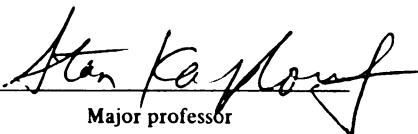
AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS'
AFFECTIVE GOALS AND STUDENT OUTCOMES IN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS

presented by

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has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

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**AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS'
AFFECTIVE GOALS AND STUDENT OUTCOMES IN SECONDARY
SCHOOLS**

By

Elaine Marie Allensworth

A THESIS

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ABSTRACT

AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS' AFFECTIVE GOALS AND STUDENT OUTCOMES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

By

Elaine Marie Allensworth

A great deal of controversy exists regarding the benefits and costs associated with promoting students' self-esteem as a primary educational goal. Additionally, there is little evidence that secondary schools actually can have a substantial effect on students' self-esteem. Therefore, this study uses a national sample of 290 public high schools to compare changes in student self-esteem according to their schools' emphases on affective goals. Other student outcomes (achievement test scores, drop out rates and college enrollment rates) are also compared. Hierarchical linear modeling is used to account for multi-level analyses. Results show little variance between schools in mean student self-esteem, and no significant relationship between affective goal emphasis and student self-esteem. However, schools that have especially low affective goal emphasis have significantly lower mean achievement test scores and college entrance rates than schools with average or high affective goal emphasis.

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INTRODUCTION

Teachers and administrators often claim that one of their educational priorities is to increase student self-esteem. However, there is little evidence that most schools which claim the improvement of students' self-esteem as a priority actually do have a substantial effect on students' self-esteem. Especially at the high school level, where there is less agreement on goals and methods and more emphasis on particular curricular subjects, teachers' impact on students' self-esteem may be negligible if not reinforced by other teachers in the school. Teachers' efforts might also be limited to affecting only students' academic or course-specific self-concepts, rather than enhancing students' general well-being. Additionally, attempts to improve self-esteem might differentially benefit those students whose self-concepts are at greater risk within the school setting.

This study uses a sample of 290 public high schools from the High School and Beyond Teacher and Administrator Survey of 1984 and Student Surveys of 1980 and 1982 to compare changes in student outcomes (i.e., reported self-esteem and achievement scores) according to teachers' prioritization of affective goals within their schools. Schools are classified according to teachers' ranking of the goal of improving students' personal growth and fulfillment (self-esteem, personal efficacy, self-knowledge). The schools are then compared in terms of changes in their students' self-esteem scores and test scores over a two year period. Differences in school effects on students' self-esteem are also examined among students of varying demographic and academic backgrounds, as previous research has found differential school effects based on students' race, gender, economic background and academic records. Hierarchical linear modeling is used to account for multi-level analyses.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Self-Esteem as an Educational Goal

A great deal of controversy exists regarding the benefits and costs associated with promoting students' self-esteem as a primary educational goal. One debate questions whether or not schools and teachers can improve other aspects of students' lives by working to enhance students' self-perceptions. Student self-esteem has been positively associated with academic achievement, behavior, prevention of delinquency, satisfaction in school, less stress and burnout, vocational identity and success in later life (Battle 1981; Bradford 1981; Brynner, O'Malley and Bachman 1981; Dawson 1980; Finian 1988; Gruber 1980; Kaplan 1980; Muller, Chambliss and Wood 1977; Munson 1992; Richman, Brown and Clark 1984; Wells and Rankin 1983; Wiggins 1987). Therefore, many educational scholars have suggested that schools should concentrate on improving students' self-esteem as a means of improving all of these other areas. However, not all studies have found significant correlations between global self-esteem and these other student outcomes, suggesting that self-esteem enhancement might not be an appropriate means of obtaining other student outcomes (e.g., Brookover, et al. 1979; Mboya 1986; McCarthy and Hoge 1984; Mintz and Muller 1977; Wells and Rankin 1983). Additionally, most of these studies are correlational, so that the directionality of the relationships remains unclear.

Whether working to enhance students' self-esteem is an appropriate method for improving other student outcomes, there is also debate as to how important it is as a goal in itself. Adolescent self-esteem has been identified as a critical component in the development of adult self-concept and adjustment to adult life (Richman and Brown 1985; Purkey and Novak 1984). "People with

high general self-esteem typically function effectively in a variety of situations and perceive themselves as fulfilled and happy (Richman and Brown 1985).” Because school-age children, especially adolescents, spend such a great amount of their time at school and base their self-images on teacher and peer feedback (Battle 1981; Eskilson and Wiley 1987), many researchers and practitioners believe that schools need to take an active role in nurturing students’ self-esteem. In fact, some researchers have suggested that neglecting children’s affective development has contributed to major educational and societal problems (Battle 1981; Copley and Karban 1977), and that “helping students learn how to be happy and successful” is the real task of educators (Canfield 1993). However, while some educators are claiming that teachers tend to ignore children’s affective needs, and concentrate too much on cognitive skill development (e.g., Battle 1981), others feel there is too much emphasis on affective goals in education. Rita Kramer (1991) has even declared that “self-esteem has replaced understanding as the goal of education.”

In fact, there seems to be some variability in the emphasis schools and teachers place on affective goals. Generally, teachers and administrators seem to believe strongly in enhancing students’ self-concepts. Silverail (1980) found that most teachers and administrators want students to develop positive self-images within their schools, with the goal “have developed a positive self-image” ranking first out of 66 alternatives among administrators, and fourth among teachers. However, while this goal rates highly among teachers and administrators as a group, it is not a priority for all teachers and administrators. The Schools and Staffing Survey of 1990-91 (NCES 1993) found that in public schools less than 55% of all secondary teachers and administrators rated “students’ personal growth” as one of their top three (out of eight) goals.

It also remains unclear how much impact individual teachers can have on student self-esteem. Drury (1980) found that about one-tenth of the total variation in high school students' self-esteem lies between schools. However, he based his analyses on school demographics, rather than using school/teacher goals or behaviors. Corbett (1992) hypothesized that junior high and middle schools would differentially effect students' self-esteem due to the different organizational patterns of the two types of schools. However, she found no differences in students' self-esteem between these school types. An experiment by Dusa cited in Canfield (1990) showed that a group of high school students whose teachers concentrated on enhancing students' self-esteem were absent less frequently, completed more homework, participated more in extracurricular activities, held more offices, and had a higher graduation rate than a control group of students. However, this study involved a very intensive effort to improve students' self-esteem, and did not directly measure self-esteem. Under normal classroom conditions, without special programs or experiments, teachers might place less emphasis on achieving affective goals within the classroom, even though they consider them important. For example, Strein and Murphy (1982) found that teachers emphasize affective goals much less in actual practice than they perceive when questioned about their practices by researchers. In fact, Bonaguro, Rhonehouse and Bonaguro (1988) reported no changes in students' self-esteem after a six-week course designed specifically to improve students' self-esteem.

At the high school level, it might be especially difficult for schools to promote the enhancement of student self-esteem. Generally, students are in contact with many teachers for only small units of time. It is therefore likely that significant development of students' self-esteem will occur only if there is a consensus among teachers that such efforts should be made. However, high

schools have been characterized by researchers as being “loosely coupled” organizations, with low goal consensus, more lower-level autonomy and fluid participation (Herriott & Firestone 1984; Weick 1976). This means it is often difficult to initiate change, or to control the performances of different members of the organization, due to the loose connections between the organization’s parts and the lack of authoritative power (Fuller 1986; Herriott and Firestone 1984). Therefore, even if self-esteem is one of the school’s priorities, one cannot be sure that all members of a school’s faculty are in fact trying to enhance their students’ self-esteem or even know how to do so.

Changes in students’ self-concepts are rarely measured by schools or teachers. It is also not known which types of schools stress these goals. Therefore, this study will attempt to determine which types of schools stress affective goals, and if:

H1: Students report higher levels of self-esteem in those schools that stress affective goals, controlling for previous reports of self-esteem; and

H2: Other student outcomes (achievement test scores, drop-out rates and college enrollment) are significantly better in schools that emphasize affective goals.

Background and Demographic Factors Associated with Students’ Self-Esteem

Whether schools can affect students’ self-esteem in general, it seems likely that schools might best be able to help students who have lower self-esteem due to their academic or demographic situations within the school. That is, that aspect of student self-esteem which is lowered due to comparisons with peers or differential treatment within the school may be most easily reached by in-school programs. (e.g., Negative effects on students’ self-esteem which result from low-achievement might be countered by efforts to reduce competition or maximize

possibilities for success.) Many studies have shown differing levels of self-esteem among students due to their academic and behavioral backgrounds, as well as their racial classifications, SES and gender. Therefore, this study will attempt to identify those students who might differentially benefit from school efforts to improve their self-concepts.

Academic and behavior records

Many researchers have identified students' academic backgrounds and behavior as causes for differences in students' self concepts (Alexander and McDill 1976; Bachman and O'Mally 1986; Hagburg, Masella, Palladino and Shepardson 1991; Heyns 1974; Kelly 1976; Loney 1974; Oakes and Lipton 1990; Pottebaum, Keith and Ehly 1986). For example, it has been shown that impulsive and delinquent children seem to develop low self-esteem due to difficulties controlling themselves and their environment, and the predominantly negative reinforcement that they receive for this behavior from parents, teachers and peers. However, this relationship seems to be weak at the high school level (Loney 1974; McCarthy and Hoge 1984). Low-achieving children seem to develop lower self-esteem due to constant academic comparisons made by teachers and other students within classrooms, low expectations and repeated failure. However, reference group identity seems to be an important moderator between the achievement and behavior performance and students' self-esteem. Nachmias (1977), for example, showed that lower-track students who use academic track students as a reference group show a significantly lower level of self-esteem than those lower-track students who do not compare themselves to academic-track students. This study will attempt to discover if:

H3: The depressing effects of low-achievement and behavioral criticism/punishment on self-esteem are smaller in schools that express more concern for students' affective needs.

Gender comparisons

Studies regarding gender differences in self-esteem have been somewhat inconsistent. Traditional beliefs that women and girls have lower self-esteem than males have been supported by studies which show 1) that both women and men perceive to value masculine traits more than feminine traits (Broverman et al. 1970), 2) that women are less confident in their performances than men (Deaux and Emswiller 1974; Feather 1969), and 3) and that a greater "people-orientation" emerges for girls 12 to 14 years old simultaneously with lower self-esteem (Rosenberg and Simmons 1975). Studies that actually compare self-esteem differences by gender have shown varied results, with some producing significant self-esteem differences by gender, with girls showing lower self-esteem (e.g., Eskilson and Wiley 1987; Foon 1988; Richman and Brown 1985), and others showing no differences, or higher female self-esteem (Bledsoe and Dixon 1980; Kohr, et al. 1988). Some of these studies seem to show differences only for high-SES white girls, or for students in single-sex rather than co-educational schools. However, results are not consistent.

Several older studies have suggested that girls' self-esteem is especially affected by poor academic performance. Skipper (1976), for example, found that in higher-ability schools, average-ability girls had lower self-esteem than higher-ability girls, while boys' self-esteem was not affected by ability. He hypothesized that girls were more intrapunitive than boys, and so more negatively affected by poor performance in school. Therefore, one might expect that school attempts to nurture students' self-esteem might have greater impact upon female students.

However, this effect might be weakened due to girls' greater dependence on familial (rather than school-based) approval and support for self-esteem (Eskilson and Wiley 1987). Therefore, those analyses which test school effects on self-esteem due to achievement differences will include controls for gender.

SES and Race

Higher self-esteem has been consistently identified with higher social class (Bledsoe and Dixon 1980; Fu, Hinkle and Korslund 1983; Hare 1977; Kohr, Coldiron, Skiffington, Masters and Blust 1988; Richman and Brown 1985). However, conditions have been identified in which this relationship does not hold. For example, Bledsoe and Dixon (1980) found that disadvantaged students who remain in school and reach higher grade levels might not differ in self-concept from those students in middle-income families. Additionally, high-SES white girls have actually been found to have lower self-esteem than boys or low-SES girls (Richman and Brown 1985; Simmons, Carlton-Ford and Blyth 1987). And high levels of pressure to succeed which exist in upper-class suburbs have been shown to adversely affect the self-esteem of adolescents (Eskilson, Wiley, Muehlbauer and Dodder 1986).

When economic status and achievement are controlled, recent studies (post-1975) have shown that African American high school students seem to have the same or higher self-esteem than white students, although the opposite appears true when no controls are used, or when students at younger grades are studied (Drury 1980; Hunt and Hunt 1977; Kohr, Coldiron, Skiffington, Masters and Blust 1988; Richman and Brown 1985). Additionally, African American students show higher self-esteem in segregated (mostly black or mostly white) schools, schools in which there are either high or low differences between African American and white student achievement, and schools with less

ability-grouping (Drury 1980; Hunt and Hunt 1977). Similarly, Hunt and Hunt (1977) reported that African American boys' self-attitudes were more positive when they were less attached to school, most likely because their self-images were distanced from the implications of their school performance. However, if African American students' self-concepts are less affected by school factors than white students' self-concepts, school efforts to improve students' self-esteem might be less effective for African Americans. Therefore, these analyses will attempt to discern whether:

H4: Affective goal emphasis is associated with increases in self-esteem for non-minority and low-SES students to a greater degree than it is with minority and high-SES students.

METHODS

The Sample

The sample used for this study is taken from the High School and Beyond Teacher and Administrator Survey of 1984 and the corresponding High School and Beyond student surveys of 1980 and 1982. Only general education, public high schools were used in these analyses,¹ with the final sample consisting of 290 schools, with 8077 student participants and 6380 teacher respondents. The student-level analyses are based on pooled data from both the sophomore and senior cohorts in each of the surveyed schools, in order to increase the sample size of students per school. School-level data are based on the High School and Beyond school files of 1980 and 1982, aggregation of responses from the Administrator and Teacher Survey of 1986, and aggregation of student data.

The Variables

School-level demographic variables used in these analyses include the percentage of students in the school classified as disadvantaged, the mean school SES², the percentage of students identified as minorities (African American or Hispanic), the urban/rural/suburban location of the school, the grade levels taught in the school (coded as elementary +, junior/senior high and senior high), the size of the school (measured by the number of students in the sophomore cohort), the percentage of the class of 1982 who dropped out, and the percentage of the graduating class of 1982 going to college.

¹Private schools were not included in these analyses to avoid any selection bias.

²Mean SES was entered as a predictor in all of these analyses, but it was determined that the percentage of disadvantaged students predicted more of the variance in student outcomes than did mean-SES, so percentage disadvantaged students was used in place of mean-SES in the final analyses.

A measure of the schools' emphases on affective goals was developed from a question on the Teacher and Administrator survey which asked teachers to rank eight goals in terms of their importance in their teaching.³ It is an average of the percentage of teachers ranking affective goals as one of their top two goals, the percentage ranking affective goals as one of their top three goals, and the percentage ranking affective goals as one of their top four goals.⁴ It therefore represents (in general) the percentage of teachers in the school who rate students' affective development as one of their top goals. The mean for this measure is 42.7, with a standard deviation of 10 and minimal skew (.17). Interestingly, the average percentage of teachers ranking affective goals as one of their top three, out of eight goals is 41.6 percent. This mean value is substantially lower than the 55 percent reported in the Schools and Staffing Survey of 1990-91, suggesting that teachers might be placing a higher priority on these goals now, than they did in 1984. Variables measuring the percentages of disadvantaged and minority students, the size of the schools and the emphasis on affective goals (as an interval variable) were mean-corrected and used to form interaction variables to allow for interpretation of contextual effects with reduced problems of multi-collinearity.

Student-level variables include SES (the High School and Beyond standardized composite), race (an effect-coded dichotomous variable, 1 = African American or Hispanic, -1 = white), sex (1 = male, -1 = female), tenth-grade and 12th-grade achievement test scores (mean-corrected composite variables

³The question asked: "If you had to choose from among the eight goals for students listed below, how would you rank them according to their importance in your teaching?" The goal used for construction of the affective goals variable was worded "personal growth and fulfillment (self-esteem, personal efficacy, self-knowledge)." The other goals listed were: basic literacy skills (reading, math, writing, speaking), academic excellence or mastery of the subject matter of the course, Citizenship (understanding institutions and public views), specific occupational skills, good work habits and self-discipline, human relations skills (cultural understanding, getting along with others), and moral or religious values.

⁴Although use of just one of these measures would be more specific, it would also be arbitrary. Combining the percentages creates a more reliable measure of each school's emphasis on affective goals.

consisting of the average of the reading, vocabulary and math standardized scores), tenth-grade behavior (a scale focusing on student behavior problems composed of responses to the questions: 1) I have had disciplinary problems in school during the last year, 2) I have been suspended or put on probation for disciplinary reasons, and 3) Every once in a while I cut class), and self-esteem in the tenth and twelfth grades (composite variables consisting of the items: 1) I take a positive attitude toward myself, 2) I feel I am a person of worth; on an equal plane with others, 3) I am able to do things as well as most other people, and 4) on the whole, I am satisfied with myself). The variable measuring behavior, however, proved to be unreliable ($\alpha = .5$), and so was eliminated from the analyses. Hypothesis 3 was therefore tested only for the possibility of schools moderating the effect of achievement on self-esteem, rather than moderating the effects of both achievement and behavior on self-esteem.

The Models

Relationships among school characteristics, including affective goal prioritization and student-level outcomes are examined using hierarchical linear modeling. This allows for examination of individual outcomes within grouped units (i.e., schools), without losing the effects of either individual variability or shared social membership, as one might by using a strictly student- or school-level analysis. The principle student outcome considered in these analyses is global self-esteem, however achievement test scores are also examined. Other student outcomes for which data is available only in aggregated units (school drop-out rates and the percentage of graduating students going on to college) are examined through regular regression models.

Hierarchical linear models⁵ consist of at least two equations, a within-unit (level-1) model and a between-unit (level-2) model. Here, the units are schools. The parameters of the within-schools equation (the intercept and slopes) can be used as the outcome variables of the between-schools models. For example, in these first analyses, the outcome of interest is student self-esteem. The within model is as follows:

Level 1

$$(12\text{th Grade Self-esteem})_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(10\text{th Grade Self-Esteem})_{ij} + \beta_{2j}(\text{SES})_{ij} + \beta_{3j}(\text{Race})_{ij} + \beta_{4j}(\text{SES} * \text{Race})_{ij} + \beta_{5j}(\text{Achievement test score})_{ij} + \beta_{6j}(\text{Gender})_{ij} + \beta_{7j}(\text{Gender} * \text{Test score})_{ij} + e_{ij} ; \text{where}$$

The twelfth-grade self-esteem of student *i* in school *j* is the outcome measure;
 β_{0j} = the mean student self-esteem score in school *j*, controlling for $X_{1i} - X_{7i}$;
 β_{1j} through β_{7j} = student-level coefficients for school *j*; and
 e_{ij} = the residual error associated with student *i* in school *j*.

The between-schools models allow one to predict differences in the parameters β_0 through β_7 (school mean self-esteem— β_0 , and the relationships between student background characteristics and self-esteem— β_1 through β_7) with school-level predictors (e.g., percent disadvantaged students or goal emphasis). Thus, in the between-schools model one is trying to predict the coefficients of the within-school models. In the first series of analyses (testing Hypothesis 1, that students report higher levels of self-esteem in schools which stress affective goals), the following between schools models are posed:

Level 2

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}W_{1j} + \dots + \gamma_{07}W_{7j} + u_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}W_{1j} + \dots + \gamma_{17}W_{7j} + u_{1j}$$

...

$$\beta_{7j} = \gamma_{70} + \gamma_{71}W_{1j} + \dots + \gamma_{77}W_{7j} + u_{7j} ; \text{where}$$

⁵For a complete description of hierarchical linear modeling see Bryk and Raudenbush (1992).

W_{1j} through W_{7j} = the school-level predictors: affective goal ranking(W_1), % disadvantaged(W_2), and % minority(W_3), plus the following interaction terms: Goals x Disadvantaged(W_4), Goals x Minority(W_5), Disadvantaged x Minority(W_6), Goals x Disadvantaged x Minority(W_7);
 γ_{00} = the average⁶ school mean self-esteem (adjusted for β_1 through β_7), controlling for W_1 through W_7 ;
 γ_{01} = the average effect of W_1 on school mean self-esteem (β_0), controlling for W_2 through W_7 ;
 γ_{10} through γ_{70} = the average slopes of predictors X_1 through X_7 and self-esteem controlling for W_1 through W_7 ; and
 u_{0j} through u_{7j} = the residual error associated with school j (i.e., the difference between the coefficient for the school and the average coefficient for all schools.

Hypotheses one, three and four predict that schools can effect students' general self-esteem and reduce discrepancies in self-esteem which are based on comparisons with others of different academic backgrounds, SES and race. They are tested by first predicting tenth-grade self-esteem with SES, race, gender, achievement and behavior scores at level-1, and affective goals, percentage disadvantaged students and percentage minority students at level-2. Then, twelfth-grade self-esteem is predicted, with the addition of tenth-grade self-esteem as a level-1 predictor.⁷ Each level-1 slope that is found to be a significant predictor of twelfth-grade self-esteem, and that is found to vary significantly between schools, is also predicted with school-level variables, to determine if emphasis on affective goals might affect the relationship between self-esteem and other student characteristics (i.e., testing Hypotheses three and four, that achievement, behavioral, SES and racial differences between students might

⁶The gammas are precision-weighted averages. Their values are weighted according to the amount of variance between and within schools and the sample size of each school, giving estimates that are between the unweighted mean, and a mean weighted by sample size only.

⁷Tenth-grade self-esteem is predicted as a means of accounting for differences in self-esteem which developed prior to the beginning of the study, and which may or may not be related to school variables. Tenth-grade scores were entered as a predictor of twelfth-grade scores as a way of controlling for differences that might have existed prior to any school effects.

show less of a relationship with self-esteem in schools which stress affective goals).

Hypothesis 2, that emphasis on affective goals can impact student outcomes other than global self-esteem, is tested with the same predictors as Hypothesis 1, with scores for achievement replacing self-esteem scores. Additionally, multiple regression analyses are used to examine student outcomes for which there is only school-level data (i.e., drop-out and college enrollment rates).

RESULTS

Schools and Affective Goals

Before examining any school effects, a series of analyses were conducted to determine if affective goal emphasis was more prevalent in particular types of schools. First, a multiple regression was conducted in which the percentage of teachers prioritizing affective goals was predicted with the following school variables: size, percentage minority students, percentage disadvantaged students and mean SES. No significant relationship was found (see Table 1). Two ANOVAs were then used to discern relationships between school location (urban, rural and suburban), grade levels served in the school, and affective goal emphasis. There was no significant relationship between school location and goal emphasis. There was a significant relationship between grade levels served by the school and school emphasis on affective goals, with an average of 5.6% more teachers emphasizing affective goals in junior/senior high schools than in schools serving only students in ninth through twelfth grades (see Table 1). Perhaps teachers in these schools are more concerned with students' transitions into adolescence, and so more concerned with students' affective needs.

Student Self-Esteem

Hypothesis 1 questions whether schools that emphasize affective goals have a positive effect on students' global self-esteem. The first step in analyzing this effect is to determine how much of the variance in students' self-esteem is between schools, and how much is within them. This is accomplished through unconditional within- and between-schools hierarchical models (i.e., models without predictors), and is equivalent to a one-way ANOVA with random

Table 1
Predictors of Affective Goals

	Predictor	Standardized Coeff. or Group Mean	Proportion of Variance Explained
Multiple Regression	Size	0.013	.007
	% Minority	-0.018	
	Mean SES	0.007	
	% Disadvantaged	-0.065	
ANOVAs	School location		.009
	-Urban	41.6%	
	-Suburban	42.5%	
	-Rural	44.0%	
	Grade levels served		.026*
	-Senior High Only	42.4%	
	-Jr./Sr. High	48.1%	
	-Elementary +	40.5%	

*p<.05

effects. This yields the following models:

Level 1 (Within-Schools)

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + r_{ij}$$

12th Grade Self-Esteem of student i =

Mean school self esteem + residual for individual i .

Level 2 (Between-Schools)

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j}$$

Mean school self-esteem of school j =

Grand mean self-esteem + residual for school j .

These analyses show that only 1.5 percent of the variance in tenth and grade self-esteem scores and 1.7 percent of the variance in twelfth grade self-esteem scores are between schools. This suggests that schools make little difference in the average self-esteem of students. However, while schools have little effect on average self-esteem, they could differentially effect different groups of students. Such a possibility (as advanced in Hypotheses 3 and 4) can be tested by examining the slopes of SES, race, gender and achievement with self-esteem, to see if they vary significantly between schools. Therefore, the next set of models attempted to discern which student characteristics should be considered in the final model. Table 2 shows the results of these analyses. SES, race and gender all significantly predicted sophomore self-esteem (see Table 2, column 4). However, sophomore self-esteem did not vary significantly between schools, so it was not analyzed further. Significant predictors of twelfth-grade self-esteem included tenth-grade self-esteem, SES, race, gender and achievement test scores. Additionally, the SES- and race-slopes were found to vary significantly between schools (see Table 2, column 5), so they were included in the final analysis, not only as controls in the student-level model, but also as parameters to be predicted. The effects of gender and achievement test scores on self-esteem were not found to vary significantly between schools. Thus

Table 2
Self-Esteem Explained by Student-level Characteristics

Dependent Variable	% of Total Variance that is Within Schools	Student-level Parameters	Average Within-School slope	Estimated Parameter Variance	% of Within-School Variance Explained
10th Grade Self Esteem	98.5%	SES	-.065****	.0016***	6.00%
		Minority	-.026****	n.s.	
		SES * Race	n.s.	-	
		Sex	-.022****	n.s.	
		Soph. Test Scores	n.s.	-	
12th Grade Self-esteem	98.3%	10th Grade S.E.	.343****	n.s.	6.00%
		SES	-.039****	.0103****	
		Race	-.046****	.0077****	
		SES*Race	n.s.	-	
		Sex	-.020***	n.s.	
		Achievement	-.0081****	n.s.	
		Sex * Achieve.	n.s.	-	

Astisks indicate significance of the student level predictor (column 4) and probability of no between-schools variance of parameter (column 5)

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.005, ****p<.001

Hypothesis three, which states that the harmful effects of low-achievement on students' self-esteem are reduced in schools which emphasize affective goals, is disconfirmed.

The final models were specified as follows:

Level 1 (Within-Schools)

$$(12\text{th grade self esteem})_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(\text{SES})_{ij} + \beta_{2j}(\text{Race})_{ij} + \beta_{3j}(10\text{th grade s.e.})_{ij} + \beta_{4j}(\text{Gender})_{ij} + \beta_{5j}(\text{Achievement})_{ij} + e_{ij}$$

Level 2 (Between-Schools)

$$\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(\text{affective goals})_j + \gamma_{02}(\% \text{DISADVANTAGED})_j + \gamma_{03}(\% \text{MINORITY})_j + \text{interactions} + u_{0j}$$

$$\beta_1 = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}(\text{affective goals})_j + \gamma_{12}(\% \text{DISADVANTAGED})_j + \gamma_{13}(\% \text{MINORITY})_j + \text{interactions} + u_{1j}$$

$$\beta_2 = \gamma_{20} + \gamma_{21}(\text{affective goals})_j + \gamma_{22}(\% \text{DISADVANTAGED})_j + \gamma_{23}(\% \text{MINORITY})_j + \text{interactions} + u_{1j}$$

β_0 is the mean twelfth-grade self-esteem, adjusted for SES, race, tenth-grade self-esteem, gender and achievement. β_1 and β_2 are the SES/self-esteem and race/self-esteem slopes. They are predicted with the same school-level variables as mean self-esteem, to determine if school goals can reduce the effects of these variables on self-esteem. β_3 through β_5 (the slopes on self-esteem for the variables tenth-grade self-esteem, gender and achievement) are not predicted with school-level variables as they were not found to vary between schools.

Results of these analyses showed no effects of affective goal emphasis on mean student self-esteem, or on either of the slopes (SES/Self-Esteem or Race/Self-esteem). Affective goals did not significantly predict either of the slopes by itself or in any of the interaction terms, so Hypothesis 3, that affective goal emphasis is especially beneficial for the self-esteem of non-minority and low-SES students, was not supported. Thirty-three percent of the

between-school variance in mean twelfth-grade self-esteem was reduced when predicted by school variables. However, only the percentage of minority students proved to be significant. Additionally, since only 1.7 percent of the variance in twelfth-grade self-esteem exists between schools, this accounted for only about half of a percent of the total variance in self-esteem. Thus, affective goals seem to have little, if any, relationship with students' overall self-concept.

These analyses, however, might have missed a non-linear relationship between affective goals and student self-esteem. This relationship might exist, for example, if student outcomes could *only* be affected by a consensus of teachers stressing affective goals. Therefore, a non-linear analysis was conducted by transforming the interval-level affective goals variable into two dummy variables. Schools were divided into three groups according to their emphasis on affective goals, and formed into two dummy variables: high affective goal emphasis and low affective goal emphasis.⁸ The two dummy variables representing schools with especially low or high affective goal emphases were entered into the final models to determine if a non-linear model was better than the linear model. However, no significant difference was found.

Other student outcomes

Little variance in students' self-esteem can be accounted for by school differences. However, it is possible that teachers' efforts to help students' affective needs can be demonstrated through outcomes which are more school-related. Table 3 shows the results of analyses which use twelfth grade achievement test scores as the outcome variable. Twelfth-grade achievement

⁸The mean percentage of teachers emphasizing affective goals in schools classified as having low affective goal emphasis was 28% (ranging from a low of 12% to a high of 33%), while schools classified as having high affective goal emphasis had an average of 58% (ranging from 53% to 74%) of their teachers emphasizing affective goals.

Table 3
Test Scores Predicted by Student- and School-Level Variables

Level 1	Student-level Parameters	Average Within-School slope	Estimated Parameter Variance	% of Within-School Variance Explained
	SES	3.06****	.864****	15.0%
	Race	-2.53****	3.1****	
	SES * Race	-.356*	1.08*	
Level 2	Parameter	Significant School-Level Predictors	Gamma and Significance	% of Between-School Variance Explained
Linear Analysis	BO (Mean)	Affective Goals % Disadvantaged % Minority	.030* -.018* -.014*	33.4%
Non-Linear Analysis	BO (Mean)	Low Affective Goals High Aff. Goals % Disadvantaged % Minority	-1.04*** n.s. -.017* -.015*	35.7%***

*<.05, **<.01, ***<.005, ****<.001

(The significance level in the variance explained column represents a significant increase in variance explained in the non-linear model, compared to the linear model.)

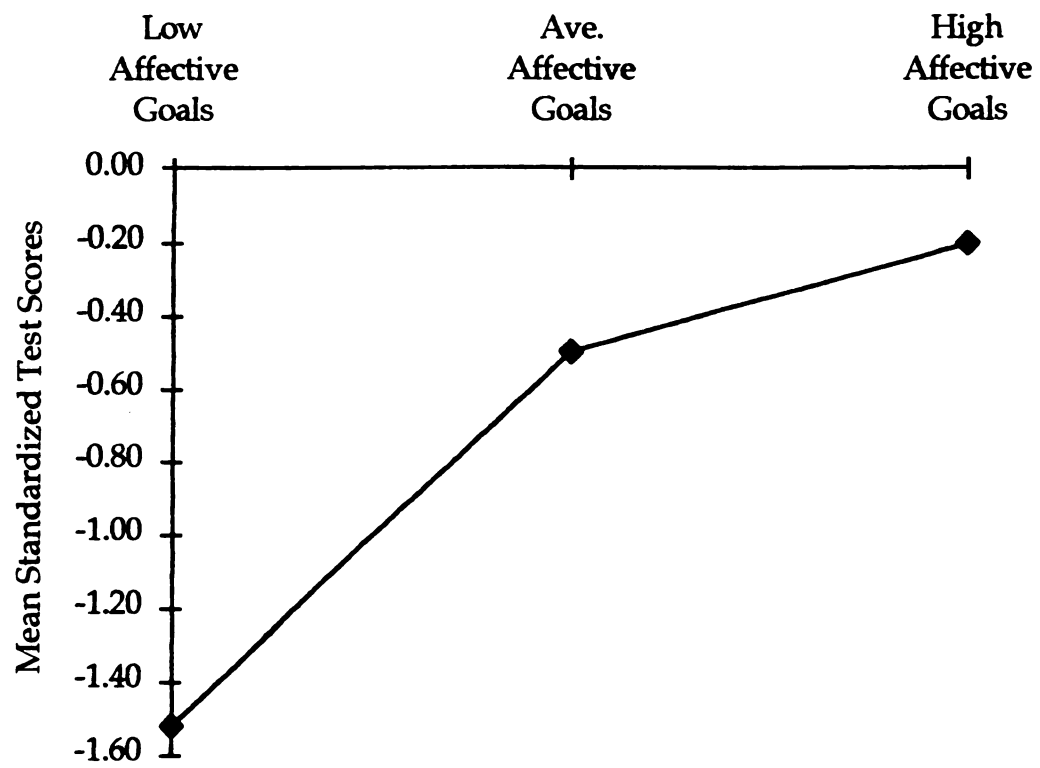


Figure 1. Mean Standardized Test Scores by Affective Goal Emphasis

test scores were entered into hierarchical models similar to those used to predict twelfth-grade self-esteem (i.e., predicted by SES and race at level 1, and affective goals, percent disadvantaged students and percent minority students at level 2). These analyses showed a slight but significant relationship between goals and test scores, with a ten percent increase in the number of teachers emphasizing affective goals corresponding to a mean test score increase of about .04 of a standard deviation (a mean raw score increase of about 0.3). When test scores were predicted with dummy variables representing schools with low or high affective goal emphasis, schools that had low affective goal emphasis showed mean test scores one-tenth of a standard deviation below schools with an average emphasis on students' affective needs (see Table 3, row 4; and Figure 1). Additionally, the dummy-variable model explained significantly more of the variance in test scores than the model with the interval-level affective goals variable, suggesting that a non-linear model is better for predicting achievement test scores with teachers' goals.

Finally, school-level regression analyses were used to predict outcomes for which only aggregated (school-level) data was available. Once again the percentage of disadvantaged students, the percentage of minority students and the affective goals variable were used as predictors. The outcome variables were the percentage of the graduating class going to college, and the percentage of the sophomore class that dropped out of school prior to graduation. Table 4 shows the results of these school-level regression equations. No significant relationship was found between either outcome variable and affective goal emphasis using the interval-level affective goals variable, although the affective-goals variable did approach significance on the percentage of students going to college ($p = .07$). However, when dummy variables representing schools with high- or low- goal emphasis were entered into the equations in place of the interval-level affective

Table 4
Predictors of Drop-out and College Enrollment Rates

Dependent Variable	Predictors	Coefficient	R-square
% of Class of '82 Sophomores who dropped out	Affective Goals	n.s.	.10
	% Disadvantaged	n.s.	
	% Minority	.055*	
% of Class of '82 Sophomores who dropped out	Low Aff. Goals	n.s.	.11
	High Aff. Goals	-2.67*	
	% Disadvantaged	n.s.	
	% Minority	.056****	
% of Graduating Class Going to College	Affective Goals	.20	.07
	% Disadvantaged	-.30****	
	% Minority	.15***	
% of Graduating Class Going to College	Low Aff. Goals	-8.63***	.09*
	High Aff. Goals	n.s.	
	% Disadvantaged	-.29****	
	% Minority	.15***	

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.005, ****p<.001

(Significance levels in the R-square column represent a significant increase in variance explained in the non-linear model, compared to the linear model.)

goals variable, affective goals became a significant predictor for both outcomes (see Table 4, rows 2 and 4). Schools ranking low on affective goal emphasis had an average of 8.6 percent fewer students going on to college (see Figure 2), while schools with a high emphasis on affective goals had about a 2.7 percent lower drop-out rate. Additionally, the non-linear (dummy variable) model predicting college entrance explained significantly⁹ more variance than the linear model. In all, these analyses provide some evidence to support Hypothesis two: that attempts to meet students' affective needs improve students' school-related self-images or aspirations, even if not affecting global self-esteem.

⁹Incremental F-tests were performed to determine if the non-linear models were significantly better.

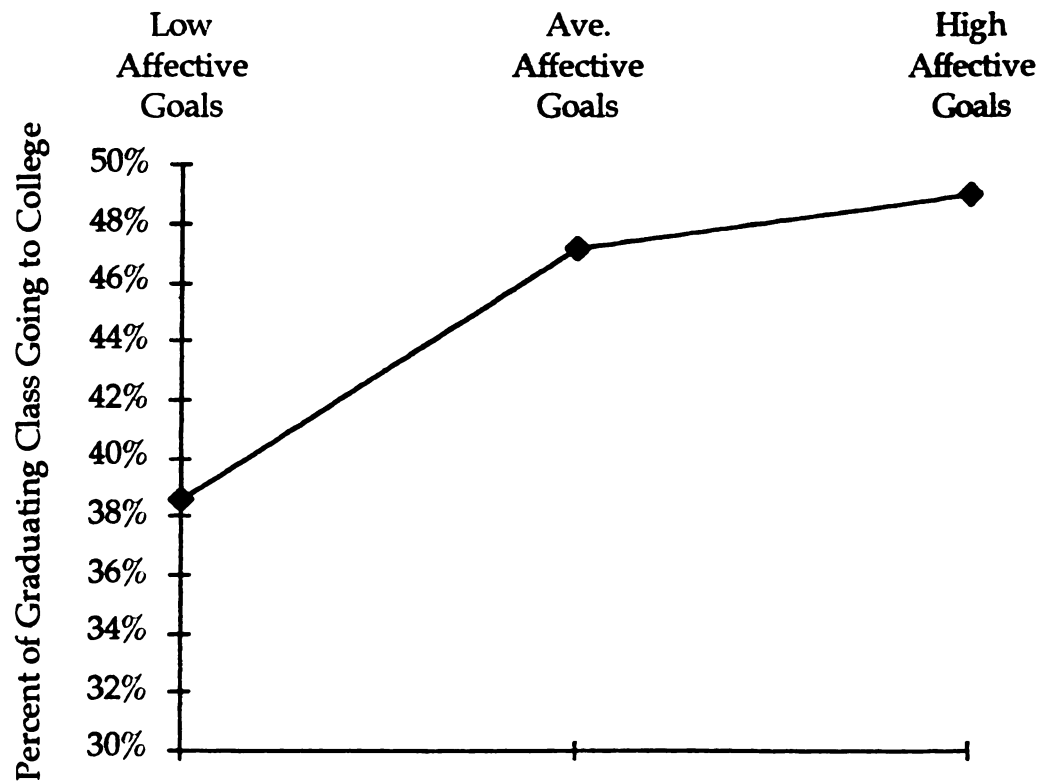


Figure 2.
Percent of Graduating Class Going to College by Affective Goal Emphasis

DISCUSSION

These results show that there is almost no difference in students' global self-esteem between schools. Such results call into question whether high schools can have any real effect on students' self-concepts, and whether such goals should be school priorities. It could be that the diversity of experience inside a high school (little contact with many different school personnel), and the variety of school and non-school influences on students' self-esteem do not allow for much school influence. However, it should be noted that none of the schools used in this sample could be described as having a real consensus among teachers that affective goals are important in their teaching. While schools ranged from having 12 to 74 percent of their teachers emphasizing affective goals, there was no school in which 75 percent or more of the teachers emphasized these goals. Although it seems to be a rare phenomenon, such a consensus might have an impact which these analyses could not discern.

These results also suggest that measurement of global self-esteem might not be the most effective means to judge teachers' efforts to meet students' affective needs. Such efforts might be judged ineffective because they can have only little impact on global self-esteem, although they may be beneficial in other, more school-oriented outcomes. For example, a study by Corbett (1992) that found no differences in students' self-esteem as a result of different school organizational patterns might have found significant results if additional outcome measures were evaluated.

It should also be noted that while teachers' emphases on affective goals showed only a slight beneficial relationship with test scores, drop-out rates and college enrollment, they did not show any negative effect. This is somewhat surprising since teachers were asked to rank affective and academic goals against

each other in the same question. Therefore, concerns that teachers' emphases on affective goals are having a deleterious effect on students' achievement appear to be misplaced. This might be of special concern in poor, urban schools that are being increasingly forced to rationalize their curriculum¹⁰, and promote learning of the "basics" at the expense of other (e.g., affective) goals, since these results also imply that it is beneficial to have at least some concern with students' affective needs.

Finally, it is interesting to note that the lack of many teachers emphasizing affective goals seems to be more highly related to unfavorable outcomes (low achievement scores, less students going to college), than a consensus is to favorable outcomes. This could be due to a lack of much consensus within this sample, but it also implies that a consensus is not necessary to make an impact. It seems to be more important that at least a moderate number of teachers are concerned with students' affective needs.

Future Research

These analyses only involve teachers' affective goals. The relationship between these goals and teachers' other goals (e.g., academic excellence, basic skills, etc.) are unknown. No distinction is made between teachers and schools which rate both affective and academic goals highly, and those that stress one at the expense of the other. Additionally, the reasons various teachers prioritize or do not prioritize affective goals are unknown. One might speculate that teachers who are interested in students' affective needs might also be more committed to their roles as teachers, or they might be more nurturing individuals. Future research might analyze the relationship between goals and goal selection and then look at the effects on student outcomes from a multi-goal perspective.

¹⁰For a description of this phenomenon see Apple (1991).

Additionally, future research might analyze additional student outcomes that affective-goals proponents have declared will be improved through enhancement of student self-esteem (e.g., delinquency, stress, satisfaction in school). Variables chosen for analysis in this paper were limited by constraints of the data set and the HLM program used.¹¹

¹¹The HLM program used for these analyses did not allow for logistic regression, which would have made possible the analysis of several dichotomous outcomes. However, a more recent version (HLM2) does have this option.

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