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THE EFFECT OF ART EDUCATION ON SELF-CONCEPT
OF DISABLED ADULT STUDENTS IN A
COMMUNITY COLLEGE SETTING

by

James Joseph Harrington

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education
University of San Diego
1989

Doctoral Committee:

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The Effect of Art Education on Self-Concept
of Disabled Adult Students in a
Community College Setting

JAMES JOSEPH HARRINGTON

University of San Diego

1989

Director: Robert E. Nelson, Ed.D.

This study examined the effect of art education on self-concept of disabled adult students in a community college setting. An experimental, pretest-posttest, control group design was utilized to carry out the study. The treatment provided was a college art class involving painting, clay sculpturing, and drawing.

The null hypothesis tested was that art education has no effect on self-concept in disabled adult students. The alternative hypothesis was that art education improves self-concept in disabled adult students.

A non-replacement random sample of 30 participants from a population of 250 disabled adult volunteers was selected and divided into an experimental and a control group. Subjects were predominantly white, with a mean age of 35, 60% male and 40% female. Participants included adults with developmental, learning, and physical disabilities.

The study took place from August, 1988, to January, 1989 with the experimental group participating in a one semester art education class. The instrument used was the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS). The methodology involved administration of the TSCS as a pretest and posttest to both the experimental and control groups. T-tests were done comparing gain scores of the two groups with statistical significance established a priori at the alpha .05 level. The TSCS total self-concept gain scores were used to ascertain hypothesis acceptance or rejection. Gains in global scores of internal and external dimensions of self-concept and individual self-concept factor gain scores were also analyzed via t-test to further support hypothesis acceptance or rejection.

Results of the study yielded rejection of the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative hypothesis. The TSCS total self-concept score, both internal and external dimension global scores, and six of the eight individual self-concept factor scores were statistically significant in favor of the experimental group. The self-concept factor of identity was not statistically significant and the factor of social self was statistically significant in favor of the control group.

Interviews of students and study staff upon conclusion of the experiment provided additional informal data for

triangulation which gave support to the research findings. Conclusions, implications for leadership in postsecondary settings, and recommendations for further research are provided.

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to the memory of Eugene Wright who, through his art and despite all odds, gave to all who knew him, a deeper understanding of the true meaning of dignity, courage, and the will to live.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study could not have been accomplished without the efforts and cooperation of many people. I am extremely appreciative of the staff of the Disabled Student Programs and Services at the College of the Redwoods for their support and encouragement. Special thanks to Carol Polasek, Mary Thompson, Gail Conrad, Vicki Morris, and Stephanie King.

I am very grateful to my committee for the time and energy they have provided. To Dr. Pete Peterson, I thank you for giving me the encouragement and support to pursue my doctorate degree. To Dr. Edward Kujawa, I thank you for your understanding and guidance and even more for your sensitivity which allows one to maintain integrity and dignity. To Dr. Robert Nelson, my chair, I thank you for the trust and respect you have always shown me, as well as your belief that I would make it. Your dedication, commitment and heartfelt concern for all special individuals has been an inspiration for many, many individuals, none more than me.

To Barbara Wegener, I sincerely thank you for the many hours you spent in typing this dissertation -- especially when I was behind on the time line.

I am deeply indebted to the students who participated in this study and no amount of thanks will express my deep and sincere appreciation. The barriers which face them every day of their lives, and the courage they continue to show is, and will continue to be, an inspiration for me.

I would also like to thank Floyd Bettiga and Bob Benson, tenured faculty in the art department at College of the Redwoods, who were willing to accept the challenge of developing art education classes for the disabled adult students and for working with these students in a personal way.

Lastly, I thank Nicki for her support, encouragement, guidance, and most of all, her love. Her patience, as well as her ability to keep me going in the right direction has been the driving force which enabled me to complete this study. I especially thank her for Cayden Chance.

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CHAPTER 1

Statement of the Problem

Introduction

The construct of self-concept, its definition, and strategies for not only identifying self-concept, but also improving it in individuals of all ages and in varying situations has been an ongoing challenge for educators, psychologists, and therapists since at least 1950. Not only has the construct of what self-concept is been an issue but also the ways in which self-concept is enhanced, improved or impaired has been argued and debated. Myers (1986) identified that in 1984 alone over 4000 articles were written which pertained directly to self-concept in various psychological books and periodicals. This was twice the amount of research done in 1974. Greenwald and Pratkanis (1984) believed that the main reason underlying the amount of studies being done regarding self-concept is that all individuals experience thoughts and feelings throughout their lives which strongly influence their actions. In formulating the personality, then, a direct impact on how one thinks and feels about oneself will constantly relate back to our concept of self.

Bean and Liptka (1984) noted that for centuries the thought or idea of knowing oneself and understanding how one relates to the world can be linked to "self-expression" prevalent in the arts, music, literature and humanities. Burns (1979) supported this idea by stating that man, since the earliest recorded history, has sought to more fully know and understand his own sense of identity and how it relates to his concept of self. This is consistent with the writings of Maslow (1970), Kohlberg (1973) and Erikson (1982), all of whom stress that in order for an individual to become conscious of his/her self-identity and reach a level of self-actualization, one needs to gain an awareness of self, how one relates to others, and the effects of one's actions on others. Based on the foregoing, it becomes evident that not only is it important for individuals to acknowledge that they do have a concept of self, but it is also critical that individuals constantly strive to improve how they perceive themselves in relationship to others.

The Issue

In the community college setting, faculty and staff have noted the prevalence of low self-concept in the disabled adult student population. Their belief has been formulated through individual conferences, classroom

instruction, social events, and discussion with family and friends of these disabled students. This observation is consistent with literature in the field of disabled studies. For example, in a recent study done by Bender (1987), it was noted that children who are learning disabled do not have an awareness or even a vague understanding of how their behavior is being perceived by their peers. It was apparent that their concept of self and how they related to others with whom they were mainstreamed differed greatly from the nondisabled children's perceptions of them. In examining learning disabled adults, Hoffman, Sheldon, Minskill, and Sautter (1987) found that a lack of positive self-concept in the adolescent years extended into the adult years and was a primary reason for later employment problems found within this particular disability group. Research by Kistner, Haskett, White, & Robbins (1987), also supported this finding.

In an effort to improve self-concept in developmentally, physically, and learning disabled adults as identified in the present study, various methodologies have been utilized by faculty and staff in the community college setting. Intervention strategies at the college site of the study have included one-to-one counseling, small group sessions, family interactions with the college's Disabled Student Programs and Services, and mainstreaming of students

into regular course offerings. Most recently, faculty and staff at the college noted informally through observation of student to teacher and student to student interactions that disabled adults who enrolled in art classes, where creativity and self-expression were an integral part of the class, appeared to have increased their self-esteem while exhibiting an improved self-concept. These individuals appeared to the staff to have become more independent, more willing to take other college courses, and more actively involved with the nondisabled population.

The problem facing the staff was the uncertainty as to whether or not the art education was in fact improving disabled students' self-concepts. Further exploration of this informal data base became important in order to substantiate incorporation of art classes into the individualized educational plans (IEPs) of future students in an attempt to improve these individuals' self-concepts.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of art education on self-concept of disabled adult students in a community college setting. Disabled adult students include those with developmental, learning, and physical disabilities. Literature review revealed a number of

studies in which art education positively affected self-concept in children and adolescents, ages six to eighteen, with such disabilities; however, little information could be found demonstrating the effect of art education on similarly disabled adults. Results of this study contribute to that literature. In addition, it is hoped that this study will provide a valuable model for replication in other disabled adult student programs and for further study using other trial methodologies.

Relevance of the Issue Under Investigation to Leadership

Studies of leadership over the past decade repeatedly have emphasized that true leadership takes into account the needs and wants of followers, raises moral consciousness, and strives to provide for collective societal needs for future generations (Adams, 1986; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978). MacIntyre (1981) and Foster (1988) concurred with this in that both stressed the need for leadership to be concerned with society and community in a moral and ethical manner.

Leadership as it Relates to the Wants and Needs of Followers

Cunningham (1976) stated that it is the leader's

function to become involved in directing the followers in overcoming adversity and thereby becoming more confident in their capabilities. Leadership is generative in its nature and, as such, it should provide strength and the means for followers to become more capable over time. In this context, it is important for those individuals in educational leadership positions to recognize and provide opportunities for meeting the special needs of the disabled, including the need to belong, to be a contributing societal member, and to develop self-worth and a positive self-concept.

Foster (1988) stressed the need for individuals in leadership positions to view their role as educative in nature. By this he explained that leaders must be able to present both an analysis of the current state of affairs and a vision for the future. At the heart of this is the need for leaders to encourage self-reflection by organizational members in order that individual wants and collective needs can be realized and to allow individuals to formulate how the structure of the organization will work and function based on commitments for change and improvement of individuals involved. He identified the need for vision that not only addresses current conditions but is more aligned with alternative possibilities which will have a direct effect on those individuals who are involved with the organization. Foster further stated:

Such a vision pertains to how traditions could be altered, if necessary, so that they meet human needs while still providing a sense of meaningfulness. This is perhaps the most crucial and critical role of leadership: to show new social arrangements while still demonstrating a continuity with the past; with showing how new social structures continue, in a sense, the basic mission, goals and objectives of traditional human intercourse, while still maintaining a vision of the future and what it offers (p. 14).

Leadership as it Relates to Raising Moral Consciousness

About the Disabled and Social Reform

There can be no leadership without first having a solid foundation based on standards that pertain to living which will serve as ethical guides to insuring positive, human relationships. It is the responsibility of leadership to transform these guides through envisioning of social change, change which has a strong moral basis reflected in the behaviors of those involved.

MacIntyre (1981) identified a model of leadership which involves three aspects: (1) practice, (2) virtues, and (3) narrative. Within the practice aspect, leadership involves any coherent, complex, socially established human activity as it pertains to internal good, as individuals strive for

excellence. It is within this practice element that human conception of possibilities is realized. Virtues are necessary to realize the common good inherent in practices and, as such, leadership must exercise virtues (human qualities which enable people to live more harmoniously with purpose of life). All virtues are embedded in particular contexts. Within the *narrative* aspect a sense of underlying community gives virtue its necessary forum. It is within this context that leadership will enable individuals to reflect and shape mutually held views of behavior in which the common good for both the individual and the community will be realized.

Foster (1988) described the ethical component of leadership as the belief that leadership must have meaning to a community of followers. Regardless of the situation in which individuals find themselves, leadership that is moral in nature will allow individuals to critique their social condition, identify new possibilities for bettering themselves, and provide the basis for allowing the moral community to join as one, with a common good for all.

Sullivan (1982) stated:

the achievement of maturity, or moral virtue, consists in a genuine transformation of motives, not simply their combination. And this takes place only through a certain kind of educative social interaction. Civic

moral education is, then, natural in that it fulfills humanity's distinctive need to be at once self-reflective and yet interdependent members of a community (p. 170).

Leadership, then, is only leadership if it has the element of critique. This critique involves a constant search in the context of social conditions which are according to Foster (1988) "either dehumanizing or threatening" (p. 17) to those individuals within a social community.

It is apparent, then, that the more self-esteem and motivation each community member has, the better will be the whole of society. Disabled adults are members of the community and society. Leadership has the moral responsibility to move each follower, disabled and nondisabled, toward a higher level of self-actualization.

Leadership Implications of the Study for Future Generations

This study examined the effect of art education on self-concept of disabled adult students. If art education is an effective methodology for improving self-concept in these individuals, then those in positions to foster change in the disabled field can be influential in incorporating such methodologies into programs for disabled adult students. Such leadership behavior will not only enhance

purpose of life for disabled adults, but will also be both educative and generative in nature for the betterment of future society.

As has been described, the improvement of self-concept in the disabled adult population meets several societal needs for future generations. First, as self-concept improves, the disabled adult becomes more involved with the nondisabled population. This increased interaction provides for better cohesion within the populace and an improved sense of community for all. As the nondisabled populace comes to know the strengths and worth of disabled individuals, such citizens are more readily accepted into social groups, positions of employment, and coalitions for determining collective societal needs.

Second, as the disabled improve self-concept and worth, they become more independent and able to care for themselves physically, emotionally, and economically. This lessens the burden on society as a whole to care for its dependent members. In addition, the disabled adult with improved self-concept is able to make significant contributions to the community for betterment of the society as a whole.

Lastly, the maturity and self-actualization of societal members individually and collectively are furthered as each member moves up Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of needs from physiological and safety needs, to the need for love,

belonging, and self-esteem, and eventually to self-actualization. As self-concept improves in disabled adult members, the maturity and potential for collective social changes in the population as a whole are enhanced. This, then, is the main role of leadership as it pertains to this study. This study provides information which can be utilized by those who are in leadership positions in postsecondary educational settings and, as such, enable leaders to make appropriate decisions based on the wants and needs of disabled adult students.

Definition of Terms

Self-Concept: Self-concept is a collection of traits which are identified as having value by individuals; some traits are very close to the essence of self, while others are less important. As such, then, self-concept consists of the ideas individuals have about themselves and how these ideas relate to reality (Searcy, 1988; Street, 1988). For the purposes of this study, self-concept was further delineated into eight internal and external factors as described by Roid and Fitts (1988) in the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. Internal components include identity, self-satisfaction, and behavior. External components include

physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, and social self.

Disabled Adults: For the purpose of this study, disabled adults include those with developmental, learning, and physical disabilities. Definitions for these three that follow were taken directly from the California Title V Regulations (1989) as they pertain to the community college Disabled Student Programs and Services (DSP&S).

Developmental Disability: A developmental disability exists when a student exhibits the following: (a) below average intellectual functioning; (b) impaired social functioning; (c) potential for measurable achievement in instructional and employment settings; and (d) measured appropriate adaptive behavior in an instructional or employment setting (Section 56018).

Learning Disability: Learning disability is defined as a persistent condition of presumed neurological dysfunction which may exist with other disabling conditions. This dysfunction continues despite instruction in standard classroom situations. Learning disabled adults, a heterogeneous group, are characterized as having: (a) average to above-average intellectual ability; (b) severe processing deficit(s); (c) severe aptitude-achievement discrepancy(ies); (d) measured achievement in an instructional or employment setting; and (e) measured

appropriate adaptive behavior in an instructional or employment setting (Section 56014).

Physical Disability: Physical disability means a visual, mobility, orthopedic, or other health impairment: (a) visual impairment means a total or partial loss of sight; (b) mobility and orthopedic impairments mean a serious limitation in locomotion or motor functions which indicate a need for one or more of the services provided by DSP&S; (c) other health impairment means a serious dysfunction of a body part or system which necessitates the use of one of the services provided by DSP&S; (d) the student with a physical disability must exhibit appropriate adaptive behavior (Section 56010).

Appropriate Adaptive Behavior: Appropriate adaptive behavior is evidenced when a student has the necessary social responsibility to participate successfully in the educational setting in which the student is enrolled. Social responsibility involves the ability to participate in the educational environment by demonstrating personal responsibility, interactive skills, and independent functioning as appropriate to the relevant disability group considering such factors as age, gender, and culture (Section 56004).

Art Education: For the purpose of this study, art education consists of classroom instruction with practical

experience in the media of oil painting, drawing and clay sculpturing as listed in the study college's 1988-1989 catalog, course number: Art 312. Catalog Description: To aid students in their abilities to participate in art skills. Course will provide disabled students with a series of projects using a variety of materials adapted to meet their individual needs.

Summary

The identification of what self-concept is and what it means to individuals has been an ongoing challenge to researchers over time. Many articles have been written, discussed, and debated and it appears that the term *self-concept* is still a hotly debated issue. Within the course of the many studies done on self-concept, little if any information has been formulated pertaining to the improvement of self-concept in disabled adult students through the use of art education.

This study attempted to add to the literature in the field and to identify how postsecondary educational leaders can become a force in structuring situations and providing programs which will help to improve disabled adults' views of themselves, and thereby enable them to contribute more to society as a whole.

CHAPTER 2

Review of the Literature

Introduction

A review of the literature conducted on the topic of self-concept is presented in this chapter. Areas explored included (a) the importance of self-concept, (b) components of self-concept, (c) how self-concept is compromised in the disabled, (d) the effects of low self-concept, and (e) strategies for improving self-concept with specific emphasis on the use of art. An ERIC search was carried out using the following descriptor groupings, covering the years 1970 to 1988: (a) disabled, adult, postsecondary, self-concept, and art education, (b) disabled, children, elementary education, self-concept, and art education, (c) art education, special programs, mainstreaming, disabled children, disabled adults, nondisabled children, and nondisabled adults, (d) handicapped, learning disabled, art education, elementary education, secondary education, and postsecondary education, (e) handicapped, developmentally disabled, elementary education, (f) handicapped, physically disabled, handicapped art education, postsecondary education, secondary education, elementary education, and

(g) self-concept, self-esteem, and creativity.

Additionally, a literature review was done of current professional journals and reference textbooks dating from 1975 to 1989. Although the term *disabled* is the current term in use in educational settings, most literature was found classified under the term *handicapped*. All together over 9000 sources were generated from the literature reviewed, though few related to disabled adults and fewer still to the use of *art education* for disabled adults.

Research areas from the literature reviewed included:

(a) art education for the nondisabled ranging from children in the elementary school to adults in postsecondary settings, (b) art education for the disabled, ranging from children in the elementary school to adults in postsecondary settings, (c) art education for disabled children and adults who are mainstreamed into classes with nondisabled children and adults, (d) self-concept needs of both disabled and nondisabled children, (e) self-concept needs of both disabled and nondisabled adults, (f) self-concept and art education for both the disabled and nondisabled. From this comprehensive literature review, however, only two sources dealt with disabled adult students in postsecondary education, the focus of this current study.

Further exploration of the literature was done using the topics elementary and secondary educational systems to

identify successful methodologies for improving self-concept among disabled children and adolescents. It was felt that perhaps some of the concepts applicable to disabled children and adolescents might also apply to the disabled adult student population. Repeatedly, mainstreaming (attendance of a disabled child or adult in a regular class) and social interaction were discussed as possible methods for improving self-concept among disabled children and adolescents (Ballard, Corman, Gottlieb, & Kaufman, 1977; Johnson & Johnson, 1981; Knowles, 1984; Levine, 1983; and Zigler & Hall, 1986). Literature pertaining to special courses or other methodologies related to self-concept improvement was limited.

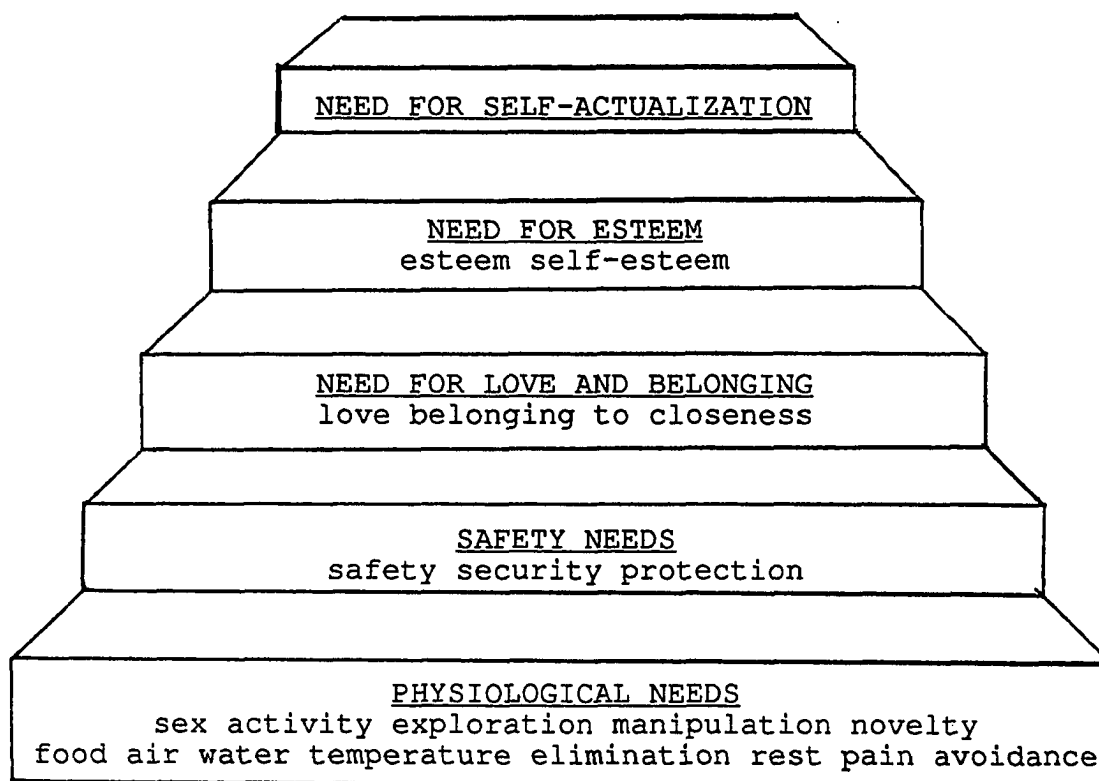
Importance of Self-Concept

Recognition of the importance of self-concept was noted and emphasized in the literature during the 1950s. Carl Rogers (1951) believed that in order for individuals to develop their full human potential, which incorporates a positive stable self-concept, one needs a psychological atmosphere of unconditional positive regard. At the foundation of this theory is the concept of the self-actualizing tendency whereby there is self-imposed pressure to behave consistently with one's concept of self. This

need to be true to one's self-concept often gets misdirected by society, leading to self-defeating behavior. Whether or not this self-actualizing tendency is accurate, a great loyalty to one's perceived concept of self is maintained. Individuals thus become threatened by informational input that is inconsistent with a sense of self. The greater the incongruence between one's self-concept and reality, the more often one is likely to feel threatened.

Maslow (1954) identified that the eventual goal of human beings is to reach self-actualization, which can only be achieved as the individual goes through various stages of growth. He stated that all human beings have the need to work towards reaching their fullest potential. It was his belief that this could only be accomplished by working sequentially through five major growth stages. These stages are a hierarchy of needs and must be met in order, with physiological needs first, and progressing toward self-actualization (Figure 1). Stage One is concerned with basic physiological needs such as food, water, air, shelter and general survival; Stage Two is based on safety needs as they pertain to security, stability and freedom from anxiety and chaos; Stage Three necessitates belongingness and love; Stage Four involves esteem needs based on achievement, recognition, and dignity; and Stage Five is the need for

Figure 1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



self-actualization with the ability to direct one's life and have a sense of fulfillment and meaning.

More recently, Osborne (1986) discussed the need for a stable ego -- one which allows for individuals to relate to each other in a healthy way. He stated,

A difficulty is that there are relatively few ways of measuring success except through our achievements or passions. Until we have conquered our self-doubts and proven to ourselves that we are indeed worthwhile

persons, we may need some props for our sagging egos (p. 47).

He further stated, "We seldom if ever, lose our need for acceptance, approval, and affection" (p.48). In identifying the importance of self-concept, Osborne (1986) presented six components necessary for developing a healthy self-concept: (1) affection (love, warmth, friendship); (2) approval (need for recognition as a person); (3) acceptance (not only of the present condition of self, but of others); (4) achievement (to accomplish something, to achieve, to solve problems, to learn, to be creative); (5) acclamation (approval which is in the form of praise or applause); and (6) attention (when individuals know someone is paying attention to them, self-worth increases).

Integral to the importance of self-concept is the individual's relationship to, and involvement in, the environment. Perceiving that one is worthwhile, has control over one's life, is of value to others, and can be successful are all contingent upon the ability or inability of an individual to relate to one's environment (Coopersmith, 1967; Fitts, 1971). Rotter (1980) supported this notion in stating that it is only through a social setting that self-concept can be defined. An individual must have intrapersonal trust and regard for one's self if new tasks are to be undertaken that might lead to new and

original solutions. Rudestam (1980) further implied that it is not only necessary for the individual to engage in a behavioral setting, but also to be aware of the cognitive process necessary for maintaining and developing self-concept. Human functioning entails both behavioral and cognitive dimensions and, as such, these become interrelated aspects of the whole person. Between the two dimensions, there is an ongoing and shifting relationship which is directly affected by negative feelings, poor environment, low self-esteem, and unstable self-concept. It is through successful experiences that positive feelings and thoughts are elicited. This is further expressed by Kelley (1962) in that an individual's self-concept develops almost entirely as a result of interaction with others. Rosenberg (1985) believed that by interacting with others in a positive atmosphere, individuals will be able to like themselves, respect themselves, and maintain certain standards of success.

Salvelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976) broadly identified self-concept as an individual's perception of himself/herself through the interpretation of one's environment as well as the influence that one's environment has on the individual. Research done by Ames (1978) showed that while children low in self-concept were more self-punitive than high self-concept children, the children in

the high group became as self-critical in competitive settings when they lost. Failing, therefore, constitutes a tendency to lower self-concept and to produce feelings of dissatisfaction regardless of the current level of individual self-concept.

Self-Concept Components

Review of the literature was done to identify the components of self-concept. Major themes included (a) difficulty in defining and measuring self-concept, (b) self-concept as a self-perceptive process, (c) self-concept as it relates to self-esteem, (d) self-concept as a perception of past and future experiences, (e) self-concept's integration with social context, (f) self-concept as it relates to locus of control, and (g) instruments for measuring self-concept.

Some authors believe that self-concept is difficult to measure--that there are currently no acceptable definitions for complete understanding of the concept. Bender's (1987) research study attempted to identify secondary personality and behavioral problems in adolescents with learning disabilities. The study showed a lack of information available concerning personality and behavioral development of adolescents with learning disabilities as they pertain to

self-concept. He suggested that additional research be done in the areas of developmental studies, group comparison studies, and research treatments in order to better identify exactly what is being sought in establishing what self-concept is and how it can best be measured.

Zetlin and Turner (1988) attempted to measure the salient domains in the self-concept of adults with mental retardation (developmental disabilities). Results obtained from quantitative measures showed that tests which are supposed to measure global self-concept are largely unjustified and extremely restrictive in the types of responses they measure. This was consistent with earlier findings of Calhoun and Morse (1977), and Damon and Hart (1982) that the measurement of self-concept itself is difficult because of the vagueness of self-concept theory and the inadequateness of using tests with self-reporting scales which do not have a strong internal validity. These authors also felt there was an apparent lack of opportunity for individuals to make choices, based on their own perceptions and feelings.

Self-Concept as a Self-Perceptive Process

Although controversy over the components of and ability to measure self-concept continues, many authors over time have viewed self-concept as a self-perceptive, self-

evaluative process, able to be both identified and measured (Beane and Lipka, 1984; Coopersmith, 1967; Glen and Janda, 1977; Hamachek, 1978; Wylie, 1961). Wylie (1961) defined self-concept as a "person's characteristic evaluation of himself and what he thinks of himself as an individual; low self-concept is characterized by a sense of personal inadequacy and an inability to achieve need satisfaction" (p. 260). He further discussed high self-concept in terms of individuals who have a high personal regard about themselves based on what they felt they had achieved intrinsically. These individuals displayed a concept of self which was positive and satisfied.

Coopersmith (1967) concurred with the approach defining self-concept in terms of evaluative attitudes toward self. These evaluative attitudes towards self are derived mainly from a social context (family, friends) and are influenced largely by responses from those who play a significant role in their lives.

Self-Concept as it Relates to Self-Esteem

To many who believed in self-concept as a self-perceptive process, the link with self-esteem was also important. Beane and Lipka (1984) viewed self-concept in conjunction with self-esteem, and identified that the combination of the two create the larger dimension of self-

perception. The authors further defined self-concept in terms of role, attributes, and how an individual defines self. Self-esteem is an evaluation of self-concept based on the degree to which an individual is or is not content with it in whole or in part.

In order to fully identify and evaluate one's self-concept, Hamachek (1978) also referred to the term *self-esteem*. He believed that self-esteem is no more or no less the evaluative component of self-concept, and as such is an important element in identifying self. Glen and Janda (1977) explained that studies show that individuals with a positive self-concept have high self-esteem and are less willing to accept negative feedback about themselves than individuals who have little or no self-esteem.

Self-Concept as a Perception of Past and Future Experiences

Additional literature has emphasized the individual's examination of past behaviors and perceptions of self as might be exhibited in future behaviors as an essential component of self-concept. Jourard (1974) believed that one's self-concept is both descriptive and prescriptive. The descriptive nature of self-concept identifies and describes patterns of behavior which occurred in the past, while the future self-concept is influenced by prescriptive behavior, or how we think we should act or behave. Weiten

(1983) supported this in his definition of self-concept by stating, "Self-concept is a collection of beliefs and judgments about one's nature, typical behavior, strengths and weaknesses based on past experience and future expectations" (p. 179).

It is evident from these authors' works that one's perception of self is linked with what has occurred in the past. If individuals have had positive, rewarding past experiences, one can assume that in all likelihood they will have positive expectations for the future. If, however, individuals have had negative past experiences, they may have to come to grips with a concept of self that inhibits achieving a positive, rewarding future.

Self-Concept's Integration with Social Context

A major theme in the study of self-concept and its components is its integration with social context. Self-perception and self-evaluation are dependent upon the environment and social influences of both the setting and the time in which the individual exists.

Kelley (1962) noted that it is only through interaction with others that the *self* develops. He suggested that the environment is indeed influential in having an impact on self-concept. By allowing oneself to be involved with significant others, one interacts with the environment.

Whether the feedback is positive or negative, such data provides the individual with information for changing or modifying self-perceptions.

Neugarten (1969) furthered the notion of self-concept being derived from social context. She noted that in adulthood, self-concept is characterized by a need for stability. A consistency in expectations is seen by others as how individuals view themselves. Stability, therefore, can be derived from two related sources. The first of these is the progression through social roles and social states. The second is that through these social roles and states, self-concept is stimulated and it will be constructed, changed and/or evaluated as the result of the accumulation of experience.

Of major importance to the study of self-concept's integration with social context was the evolution of social comparison theory. Festinger (1954) espoused cognitive dissonance in the individual as critical to the development of self-concept. The individual's comparison of self with others provided the dissonance necessary to come to know, understand, and identify self.

Morse and Gergen (1970) contributed to Festinger's findings in a significant study dealing with social comparison and the concept of self. In their study, Morse and Gergen identified the potential ramifications of

individuals who were placed in a situation of comparison. Subjects thought they were being interviewed for a job, with half of them meeting another applicant who appeared to be very impressive by displaying a positive self-concept. The other half of the subjects met with another applicant who displayed a very low opinion of himself. The self-concept of those subjects who had met with the positive competitor was less favorable after the actual interview, while the self-concept of those meeting the less impressive competitor was very favorable after their interview. It was concluded that individuals' comparisons with others may have an immediate effect on self-concept.

Goethals and Darley (1977) furthered the earlier works of Festinger and Morse and Gergen, identifying what is known as the social comparison theory. This theory posits that the self-concept evolves from early childhood. Children seek out others who appear to be similar, comparing their opinions and abilities to their peers, in order to establish a positive comparison and thereby a positive self-concept.

Jackson (1984) pointed out that "activities which are objectified to represent self never occur in isolation. They are interactions between subject and the world and in objectifying these interactions, the subject objectifies not only himself or herself, but other people as well" (p. 190). He further stated that "without a context of social

interaction, the individual's objectification of his or her own activity might represent the individual as a physical organism, but could not represent the individual as a self" (p. 190). Self, then, is related to the establishment of a strong self-concept within a social context; self becomes highly dynamic and changing, depending on the elements which are encountered throughout life.

Self-Concept as it Relates to Locus of Control

Rotter (1966) believed that individuals operate from either an internal or external locus of control. Individuals who have an internal locus of control tend to believe they are responsible for their own successes as well as failures. Those who have an external locus of control feel that luck, chance, or fate are responsible for individual successes or failures. Depending then on whether individuals feel they have control over their own destiny (internal) or that destiny rests on fate (external), self-concept will develop accordingly.

It has been postulated by Weiner and Kukla (1970) that individuals who have a locus of control which is internal in nature will experience more pride after success and more depression after failure. Individuals who have an internal locus of control will have a tendency to question who and what they are, based on the current situation in which they

find themselves. This can cause the individual's concept of self to fluctuate between one which is positive or one which is negative, making a positive self-concept difficult to maintain. Individuals who have an external locus of control will also, at times, equate who and what they perceive themselves to be depending on the situation, but the concept of self will remain relatively constant rather than prone to change positively or negatively.

Instruments for Measuring Self-Concept

It is evident from the review of the literature that self-concept is a construct not easily defined. In light of the evidence, it is also not easily measured. Brookover, Erikson and Joiner (1964) noted, ironically, the only thing which proves to be consistently well-described in studies about increased or decreased self-concept is the term *self-concept* itself.

One of the major problems identified which has caused concern has been the difficulty in finding an instrument which contains all of the necessary components encompassing the totality of self-concept. For example, Coopersmith (1967) developed the Behavior Rating Form (BRF), delineating various factors commonly found in children. Although the BRF provides a global score identifying high or low self-concept, it does not specify what factors contribute to the

increase or decrease of self-concept. Cowan and Don (1973) established the Aggressive, Moody and Learning Disability Scale (AML). The AML demonstrates the discriminatory power between high and low inferred self-concept students but does not provide information as to what components of self-concept are impacted. The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (1976) is used as an indicator of global self-concept and provides only one score based on how children perceive themselves based on their self-image.

Coopersmith (1967), Marx and Winne (1978), and others have suggested that self-concept measures are dominated by a single factor (i.e. that self-concept is a global factor) and, as such, a generalized self-concept construct will provide the most appropriate match to the data available. Consistent with this, Rosenberg (1979) developed a generalized self-concept scale, but he also recognized that self-concept has certain characteristics and therefore placed these characteristics in a complex hierarchical order.

For the purpose of this study, the author selected the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS), developed by Roid and Fitts in 1971. This comprehensive instrument is based on the need to identify both a generalized score of total self-concept and a method for evaluating the internal and external dimensions which make up the total self.

The relationship of the TSCS to hierarchical models of self-concept has been studied by Shavelson and Bolus (1982). They used the TSCS Total Score as a central measure of self-concept and proved it to be consistent with the subdivisions of their hierarchical model. The components which are identified in the TSCS and which comprise the TSCS Total Score are (a) the internal factors of identity, self-satisfaction, and behavior and (b) the external factors of physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, and social self. Further explanation of the components of the TSCS will be given in Chapter Three under the methodology section of this study.

Compromised Self-Concept in the Disabled

In reviewing the literature, one finds that many authors identify disabled children and young adults as having lower self-concepts than the nondisabled. Studies have included mentally retarded (developmentally disabled), physically disabled, and learning disabled populations.

Mentally Retarded (Developmentally Disabled)

Menolascino and Eggar (1978) noted a higher incidence of emotional problems and isolation, which they felt was due to poor self-concept and low self-esteem, among mentally

retarded individuals than among the general population. Adams (1971) identified that the mentally retarded individual has a poor self-image and expects to fail. Lack of appropriate social experiences is the main cause and self-worth never reaches maturity. It was felt by Lewin and Cartwright (1976) that mentally retarded individuals are not given the opportunity to develop a positive self-concept because they lack the opportunity for positive social relationships with nondisabled individuals. According to Wolfensberger (1985), mentally retarded individuals are perceived as different and, as such, they are devalued by society. Such treatment has a negative effect on their self-concept because they do not feel they are of value. This perception tends to diminish their dignity, as well as their feelings of self-worth.

Physically Disabled

Waldorn (1973) stressed the fact that individuals who become physically disabled in adolescence or early adulthood often develop an inadequate ego because of a poor self-concept. It was stressed by Henderson and Bryan (1984) that based on the type and degree of a physical disability, individuals will have an altered self-concept. Included in this altered concept of self are (a) dependency needs, (b) status needs, and (c) dominance needs. Success in most

instances means being accepted by peers who are not disabled. Acceptance will help establish a positive self-concept, while rejection in any one of the above areas will produce a poor or negative self-concept. Linkowski and Dunn (1974) reported that if physically disabled individuals are to accept the disability, they can only do so if they have a positive, healthy self-concept.

Trieschmann (1987) reported that adults with major physical disabilities have less energy available to cope with the stresses of daily life, therefore resulting in a less developed self-concept. In this light, individuals with long-term physical disabilities (e.g. moderate to severe cerebral palsy) have shown that the will to live is strongly associated with the need to be free, to control one's destiny, and to make one's own decisions.

Learning Disabled

Numerous authors have shown that learning disabled children and young adults are at risk for having low self-concept when compared to non-learning disabled individuals (Bender, 1987; Hoffman, Sheldon, Minskoff & Sautter, 1987; Kistner, Haskett, White & Robbins, 1987). In addition, Roessler and Bolton (1978) presented evidence which suggested that some learning disabilities have a greater impact on self-concept than do others. It was further felt

by Abrams (1973) that the effects of frustrating school experiences due to learning disabilities in children have a direct impact on their self-concept and sense of adequacy in social settings.

Suran & Rizzo (1979) identified the following as possible reasons why children and adolescents who have been identified as having learning disabilities also have a tendency to display a low self-concept:

(a) the family may need to have a child appear stupid or slow; (b) the child may not wish to excel more than the parents; (c) the family environment may be too chaotic to allow the child to study at home; (d) underachievement may be a means by which a child can retaliate against parents who press too strongly for achievement; and (e) the child's energies may be over committed in dealing with family conflicts so that little time is left for school (p. 264).

They further stated

we have noted that children who cannot learn at the same pace as their peers, despite the presence of normal or above-average intelligence, are required to cope with many difficult issues often beyond their budding maturity. The inability to learn easily can breed anxiety, frustration, and anger toward the

learning situation. It can assault one's developing sense of pride and self-concept (p. 266).

Disability and Self-Concept in Adulthood

Most literature reviewed discussed self-concept in disabled children and adolescents. Research conducted on disabled adults and self-concept has been minimal. DeLoach and Greer (1981) felt that disabled adults are treated differently than nondisabled adults. They based their conclusions on the fact that disabled adults do not have the opportunity to identify their potential capabilities because they have been, in general, constantly cared for by nondisabled individuals and not allowed such autonomy. The end result is that it is a constant struggle for disabled adults to not only maintain some control over their own affairs, but also have the opportunity to understand the importance of identifying who and what they are as human beings. DeLoach and Greer used the term *self-state* rather than *self-concept* as "one's overall appraisal of oneself at a specified time and place" (p. 215). The disability itself will play an integral part in the formation of self-state (self-concept) as changes occur within the individual, and both negative and positive feelings will be present. It is critical for adults who are disabled to be able to identify themselves as disabled, accept the disability, and deal with

it in a positive light. Lawlis (1974) noted that if a disabled individual can be motivated to not only accept the disability but to achieve success despite and through the disability, the disability can be incorporated into his/her self-concept and the self-concept can be heightened.

Goffman (1963) and Kutner (1971) believed that the very fact of being a disabled adult connotes minority. The self-concept of these individuals becomes compromised and in many cases underdeveloped based on the fact that they are segregated from the mainstream of society.

A major assumption of this study was that if self-concept is compromised in children and adolescents with disabilities, it is most likely similarly affected in disabled adults. Formal and informal feedback from the faculty and staff in the community college setting used for this study where disabled adults are currently being served, as well as the limited information found in the literature on the self-concept of disabled adults helps to confirm this assumption.

Effects of Low Self-Concept

Rogers (1961) and Maslow (1970) believed that individuals must formulate a sense of meaning regarding what life is and that the need to accept life's challenges and be

able to overcome adversity is critical to the process of identifying self. In order to achieve this, the concept of self and of how individuals perceive themselves are of utmost importance.

Maslow (1970) identified that low self-concept in the disabled has been shown to have a negative impact on employment, body image, ability to relate to reality, and development of maturity. Studies done on self-concept with learning disabled children and young adults (Kistner, Haskett, White, & Robbins, 1987; Hoffman, Sheldon, Minskoff, & Sautter, 1987) readily showed that low self-concept is directly related to later problems in employment. Additionally, studies regarding adolescents and adults who become physically disabled show that they often have a distorted body image, which can for all intents and purposes produce an inadequate ego based on poor self-concept (Waldhorn, 1973). Leland and Smith (1974) and Szyanski (1987) discussed the need for the mentally retarded to increase self-concept and prevent the disability from dominating their lives.

Grayson (1951) felt that the self-concept of disabled patients was impaired due to their inability to relate to reality as it pertained to the disability. This has since been confirmed by Drew, Logan and Hardman (1984) who found, three decades later, little understanding in the field as to

specific psychosocial development in infants and children who are physically disabled. It was noted that many disabled individuals remain dependent and relatively immature for a long time in social interactions, even into adulthood. The authors based their conclusions on the fact that there are apparent maturational lags in the development and awareness of self-concept, and that perception of the reality of the situation is skewed.

Wells and Maxwell (1976) showed that individuals with poor or negative self-concept are influenced by social conditions. Individuals such as these are more conforming and easily persuaded. Acceptance by others is critical and, as such, individuals in this light will not act independently or with any aggressiveness. Rosenberg (1965) felt that individuals with low self-concept are extremely susceptible to rejection and are unable to pursue favorable social acceptance. The only way to develop and maintain a concept of self which is not only positive but also productive is to engage in a social structure. If an individual has a concept of self which prevents the occurrence of social interaction, the individual's self-concept will remain vulnerable and extremely fragile.

Improving Self-Concept Through the Use of Art

Effect of Art on Self-Concept

Eisner (1972) stated that "the prime value of the arts in education lies in the unique contributions it makes to individuals' experience and understanding of the world" (p. 9). It was further identified by Eisner (1972) that "art (1) is one function of providing a sense of visionary in human experience, (2) creates a forum within which man's most cherished values can be embodied and (3) can take those visions most characteristic of man, his fears, his dreams, his recollections and provide these with visual metaphors" (pp.10-11). In addition,

...visual arts also call to our attention the seemingly trivial aspects of our experience, thus enabling us to find new value in them. The artist's eye finds delight and significance in the suggestive subtlety of the reminiscences of places of our existence. The work of art displays these insights, makes them vivid, and reawakens our awareness to what we have learned not to see. Thus art is the archenemy of the humdrum, the mundane. It serves to help us rediscover meaning in the world of vision, it provides for the development of the life sensibility, it serves us an image of what life might be" (p. 14).

Dewey (1934) stated that through visual art, individuals can restore meaning to their lives and engage upon a sense of need and worthiness. He believed that "the moral function of art itself is to remove prejudice, do away with the scales that keep [the] eye from seeing, tear away the veils due to want and custom, perfect the power to perceive" (p. 325). Langer (1957) supported this by stating:

that a work of art presents feeling for our contemplation, making it visible or available or in some way perceivable through a symbol, not inferable from a symptom. Artistic form is congruent with the dynamic forms of our direct sensuous, mental, and emotional life; temporal and poetic structures. They are images of feeling, that formulate it for our cognition. What is artistically good is whatever articulates and presents feeling to our understanding (p. 25).

The true cognitive value, then, of art is that through artistic imagination, insight into self occurs and all areas of life and mind become alive.

Brittain (1979) concluded that young children interact with their environment in the form of touching, smelling, looking, and tasting. Art provides the forum for allowing them to organize, understand, and develop concepts of self

in how they fit into the schema of things. Art, therefore, done by children does more than just reflect their inner-self; it enables them to form it. Accordingly, Erikson (1988) felt that it is important to know that nurturing of senses in early childhood will allow for activity which is imaginative and creative and, as such, will allow for the child to begin to know and understand self. It is through the arts (i.e. painting, clay) that individuals will become "more grounded, more centered in what we truly know, in that innermost core of our being" (p. 36).

In an article from The Arts, Education and Americans Panel (1977), it was identified that perception and communication, both fundamental skills, require much more than verbal training. And since the arts (painting, drawing, and so forth) can send important nonverbal messages from a creator or performer to the observer, they are ideal vehicles for training our senses, for enriching our emotional selves, and for organizing our environment (p. 3).

Parsons (1987) supported this in stating that through the use and experience of art, one can constantly re-examine self, with the exploration of values, as one's circumstances are altered or changed.

Cohen (1988) reported that survey results from a questionnaire given to nondisabled students in a community

college setting taking various art classes (painting, clay, drawing) reported that the majority of these students felt they had made gains in self-confidence, respect for other people, openness to new and different ideas, and a keener and more indepth awareness of self. This concurred with an earlier study by Gentle (1985) in which he stated that self-awareness, which can be identified through art, will bring about a wider and more diverse life experience, and will have a direct impact on the development of self-concept. Lowenfield (1987) noted that creative art therapy (drawing, painting, and sculpting) can provide for self-expression, sensory experience, and improved self-concept.

Sherrill (1979b) believed that "research, creativity and art are extricably linked in the self-actualizing person. All three endeavors seem to emulate from a strong inner drive to do and to be, to discover, to explore, question, play with alternatives, synthesize in new and different ways, innovate, change and originate" (p. 191). Numerous authors have noted programs which enabled children to identify values, intrinsic worth, and formulate a process of self-concept as it related to creativity (Brickell, Jones, & Runyan, 1988; Gruer & Silverman, 1988; Lawton, 1987). In the same light, a number of authors have focused on the use of art education and the benefits derived from such programs in increasing self-concept in children without

disabilities (Copeland, 1984; Drake, 1984; Lowenfield & Brittain, 1970; Sherrill, 1979a).

Art Education for Disabled Children

The use of art education in improving self-concept in disabled children and young adults is well-documented in the literature (Anderson, 1978; Rubin, 1988; Schleien, 1987). Conant (1964) stated that the nature of art work which disabled children can produce and the art concepts which they can develop are as widely varied as in other groups. He noted that disabled children, adolescents and, to some degree, adults, can derive not only personal fulfillment but also conceptual enrichment from involvement in art. The many benefits attained are improved coordination, social relationships, and the opportunity to identify and deal with emotions.

Creative arts programs, according to Sherrill (1979a), must be approached with the belief that disabled children will identify feelings, participate and shape ideas intrinsic for the development of the total person, and improve self-concept. Lanier (1969) discussed the need for a new approach to the teaching of art by stating:

what we need - and here I will speak only of the teaching of art - are new conceptions of models of behavior, new ideas of what might constitute the

curricula of the art class. These new curricula must be meaningful and relevant to pupils-to disabled pupils and by extension to all pupils. These new ideas must engage the 'guts and hopes' of youngsters and through these excitements provoke intellectual effort and growth. These new ideas must give the art class a share in the process of exploring social relationship and developing alternative models of human behavior in quickly changing and, at this point in time, worsening environment (p. 314).

Baer (1985) noted that the role transitions which occur due to a physical disability (loss of self-esteem, changes in body image, etc.) can be accommodated through creative expression (i.e. pictorial expression, visualization through drawing). This supports the notion put forth by Zaidee (1972) that disabled children learn best through emotional and affective subjects. Children who are disabled have shown that they have a need for enrichment through the seeing, hearing, feeling, and moving modes of expression. Through artistic endeavors, self-image will be improved and, as such, it will provide a basis for encouraging social communicability, restoring confidence, and helping the disabled child master the environment. Zaidee further stated that "creative education via art can be a means for helping many disabled children organize their own life

experience and develop a better self-concept, that they may gradually extend their interests beyond themselves and become more socially adjusted" (p. 48).

Alkema (1971) felt that creative art experiences offer a multitude of values relative to the mental, social-emotional and motor development of children. When given the opportunity through the use of art to express ideas as they relate to thoughts and feelings, children will learn to think independently. It is through creative art experiences that disabled children may profit greatly, to the extent that actual changes occur in their personalities as related to self-concept.

In a study done by Eydenberg (1986), cognitive abilities of severely and profoundly retarded children were improved through art by allowing for emotional release of needs, feelings, and desires. This study tied directly into one done by Joraski (1986) in which painting and drawing were positive influences in improving self-concept and cognitive defects in brain-injured patients.

Research done by Stabler, Stabler, and Karger (1977) compared eleven severely retarded children, eleven moderately retarded children, and fifteen nonretarded children. They were evaluated on their paintings by 80 judges with and without art training. Results of the study revealed that judges with art training did not

differentially rate the art of nonretarded persons. They concluded:

Engaging in painting allows a person to do something with his experience, disciplines him to see and integrate internal and external realities, provides a chance to transmit an emotional truth that may be impossible to verbalize and generally facilitates self-actualization. These benefits are universal and do not depend on intelligence, technical ability, or number of paintings one can sell (p.503).

Anderson (1978) encouraged art education to provide a sense of independence and confidence for physically disabled children. He acknowledged that behaviors often exhibited by disabled children stem from a sense of isolation and low self-concept, with the need to be accepted for what and who they are.

Through a process of using art drawing in counseling sessions with disabled children, Rubin (1984) has shown that many of them were able to begin to feel that they were in charge of their lives and could be successful. Jung (1978) stressed in many of his writings that emotions can be accommodated for by giving disabled children visual form through the use of painting, sculpting, and drawing. It is the art activity itself which can help disabled individuals to cope with and accept their disabilities. This concept is

further supported by Ulman, Kramer, and Kwiatkowska (1978) who stressed that individuals with any type of disability can, through the use of art, increase their acceptance of being disabled and, in so doing, enhance their well being. Poor self-concept can be changed into a positive self-image by allowing for increased self-expressions and release of tensions.

Art Education for Disabled Adults

Numerous studies have shown art education to improve self-concept in children with and without disabilities (Clements, 1984; Gitter, 1973; Krone, 1978). However, literature dealing with the use of art education or any other creative behavior to assess its effect on disabled adults in a community college setting is minimal.

Martz (1987) examined five case studies of disabled adults in the community college setting who were involved in an experimental art class. She found that artistic expression may be helpful in improving self-concept in such a population.

The current study examined, more formally than the Martz (1987) observational study, the effect of art education on self-concept in disabled adult students in a community college setting. The current study entailed a larger sample and utilized specific criteria which were

measurable and correlational. Results of this quantitative, experimental design study contribute to remedying the paucity of literature in the field.

Summary

A review of the literature pertaining to self-concept has yielded a multitude of information. Most evident is the fact that the concept of self is not easily understood or defined. Various theories were discussed, each one unique with its own set of constructs. In varying degrees and with various postulates, theorists concerned with the concept of self agree that indeed each individual develops, modifies, expresses, and changes his/her self-concept throughout the life cycle.

Self-concept is not static. As individuals interact with others and their environment, examine and reflect on past behaviors and perception of self in future situations, the concept of self undergoes continuous change. This change may be either positive or negative, but will definitely occur as self-concept maintains its dynamic state. It appears, then, that the main issue identified in the literature is not the question of there being or not being a concept of self, but rather the how and the what which causes it to develop, change, or become altered.

Another area which provided varying information and little consensus was the ability or inability to actually measure self-concept. The majority of authors reviewed felt that self-concept could be measured, but the how and the best way is still very much in debate. It should be noted, however, that of all the various methods and instruments reviewed, the TSCS was one of the most widely used and studied by researchers in the field. It is also the one instrument which received the most positive support as a viable, reliable, and valid instrument (Bannatyne, 1975; Bertinetti & Fabry, 1977; Bolton, 1976; Bolton, 1979; Boyle & Larson, 1981; Deiker & Lanthier, 1975; Fleck, 1971; Fitts, 1964; Letner, 1970; Lund, Carman, & Kranz, 1981; McGuire & Tinsley, 1981; Pound, Hansen, & Putnam, 1977; Rahaim, 1976).

Regarding self-concept of the disabled, it was consistently demonstrated that children, adolescents, and adults who are disabled suffer from a lower self-concept than those who are not disabled. It was quite apparent from the literature that this identified lower self-concept in disabled individuals is a primary area which should be addressed. Information provided showed that children and young adolescents who are disabled have been afforded the opportunity in many different ways to improve their concepts

of self, while little information was available to support this occurrence for disabled adults.

Lastly, review of the literature yielded support for the arts and, more specifically, the visual arts and the role they play in improving self-concept for both disabled and nondisabled children and adolescents. It did not, however, due to the lack of studies for this population, provide evidence which showed this to be true for disabled adults.

CHAPTER 3

Research Design and Methodology

Study Objectives

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of art education on self-concept in disabled adult students in a community college setting. The null hypothesis tested in the study was as follows:

Null Hypothesis: Art education has no effect on self-concept in disabled adult students.

Alternative Hypothesis: Art education will improve self-concept in disabled adult students.

The instrument used to examine self-concept in this study was the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale by Roid and Fitts (1988). This instrument was developed following extensive research in an effort to provide researchers with a multi-dimensional tool which would be widely applicable and yet simple for the respondent. According to Roid and Fitts (1988), it has provided a means for integrating research and clinical findings into a comprehensive scale which provides both a total self-concept score and delineated sub-scores related to internal and external factors of self-concept.

Design

Although studies have shown art education to improve self-concept in children with varying disabilities (Clements, 1984; Gitter, 1973; and Krone, 1978), a paucity of literature was found dealing with the use of art or any other creative behavior to assess its effect on disabled adults in a community college setting. The few references found are discussed in the literature review section. The present study tested the hypothesis of improved self-concept as an outcome of an experiment in which art education was implemented for a random sample of disabled adult students in a rural community college setting.

An experimental, pretest-posttest, control group design was utilized to carry out the study (Borg, 1981; Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Hopkins, 1980). Participants in both the experimental and control groups were followed over the course of one semester, with testing occurring prior to and immediately following the art education class.

Treatment

The treatment was a regularly scheduled college art class, specifically designed for disabled adults, involving instruction in oil painting, drawing, and clay. The class

is a regularly taught course for two units of credit. The class met two days a week, at 9:00 AM, with each session lasting two hours. Consistent with all classes for disabled students at the study site, class size was restricted and classroom aides were available.

Class Site

The art education program utilized one of three classrooms in the Creative Arts Building. The room, 40' x 40' x 11', was selected due to the fact that it is located in a single story building, which is handicapped-accessible. Fourteen large, fully accessible cabinets lined the walls, each with individual storage space for four students. The tables were arranged and designed to accommodate any type of physical disability. In addition, all materials were available and easily accessed by students, regardless of their disability. The classroom was self-contained in that water, restrooms and storage areas were readily available and handicapped accessible.

Class Curriculum

The curriculum for the art education class was designed by the Director of Disabled Student Programs and Services (DSP&S) and two regular art education instructors at the college. It was approved by the College Curriculum

Committee as an applicable credit course for the Associate of Science and/or Associate of Arts degree. The class outline and percentage of time allotted for each component was:

1. Tools and materials	6%
2. Line recognition and development	12%
3. Color recognition and development	16%
4. Space/Dimension	12%
5. Composition (two and three dimensional)	16%
6. Research techniques	
(libraries and galleries)	12%
7. Spontaneity of expression	13%
8. Critique (self and classmates)	<u>13%</u>
	100%

The method for evaluation of students was based on (1) attendance - 30%, (2) instructor evaluation of art work based on individual creativity - 40%, and (3) classroom participation - 30%. In addition, the students engaged in college level critical thinking tasks in which they were required to independently analyze, synthesize, explain, assess, anticipate and/or define problems, formulate and assess solutions and apply principles to new situations. More specifically, the main thrusts in the critical thinking component were: (1) analyze art work and present a critique of art work projects, (2) define problems in the work

project, (3) formulate solutions to correct defined problems, and (4) upon completion of the specific art project (i.e. oil painting, clay sculpture) display, critique, and give suggestions to improve or enhance the work.

Classroom Instructor

The instructor was a nonhandicapped white female, 32 years of age, holding a Bachelor of Arts degree with emphasis in the area of three dimensional design. She also held a California Single Subject Art Credential for grades K-12 and a California Community College Instructor's Limited Services Credential in applied and fine arts.

The instructor had some experience in teaching art in grades K-6 and two years experience in teaching art in grades 9-12. This was her first art teaching experience in a postsecondary setting; however, she had two years experience as a classroom aide in the college's regular art program in which she was supervised by the class instructor. Prior to teaching the art education class she had no experience either as an aide or as an instructor in working with disabled adult students.

Classroom Aides

The art education class, unlike the regular college art classes, had three aides who: (a) assisted the instructor in preparing the classroom ready for each session, (b) assisted students who had questions or needed mobility assistance (i.e. to and from the bathroom), and (c) helped clean up and store equipment and materials upon completion of each class session. There were two male aides and one female aide whose ages were 19, 41, and 54. One of the male aides had no previous experience in art or in working with disabled adults. He was currently attending the college and was enrolled in 12 units of general education coursework and planned to transfer to a four year university upon completion of his Associate of Arts degree in 1990. The other male aide was physically disabled himself and had limited experience in working with disabled adults. His educational background was limited to the Associate of Arts degree. The female aide had no previous experience in art education, but had two and a half years experience in working with developmentally disabled adults in a sheltered workshop setting. Her educational background consisted of an Associate of Arts degree in Business Education. These aides qualified for their positions based upon the hiring procedure established by the personnel office at the college study's site.

Typical Instructional Session

Prior to each session the classroom was set up by the instructor and aides. Depending upon the projects being introduced or continued, materials were made available to students by placing them on a table in front of the classroom (i.e. paint, brushes, paper, etc.). Students were required to make their own selections based on the project with which they were involved. In reference to new projects, each one was introduced by the instructor at the beginning of the class session with basic instruction on how to use the material, but not on what the project should look like upon completion. Key themes stressed were:

(a) there is no right or wrong in what individual projects should look like when completed, (b) it is not for the instructor, classroom aides, friends, or family to tell students what to produce, rather it is for the student to decide independently, (c) whatever is produced, the experience and the feel of the experience is important, and (d) it is important that the student use his/her own ideas and not those of others.

Praise and positive reinforcement were stressed, with the main emphasis being to create excitement and freedom to experiment. Because it was important for students to make their own decisions, the instructor did not provide answers

on the "what" of the projects and limited direction in the "how" of doing projects.

At the start of every session, it was reinforced to students that it was their own decision to determine when a project was completed. Upon completion, the students critiqued their projects and presented them to the class. Time allotted was five to ten minutes at the end of the class session.

A typical time line was:

9:00-9:10 - Review of present project or introduction of new project.

9:10-9:20 - Materials selected by each student

9:20-10:20 - Individual work by student

10:20-10:40 - Review or critique of projects based on critical thinking component of curriculum.

10:40-10:50 - Clean up and prepare to leave.

Special Needs and Equipment

Based upon individual disabilities and special needs of students in the art education class, classroom materials and work space were at times modified. For example, students who were in wheelchairs were provided with special desks which accommodated them. For students who had limited use (poor fine motor coordination) or no use of upper limbs,

materials and equipment (brushes, etc.) were adapted by the DSP&S occupational or physical therapists.

Instrument

The instrument used was the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) which consisted of 100 self-descriptive items in booklet form. The TSCS utilizes two scoring subscales: (1) self-criticism subscale for determining internal validity of responses and (2) positive subscale for identifying both a global self-concept and delineated internal and external factors of self-concept.

Reliability

The reliability of TSCS scores across a wide array of populations is well-documented in the literature. Research among varying age groups, ethnicities, and educational levels has consistently demonstrated test-retest reliability and internal consistency of the TSCS scores. Condon (1958) even reported a reliability coefficient of .88 for the TSCS Total Score in a psychiatric patient population.

Internal consistency estimates ranging from .88 to .94 have been reported for the TSCS Total Score (Cronback, 1951; Nunnally, 1968; Stanwyck and Garrison, 1982; Tzeng, Maxey, Fortier & Landis, 1985). Interitem correlations done by

Tzeng, et al (1985) and corrected by the Spearman-Brown method revealed an internal consistency estimate of .79 which is comparable to other self-report inventories having internal consistency estimates in the range of .80 and above (Roid and Fitts, 1988).

Test-retest reliability has been confirmed by Fitts (1965) and others in studies including adolescents, college students, and adults. Reliability coefficients in the Fitts study ranged from .60 to .92. In a study by Lund, Carmen, and Kranz (1981) of educable mentally retarded adolescents the Total Score on the TSCS was found to have a test-retest correlation of .62.

Lastly, the TSCS's administration procedures provide for reliability among examinees who are disabled. First, there are no time limits and it can be taken by answering questions with "cueing" (e.g. pointing to questionnaire responses instead of writing). Second, the scale is appropriate for both group and individual administration. Third, the vocabulary is established at the fourth grade (age 12) reading level.

Validity

Numerous studies have been done verifying both construct and content validity of the TSCS. Construct validity of both the Total Score to measure global self-

esteem and Row and Column scores as separate dimensions of internal and external self-concept has been researched. Shavelson and Bolus (1982) used the TSCS Total Score as a central measure of general self-concept and also showed its predictable relationship with measures of the subdimensions in their hierarchical model (Roid & Fitts, 1988).

The TSCS Total Score has been shown to have a moderate to high correlation with numerous other related measures including: State-Trait Anxiety Scale (-.65) with 150 college students (Miller, 1972); Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (.80 time one and .73 time two) with 99 students in grades seven and eight (Shavelson & Bolus, 1982); IPAT Anxiety Scale (-.63) with 45 blind college students (Smith, 1970); Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory (.75) with 204 undergraduate psychology students (Van Tuinen & Ramanaiah, 1979); Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory-Adult Form (.64) and Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control (-.63) with 50 undergraduate psychology students (Martin & Coley, 1984); and others including correctional institution, adolescent, student teacher, and psychiatric samples (Roid & Fitts, 1988).

Construct validity of the TSCS has also been confirmed by several factor analysis studies. The two most significant of these were provided by McGuire and Tinsley (1981) and Walsh, Wilson, and McLellarn (1984). Multiple-

group factor analysis was used in both studies, in a hypothesis-testing mode to examine the existence of the three row, five column, and 15 cell facets of the TSCS. The confirmatory factor analyses of the TSCS were further extended by Roid and Fitts in preparation of the 1988 revised manual.

Content validity of the TSCS has also been well-documented. The original self-descriptive items of the TSCS positive subscale were derived from written self-descriptions of patients and nonpatients from the works of Taylor (1953), Balester (1956), and Engel (1956). After editing, the three internal, five external dimension matrix was designed and seven clinical psychologists were employed as judges to review proposed items. Ninety items met with perfect agreement among the judges and were established for the positive subscale (Roid & Fitts, 1988).

Self-Criticism Subscale

The self-criticism subscale was established adopting ten items of the L scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) by Hathaway and McKinley (1942) for the purpose of determining validity of the individual examinee's responses. As described by Roid and Fitts (1988), the ten items

are all mildly derogatory statements or 'common frailties' most people would admit to when responding candidly. An individual who denies most of these statements (i.e., obtains a low score) is being defensive and is making a deliberate effort to present a favorable picture of himself or herself. A low score suggests the probability that the other TSCS scores are artificially elevated by this defensiveness. A high score, on the other hand, generally indicates a normal, healthy openness and capacity for self-criticism. An extremely high score (above 99th percentile) indicates that the individual may be lacking in defenses and may, in fact, be pathologically undefended (p. 3).

Positive Subscale

The positive subscale consists of 90 items equally divided between positive and negative items. It provides the overall level of self-esteem, with high scores designating persons who, like themselves, feel they are of value and worth and have confidence. Low scores indicate doubt about self-worth, with subjects being anxious, depressed, unhappy and lacking in confidence. The standardization group from which norms were developed was a sample of 626 persons, aged 12-68, with equal numbers of

both sexes, representing a broad range of socioeconomic, intellectual and ethnic groupings. Test-retest reliabilities over a two week period for the subscales on the counseling form ranged from 0.75 for Self Criticism to 0.93 for the total Positive subscale with subelements of the latter running from 0.80 to 0.90 (Roid and Fitts, 1988).

The 90 self-descriptive items in the positive subscale reflect both internal and external dimensions of the respondent's self-concept. These internal and external dimensions are arranged in a matrix of rows and columns for scoring purposes. The three rows depict the internal factors of identity, self-satisfaction, and behavior. The five columns depict the external factors of physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, and social self.

For the purposes of this study, the self-criticism scale was examined to affirm internal validity of respondents' answers and the positive subscale was analyzed to determine the effect of the art education class on self-concept. Three areas of the positive subscale were examined: (1) the total score to determine acceptance or rejection of the study's hypothesis, (2) global internal and external dimensions of self-concept, and (3) the eight individual factors of self-concept as described below.

According to Roid and Fitts (1988, p. 3) the positive subscale total score and individual self-concept factors are described as follows:

Total score. The total score is the single most important score on the TSCS. It reflects the overall level of self-concept. An individual with a high Total Score tends to like himself or herself, feels that he or she is a person of value and worth, has self-confidence, and acts accordingly. An individual with a low Total Score is doubtful about his or her own worth, sees himself or herself as undesirable, often feels anxious, depressed, and unhappy, and has little self-confidence.

Identity. Identity items are the 'what I am' items whereby the individual describes his or her basic identity, as self-perceived.

Self-Satisfaction. This score is derived from those items on which the individual describes how satisfied he or she feels with the perceived self-image. In general, this score reflects the level of self-acceptance.

Behavior. This score is calculated from those items that express 'what I do' or 'the way I act.' This score measures the individual's perception of his or her own behavior or the way he or she functions.

Physical Self. This score presents the individual's view of his or her own body, state of health, physical appearance, skills, and sexuality.

Moral-Ethical Self. This score describes the self from a moral-ethical frame of reference - examining moral worth, relationship with God, feelings of being a 'good' or 'bad' person, and satisfaction with one's religion or lack of it.

Personal Self. This score reflects the individual's sense of personal worth, feeling of adequacy as a person, and self-evaluation of the personality apart from the body or relationship to others.

Family Self. This score reflects the individual's feelings of adequacy, worth, and value as a family member. It refers to the individual's perception of self in relation to his or her immediate circle of associates.

Social Self. This score is another 'self as perceived in relation to others' category but it defines 'others' in a more general way by reflecting the person's sense of adequacy and worth in social interaction with other people in general.

Methodology

Individual gain scores from pretest TSCS Total Score to posttest TSCS Total Score were calculated for each student in both the experimental and control groups of the study. Pooled t distributions were examined. The pre-established alpha level of .05 was utilized to determine significance of the findings for hypothesis acceptance or rejection. This alpha level was appropriate for the type of study and sample size (Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs, 1988). Self-criticism scores were examined to confirm internal validity of responses and pooled t distributions were done to determine variability between the groups.

Individual gain scores were further calculated for the global internal and external dimensions and for each of the eight individual factors of self-concept. Pooled t distributions were examined comparing variance and gain scores in each category between experimental and control groups.

Setting

The study took place in a community college located in a rural, northwestern California coastal community. The 9,500 person student body was composed of approximately

4,100 full-time student equivalencies (the majority of students attend on a part-time basis). The average age of the student body at the college is 34 and many students are commuter students, as the college and its extensions are placed conveniently over a 5,500 square mile district territory.

The College's DSP&S is a comprehensive program and it has been in existence for ten years. It has approximately 1,300 disabled adult students in adaptive physical education, learning disabilities, speech and language, basic life skills, vocational education, and computer programs. Although the main focus of DSP&S is to provide direct instructional programs taught by instructors trained specifically to work with disabled adults, the DSP&S also utilizes regular education instructors in teaching specialized courses such as art. In addition, the program provides support services which permit students to be mainstreamed into regular college classes with the aid of notetakers, tutors, and special equipment (e.g. tape recorders). Together, the special class programs and support services provide a strong foundation for disabled students who want to further their education in regular classes at the college (mainstreamed).

Due to the nature of this population, and as required by state mandate, an assessment center has been developed

whereby each student takes a series of aptitude and assessment tests in order to establish an individualized educational plan (IEP). Pretests and posttests for the study were administered in this setting.

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of 30 individuals chosen by random drawing without replacement from 250 disabled adult student volunteers from the college's DSP&S population. The experimental and control groups each contained 15 students. Sample size was restricted to 15 of necessity due to classroom facilities. Other regularly scheduled handicapped-accessible classes at the college are also limited to this number due to space and availability of special equipment. The random sample included individuals who had disabilities in the areas of developmental, learning and physical disabilities. Each individual was a part of the college's DSP&S and, as such, was identified through the process designated by the California Community Colleges DSP&S division (Title V). All participants had IEPs as required by state law Title V (1989). Table 1 delineates demographic data on the sample.

Table 1

Summary of Sample Demographic Data (N=30)

	<u>Experimental</u>	<u>Control</u>
Gender:		
Male	7	9
Female	8	6
Age:		
15-24	4	1
25-34	3	4
35-44	2	6
45-54	2	4
55-above	4	0
Ethnicity:		
Asian	0	0
Black	0	0
Hispanic	0	0
White	14	14
Other	1	1
Disability:		
Learning Disability	3	9
Developmental Disability	8	1
Physical Disability	4	5

Data Collection

Pretest data collection was obtained during the first week of classes along with other data required by the California Community College DSP&S. Individual consent forms (Appendix A) were obtained during the week prior to the beginning of college classes via the interview process by the Special Education Advisor, who is responsible for maintaining all required documentation and records in the DSP&S office. At this time, each student was informed about research rights, freedom to decline, and a description of how the TSCS would be administered. Demographic data, including age, gender, ethnicity, and disability was gathered via a data collection sheet (Appendix B) to preserve anonymity. Table 1 delineates this information.

Any of the students who wanted their legal guardian, agency advocate, or parent or spouse present were allowed to do so. Posttest data collection was secured in the same way by the special education advisor.

All data collection was done on a one-to-one basis in private rooms designed for interviewing and testing purposes. It has been the policy of DSP&S for the past ten years to not have a waiting room situated where students can be seen who are undergoing tests, assessments or interviews. Privacy of the student is of the utmost importance in the

philosophy of the DSP&S, and the same process which has been used successfully for the past ten years was utilized for this study.

Since the college's DSP&S has a long history of programs and services for disabled students, necessary expertise in dealing with conflicts and problems has been the rule and not the exception. All students in the experimental and control groups had knowledge of resource individuals who were available if they had concerns or questions about any aspect of the study. In addition, each student had a completed IEP which showed in detail the health history, educational goals and objectives, and any possible problems which might be encountered. All DSP&S staff members involved in the study knew their students thoroughly, including type and extent of disabilities and precautions necessary to handle any unforeseen difficulties or emergencies.

The DSP&S has a full time counselor available from the counseling division who has had training in working with disabled adults and has experience in helping both the DSP&S staff and students with concerns. The special education advisor and DSP&S director monitored the art education class through observation and by meeting frequently with instructors and aides on an individual basis. Monthly meetings were held in which the DSP&S staff met to discuss

individual students, their progress or lack of progress, and ways to improve instruction and programming. Due to the fact that all of the students in the study were enrolled at the college in special classes (other than the art education class) this process insured that the students in the control group would receive the same type of DSP&S support as those in the experimental group.

One possible minimal risk for study participants was the time necessary for completion of the TSCS survey. Fatigue may have been a factor and this factor was taken into account when necessary by administering the test in three parts as outlined in the TSCS protocols. No other physiological, physical, psychological, or social risks were noted by the DSP&S staff involved with the study.

Protection of Rights

Prior to the administration of both the pretest and posttests, individuals were informed by the special education advisor as to their rights regarding the experiment both verbally and in writing (Appendix A). Each testing session was conducted by the special education advisor, who was knowledgeable of TSCS administration procedures and any adjustments needed by disabled students to assist with marking of forms, etc. In addition, each

participant was informed that he/she could have a parent, legal guardian, or local agency advocate (e.g. a counselor from the Northcoast Regional Center) present. Each individual was also informed that he/she had the right to withdraw from the experiment at any time and could drop the art class without penalty. (In the course of the semester, one student did withdraw from the experimental group due to family problems. However, this did not affect results of the study in that the sample size was still large enough to insure validity.) Signed and witnessed consent forms were completed by each participant and are on file in the office of the DSP&S director.

Data analysis, interpretation, and dissemination was done on group data, preserving anonymity through the use of code numbers. All information, raw data, consents and code numbers were locked in the DSP&S Director's office and available only to her.

Protection of rights was also reviewed by this study's dissertation committee (Appendix C) and the University's Committee on Protection of Human Subjects (Appendix D). Protection of human rights for the disabled adult student subjects of this study was thereby guaranteed.

Assumptions and Limitations

Four assumptions were made concerning the study. It was assumed that:

1. Documentation of criteria justifying inclusion of the target population was complete and accurate.

2. The curriculum was suitable to meet the diversity of the participants within the disabled adult sample.

*3. Physical disabilities of participants did not cause incorrect marking of TSCS.

*4. Students in the experimental group attended the majority of classes and actively participated.

(* Attendance and correct marking of the TSCS forms were verified by the special education advisor.)

One limitation that may have affected the study was teacher-student interactive process. This may have been altered by teacher attitudes and values regarding instruction to disabled versus nondisabled students.

Summary

An experimental, pretest-posttest control group design was utilized to carry out this study. A college art class served as the treatment to determine its ability to improve self-concept of disabled adults in a community setting.

A random sample of 30 participants was identified and demographic data was obtained. Participants were duly informed of their rights and anonymity was maintained throughout the study. Four assumptions and one limitation for the study were identified.

The instrument used for hypothesis testing was the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS). Gains in the TSCS Total Score were analyzed via t-test comparing experimental and control groups. The pre-established alpha level of .05 was utilized to assess significance of the results for the hypothesis acceptance or rejection. Gains in the internal and external dimension global scores and the eight individual self-concept factor scores were also analyzed via t-test to give support to the hypotheses tested.

CHAPTER 4

Research Findings

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of art education on the self-concept of disabled adult students in a community college setting. The research question addressed was: "Can an art education class improve self-concept in disabled adult students?" A random (non-replacement) sample of 30 adult students (15 experimental, 15 control), from a population of 250 adults with developmental, physical, and/or learning disabilities was selected for the study. A pretest-posttest, experimental, control group design was utilized. The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) was chosen as the instrument for measuring the change in self-concept among study participants. Pooled t-tests of individual gain scores were compared between the experimental and control groups to determine hypothesis acceptance or rejection at the a priori alpha level of .05.

Results of the Experimental Process

Sampling

Demographic data of the sample was presented in Chapter Three (see Table 1). One participant of the experimental group dropped out of the study due to family constraints. The remaining 29 subject sample was adequate to meet the criteria for t-testing (with an alpha level of .05), maintaining the study's power for statistical significance. The experimental group had a mean age of 35.7, and was comprised of 9 males and 5 females, all white. The control group had a mean age of 36, and was comprised of 9 males and 6 females; 14 were white and 1 was of other ethnicity (see Appendix B).

Instrument Administration

As discussed in Chapter Three, the TSCS was chosen as the instrument for the study. The anticipated possible risk to participants regarding fatigue in taking the TSCS was negated by the fact that the longest time necessary to take the TSCS was 65 minutes (four participants). The remainder of the participants took less time. Additionally, all scoring sheets were examined by the Special Education Advisor to ensure that accuracy and completeness was not impacted by participants' disabilities. Instrument

administration was carried out, without incident, as described in Chapter Three.

Internal Validity

The self-criticism subscale, designed to determine validity of individual participants' responses, was examined. Only four of the 28 experimental group pretests and posttests and three of the 30 control group pretests and posttests reveal results which should be used with caution, according to TSCS, if test results are used for clinical counseling of these individuals. Internal validity of participants' responses for the purpose of this study was confirmed by the TSCS self-criticism subscale results.

As shown in Tables 2 and 3, analysis of the self-criticism subscale pretest scores revealed a mean score of 33.0 for the experimental group and 33.2 for the control group. Analysis of the self-criticism subscale posttest scores revealed a mean score of 35.2 for the experimental group and 32.3 for the control group.

Table 2

Analysis of Self-Criticism Subscale Pretest Scores

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate			
						2-tail Prob.	t Value	df	2-tail Prob.	t Value	df	2-tail Prob.
Experimental	14	33.000	8.503	2.273	1.40	.539	-.07	27	.942	-.07	23.10	.942
Control	15	33.200	5.943	1.534								

p = .05

Table 3

Analysis of Self-Criticism Subscale Posttest Scores

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Pooled Variance Estimate		Separate Variance Estimate				
						Prob.	t Value	t Value	df	2-tail Prob.		
Experimental	14	35.2143	6.941	1.855	2.05	.197	1.21	27	.237	1.20	25.56	.240
Control	15	32.3333	5.864	1.514								

p = .05

The results of the t-tests comparing the experimental and control groups on both pretest and posttest revealed F values of 1.40 (two-tailed probability .539) and 2.05 (two-tailed probability .197) respectively. There was no statistically significant difference between the two groups on the self-criticism subscales on either pretest or posttest. Therefore, the internal validity of respondents' answering of TSCS self-descriptive items of self-concept was confirmed, with little variance between the experimental and control groups as demonstrated by the self-criticism subscale. Data analysis of the self-descriptive items of self-concept in the positive subscale of the TSCS of study participants is covered in the next section.

Data Analysis

Data analysis of the positive subscale was conducted in three steps. Step one determined the hypothesis acceptance or rejection by comparing the gain scores from pretest to posttest on the TSCS Total Self-Concept score, via t-test, between the experimental and control groups. The TSCS Total Self Concept Score is derived from a matrix where three Rows delineate the internal dimension factors of self-concept and five Columns delineate the external dimension factors of self-concept. Participant responses to the 90 self-

descriptive items on the positive subscale of the TSCS are weight scored and entered onto the matrix in the appropriate Row and Column representing the individual internal and external self-concept factors. The structure of the matrix is depicted in Figure 2. The matrix provided the researcher with the ability to analyze not only the Total Self-Concept Score but also scores for the global internal and external dimensions and the eight individual self-concept factor scores. These generated, respectively, data for the second and third steps of analysis.

Step Two analyzed the internal dimension (combination of three Rows) and external dimension (combination of five Columns) of the TSCS by comparing gain scores from pretest to posttest, via pooled t-test, between the experimental and control groups. This provided a global assessment of self-concept in each of the two dimensions (internal and external), comparing the experimental and control groups.

Step Three examined individual scores for the individual internal dimension factors of identity, self-satisfaction, and behavior, and the individual external dimension factors of physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, and social self as described in Chapter Three. Gain scores from pretest to posttest for individual TSCS internal and external dimension self-concept

Figure 2

Structure of the TSCS Matrix

<i>External Dimension Factors</i>						
<i>Internal Dimension Factors</i>	Physical Self	Moral-Ethical Self	Personal Self	Family Self	Social Self	Totals
Identity						
Self-Satisfaction						
Behavior						
<i>Totals</i>						

factors were compared via t-test between the experimental and control groups. This provided additional information on the success and lack of success of the art course in improving self-concept in the eight discrete sub-components of self-concept as described by Roid and Fitts (1988).

It is also noted that in all three steps, as is shown in Table 4, there was no statistically significant difference in the variances between the experimental and control groups (at the .05 alpha level). Pooled variance estimates among t-tests in all three steps revealed t values ranging from -1.37 to 1.46 with two-tailed probabilities ranging from .156 to .686.

Table 4

Pooled Variance Estimates Among Three Steps of Data Analysis

	<u>Area Analysis</u>	<u>t Value</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>Prob.</u>
<u>Step One</u>	Total Score	.99	27	.330
	Internal	.78	85	.438
<u>Step Two</u>	Dimension			
	External	.64	143	.521
	Dimension			
	Identity	-1.37	27	.183
	Self-Satisfaction	1.46	27	.156
	Behavior	.94	27	.355
<u>Step Three</u>	Physical Self	.89	27	.381
	Moral-Ethical Self	1.13	27	.269
	Personal Self	.98	27	.337
	Family Self	.41	27	.686
	Social Self	-.63	27	.534

Step One: Total Self-Concept Score

Individual TSCS Total Self-Concept gain scores from pretest to posttest were computed and a pooled t-test was done comparing the experimental and control groups. As shown in Table 5, the mean gain in the experimental group greatly exceeded that of the control group. The F value of 4.65 yielded a two-tailed probability of .007 which was well below the a priori alpha level of .05 for null hypothesis rejection.

The null hypothesis was therefore rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted. Study results revealed that the art education class improved self-concept in the disabled adult student population. Results were statistically significant at the .05 level.

Table 5

Analysis of TSCS Total Self-Concept Gain Scores

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Prob.
Experimental	14	9.4286	31.651	8.459	4.65	.007
Control	15	.4467	14.672	3.788		

p = .05

Step Two: Global Internal and External Dimensions

The second step of analysis was the examination of global self-concept in the internal and external dimensions. The internal dimension of self-concept consists of those self-descriptive items in which the individuals' perceptions of their inner selves is assessed in the three areas of identity, self-satisfaction, and behavior. The external dimension of self-concept consists of those self-descriptive items in which the individuals' perceptions of how they relate to the environment and others in the world around them is assessed, including the five areas of physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, and social self.

Individual gain scores in each of the three internal dimension factors were added together for each subject in the study to reveal a net gain (or loss) in the global internal dimension. These global internal dimension gain scores were compared between the experimental and control groups via t-test. A like process was carried out for the five external dimension gain scores. Results of the t-tests in the global internal and external dimensions are shown in Tables 6 and 7 respectively.

Table 6

Analysis of TSCS Global Internal Dimension

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Prob.
Experimental	14	9.500	32.954	8.807	8.15	.000
Control	15	4.600	11.544	2.981		

p = .05

Table 7

Analysis of TSCS Global External Dimension

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Prob.
Experimental	14	8.6429	32.167	8.597	7.20	.001
Control	15	4.933	11.991	3.096		

p = .05

T-test results in both the global internal and external dimensions showed F values of 8.15 (two-tailed probability of .000) and 7.20 (two-tailed probability of .001) respectively. These findings were in concurrence with the accepted alternate hypothesis - the art education class greatly improved the global internal and external dimensions of self-concept in the study's disabled adult students.

Step Three: Individual Self-Concept Factor

Individual TSCS self-concept factor gain scores from pretest to posttest were computed during the third step of data analysis. Pooled t-tests were done comparing the experimental and control groups in each of the eight individual factors. Internal self-concept factors were analyzed first.

Identity. As shown in Table 8, the internal self-concept factor of identity improved in the control group but went down in the experimental group. However, this difference was not statistically significant.

Table 8

Analysis of TSCS Identity Gain Scores

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Prob.
Experimental	14	-1.6429	9.652	2.580	1.78	.298
Control	15	2.6667	7.237	1.869		

p = .05

Self-satisfaction and behavior. The other two internal self-concept factors of self-satisfaction and behavior, however, showed mean gains in favor of the experimental group that greatly exceeded those of the control group. F values of 31.27 (two-tailed probability .000) and 7.35 (two-tailed probability .001) in self-satisfaction and behavior, respectively, represented statistically significant gains in these two internal self-concept factors in disabled adult students who took the art education class. Tables 9 and 10 present these results.

Table 9

Analysis of TSCS Self-Satisfaction Gain Scores

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Prob.
Experimental	14	7.0000	15.675	4.189	31.27	.000
Control	15	1.0000	2.803	.724		

p = .05

Table 10

Analysis of TSCS Behavior Gain Scores

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Prob.
Experimental	14	4.1429	12.359	3.303	7.35	.001
Control	15	.9333	4.559	1.177		

p = .05

External self-concept factors were also analyzed, via pooled t-tests, comparing the experimental and control groups. Results of t-tests for the five external self-concept factors of physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, and social self are presented in Tables 11-15. All of the external self-concept factors with the exception of social self showed statistically significant (at the .05 alpha level) gain scores in the experimental group over the control group.

Physical self and moral-ethical self. The external factors of physical self and moral-ethical self showed very high F values of 19.83 (.000 two-tailed probability) and 22.00 (.000 two-tailed probability) respectively (see Tables 11 and 12). Worth noting was the finding that the moral-ethical self-concept factor mean in the control group actually dropped during the study.

Table 11

Analysis of TSCS Physical Self Gain Scores

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Prob.
Experimental	14	3.0714	10.484	2.802	19.83	.000
Control	15	.6000	2.354	.608		

p = .05

Table 12

Analysis of TSCS Moral-Ethical Self Gain Scores

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Prob.
Experimental	14	2.0714	9.849	2.632	22.00	.000
Control	15	-.8667	2.100	.542		

p = .05

Personal self and family self. Personal self and family self, also statistically significant (at the .05 alpha level), showed somewhat lower F values of 3.24 (.037 two-tailed probability) and .37 (.032 two-tailed probability) respectively (see Tables 13 and 14).

Table 13

Analysis of TSCS Personal Self Gain Scores

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Prob.
Experimental	14	4.7857	7.287	1.948	3.24	.037
Control	15	2.6667	4.047	1.045		

p = .05

Table 14

Analysis of TSCS Family Self Gain Scores

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Prob.
Experimental	14	1.3571	8.454	2.260	3.37	.032
Control	15	.3333	4.608	1.190		

p = .05

Social self. The external self-concept factor of social self dropped in both the experimental and control groups. The lowered mean in the experimental group exceeded that of the control group and was statistically significant (see Table 15). This was the only significant statistical comparison in the study that favored the control group.

Table 15

Analysis of TSCS Social Self Gain Scores

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Prob.
Experimental	14	-1.9286	10.695	2.858	15.74	.000
Control	15	-.1333	2.696	.696		

p = .05

Overall, two of the three internal and four of the five external factors of self-concept showed statistically significant (at the .05 alpha level) gains in which the experimental group scored significantly better when compared to the control group. This was congruent with and in support of the accepted alternative hypothesis - the art education class improved all of the individual internal and external factors of self-concept, with the exception of identity and social self, in the disabled adult students.

Summary

The experimental process, including random sampling procedures and instrument administration was conducted without incident. Random sampling resulted in experimental and control groups of similar size, mean age, gender make-up, and ethnicity with only disability distribution differing between the groups. Only one participant was lost from the sample. The only anticipated risk to participants - that of fatigue in taking the TSCS - was negated in that the longest time for taking the test was 65 minutes.

Internal validity of respondents' marking of self-descriptive items was assured by overall results of the self-criticism subscale. T-tests comparing the experimental and control groups on the pretest and posttest demonstrated no statistically significant difference between the groups in internal validity of responses.

The three step analysis of results of the TSCS instrument (pretests and posttests) examined (1) the total self-concept, (2) global internal and external dimensions of self-concept, and (3) individual internal and external factors of self-concept. The null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted in Step One when the TSCS Total Score for self-concept showed a statistically significant (at the .05 alpha level) difference in gain scores between the experimental and control groups on t-test

analysis. Both global dimensions (internal and external) of self-concept (Step Two) and six of the eight individual factors of self-concept (Step Three) also were statistically significant (at the .05 level) in supporting acceptance of the alternative hypothesis. The only statistical comparison that favored the control group was the individual factor of social self.

The art education class improved self-concept in the disabled student population. Conclusions, implications, and recommendations for further study based on this study's research findings are described in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of art education on the self-concept of disabled adult students in a community college setting. An experimental, pretest-posttest control group design was utilized to carry out the study. The treatment provided was a college art class which utilized painting, clay sculpturing, and drawing. ***It was concluded that the null hypothesis tested - art education has no effect on self-concept in disabled students - was rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis: art education will improve self-concept in disabled adult students.***

A random sample of 30 participants was selected; control and experimental groups were identified. All participants were provided with detailed descriptions of their rights and responsibilities and anonymity was maintained throughout the study. The instrument used for hypothesis testing was the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS). T-tests were done on gain scores comparing pretests

and posttests of the two groups. The level of significance for hypothesis acceptance was pre-established at the alpha .05 level. Significance of gain scores in the TSCS Total Score was used for hypothesis testing. In addition, global internal and external dimensions of self-concept and individual self-concept factors were examined to give support to the study's results.

Gains in the Total Score were statistically significant in favor of the experimental group. The null hypothesis was rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis. Gains in internal and external dimension global scores and individual self-concept factor scores were analyzed, and all but two of the individual factors were statistically significant at the .05 alpha level in favor of the experimental group. The *identity* factor was not statistically significant but showed a trend in favor of the control group. The *social self* factor was statistically significant in favor of the control group. This was the only significant statistical comparison which favored the control group. Additional information as to why participants did not show significant improvement in these two areas will be discussed later in this chapter.

An extensive review of the literature pertaining to self-concept yielded a vast amount of information. Although there is not consensus in the field as to what self-concept is and how it is improved or impaired, it was evident from

the literature that all individuals develop a continuous, ever changing concept of self throughout life and, as such, self-concept remains dynamic. Since the concept of self is a dynamic phenomenon, it is not easily measured and the debate over whether or not it can be measured with any degree of certainty or prediction is ongoing.

Included in the review of the literature was overwhelming evidence to support the fact that self-concept is most definitely negatively impacted in the disabled population. In all the studies done on disabled children and adolescents, it was shown that in most cases, self-concept is impaired and in some instances, it has been so negatively impacted that self-concept as defined in this study is non-existent.

It is noted that literature review yielded strong support in the utilization of art for improving self-concept in disabled children and adolescents. It did not, however, provide support that art education was important for improving self-concept in disabled adults.

Summary of Literature Review Findings

The literature review led to some interesting conclusions. As documented in Chapter Two, it was noted that self-concept:

1. is both difficult to define and difficult to measure;
2. is a part of all individuals and is developed throughout life;
3. is not static, but rather it is dynamic in nature and can change in an individual at any given time depending on the situation;
4. is identified as being lower in the disabled than in the nondisabled population;
5. is not only an important construct for all individuals at all ages, but is something which must be considered to be of major importance in disabled adults;
6. in the disabled adult population has not been researched to any great degree when compared to the nondisabled population;
7. has been shown to be improved through art education in children and adolescents who are disabled and nondisabled, but its use in the disabled adult population has just begun to be examined; and
8. is an issue of importance to be addressed by educational leaders in order to meet individual wants of all persons (including the disabled) and the collective needs of society.

Discussion of Research Findings

T-tests comparing gain scores of the experimental and control groups revealed that the total score, internal and external dimension global scores and all but two of the eight components which measured self-concept on the TSCS were statistically significant in favor of the experimental group at the .05 alpha level. Identity was not statistically significant but did show a trend in favor of the control group. Social self was statistically significant in favor of the control group.

Total Score

T-test analysis of gains in the TSCS total score, from pretest to posttest, comparing the experimental and control groups, showed statistical significance (at the .05 alpha level) favoring the experimental group. The null hypothesis was rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis. The art education class *did* improve self-concept in disabled adult students at the study site.

These research findings make a significant contribution to the literature, which is severely lacking in studies related to treatment methodologies for improving self-concept in disabled adults. Although the research findings of the current study are only generalizable to similar

populations in similar settings, the study provides a model which can be replicated in differing settings and populations.

As described by Roid & Fitts (1988), "the total score is the single most important score on the TSCS. It reflects the overall level of self-esteem. An individual with a high Total Score tends to like himself or herself, feels that he or she is a person of value and worth, has self-confidence, and acts accordingly" (p. 3).

Research studies have been conducted that provide construct-relevant evidence for the validity of the TSCS as a measure of the global construct of self-concept (Gable, La Salle & Cook, 1973; Pound, Hansen, & Putnam, 1977; Rentz & White, 1967). The "general factor theory" - that self-concept is so dominated by a single factor that a generalized self-concept construct provides the best match to the data available - has also been supported by Coopersmith (1967), Marx and Winne (1978).

Internal and External Dimensions

Statistically significant results (at the .05 alpha level), in favor of the experimental group, were obtained on the analyses of both the internal and external dimension global scores. This was in support of the rejected null hypothesis and accepted alternative hypothesis.

Separate analyses of these two dimensions from the TSCS matrix (refer to Figure 2) were done in order to determine if there was a difference between the experimental and control groups in subjects' internal and external frames of reference of self-concept.

The *internal dimension* is composed of the individual self-concept factors of identity, self-satisfaction, and behavior. Responses to the positive subscale self-descriptive items reveal the subjects' perception of inner self, i.e. "what I am," "how satisfied I am with myself," and "what I do."

The *external dimension* is comprised of the individual self-concept factors that describe one's physical, moral-ethical, personal, family, and social self. Responses to the positive subscale self-descriptive items reveal the subject's view of his or her personality, worth, sense of adequacy, values, and interactions with family, close friends, and others.

The need for a positive internal concept of self in order to maintain a positive overall self-concept has been noted by many authors (Maslow, 1954; Rogers, 1951; Wiener & Kukla, 1970). Equally important is the complementary need for a positive external frame of reference (Coopersmith, 1967; Jackson, 1984; Kelley, 1962; Neugarten, 1969; Osborne, 1986; Rosenberg, 1985; Wylie, 1961). Study results showed

that both the internal and external self-concept dimensions of experimental subjects were significantly improved by the art education class.

Self-Satisfaction and Behavior

According to the TSCS, the internal dimension comprises three individual factors of self-concept: (a) identity, (b) self-satisfaction, and (c) behavior. T-test analysis of gain scores in the areas of self-satisfaction and behavior, from pretest to posttest, comparing the experimental groups, showed statistical significance (at the .05 alpha level) favoring the experimental group. The third self-concept factor - identity - was not statistically significant but did show a trend favoring the control group. The identity factor will be discussed later in this chapter.

Self-satisfaction self-descriptive items reveal the respondent's level of self-acceptance, answering the question, "How do I feel about myself?" Sample self-satisfaction positive and negative self-descriptive items on the TSCS included: (a) " I like my looks just the way they are," (b) "I shouldn't tell so many lies," (c) "I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do," (d) "I should trust my family more," and (e) "I am satisfied with the way I treat other people."

Behavior self-descriptive items reveal the respondents' perceptions of the way they function and their behaviors, answering the questions, "What do I do?" and "How do I act?" Sample self-satisfaction positive and negative self-descriptor items on the TSCS included: (a) "I often act like I am 'all thumbs,'" (b) "I do things without thinking about them first," (c) "I take a real interest in my family," (d) "I get along well with other people," and (e) "I have trouble doing things that are right."

Study results revealed that experimental subjects - i.e. those who participated in the art education class - did, in fact, significantly increase their self-concept in the individual factors of self-satisfaction and behavior (see Tables 9 and 10). This was consistent with literature reviewed on the development of self-concept. Osborne (1986) stressed the need for achievement and approval in order for one to prove to oneself that he/she is a worthwhile person. The art class provided not only an environment where achievement, in the form of completed art projects, could take place but also one in which increasing approval from peers was obtained. This peer approval and supportive environment is evident in the informal data presented later in this chapter (interview with staff and experimental group students).

Physical, Moral-Ethical, Personal, and Family Self

The external dimension of self-concept, in the TSCS, comprises five individual factors: (a) physical self, (b) moral-ethical self, (c) personal self, (d) family self, and (e) social self. T-test analysis of gain scores in the first four factors (Tables 11 and 14) from pretest to posttest, comparing the experimental and control groups, showed statistical significance (at the .05 alpha level) favoring the experimental group. The last factor - social self - was statistically significant in favor of the control group (see Table 15). This was the only statistical comparison in the study that was significant in favor of the control group.

Physical Self. The external factor of physical self is the individual's view of body, appearance, health, skills, and sexuality (Roid & Fitts, 1988). TSCS positive and negative self-descriptive items included such statements as (a) "I am an attractive person," (b) "I like to look nice and neat all the time," (c) "I am neither too fat nor too thin," (d) "I should have more sex appeal," (e) "I take good care of myself physically," (f) "I feel good most of the time."

A number of research studies have documented the relationship between individuals' satisfaction with their physical appearance and their self-concepts as a whole

(Secord & Jourard, 1953; Rosen & Ross, 1968; Lerner, Karabenick, & Stuart, 1973). Baer (1985) concurred in that physical appearance can be accommodated for and changed through creative expression such as visualization through drawing. It is obvious that the art class provided the opportunity for the students to mix colors, explore shape and form, and develop self-confidence to be creative. As the students in the art class became more involved with creating art, their environment of physical self was expanded. This allowed for integration of physical self, in direct relationship to the creativity being expressed. The end result was that students in the art class grew in knowing and realizing how their physical self related to the whole of the environment. Self-concept of physical self thereby continued to improve throughout the course of the semester.

Moral-ethical self. The external factor of moral-ethical self is the individual's perception of moral worth, relationship to God, feelings of being a "good" or "bad" person, and satisfaction with one's religion or lack of it (Roid and Fitts, 1988). TSCS positive and negative self-descriptive items included such statements as: (a) "I am an honest person," (b) "I am a morally weak person," (c) "I ought to go to church more," (d) "I wish I could be more

trustworthy," (e) "I try to change when I know I'm doing things that are wrong," (f) "I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead."

Erickson (1988) stated that through the use of art (painting, clay, etc.) individuals will become "more grounded, more centered in what we truly know, in that innermost core of our being" (p. 36). Dewey (1934) showed that "the moral function of art itself is to remove prejudice, do away with the scales that keep the eye from seeing, tear away the veils due to want and custom, perfect the power to perceive" (p. 325). Eisner (1972b) believed that art provides the opportunity for individuals to not only identify their most cherished values, but also allows for these values to become a part of the individual.

The art class provided the necessary forum for individuals to re-examine self, explore values, and establish inner-perceptions of moral worth. It enabled the students to (a) examine beliefs based on "why they believed the way they did," (b) question those beliefs from a moral-ethical frame, and (c) identify the function and role of moral worth in their lives.

Personal self. The external factor of personal self is the individual's sense of self-worth, feeling of adequacy, and self-evaluation of personality (Roid and Fitts, 1988).

TSCS positive and negative self-descriptive items included many affective-laden and self-deprecating statements, such as: (a) "I am a nobody," (b) "I have a lot of self-control," (c) "I am satisfied to be just what I am," (d) "I am as smart as I want to be," (e) "I can always take care of myself in any situation," and (f) "I change my mind a lot."

It was identified by Langer (1957) that the physical self is directly linked to the cognitive value art provides in that insight into self occurs and all areas of life and mind become alive through artistic imagination. Not only does art provide the opportunity for individuals to come to know self, it also allows for the formation of self as it pertains to the unknown (Brittain, 1979; Erickson, 1988).

Sherrill (1979b) further stated that

research, creativity, and art are extricably linked in the self-actualizing person. All three endeavors seem to emanate from a strong inner drive to do and to be - to discover, explore, question, play with alternatives, synthesize in new and different ways, innovate, change and originate (p. 191).

The students in the art class showed that their sense of self-worth and feeling of adequacy increased throughout the course of the semester. These two areas were demonstrated by the fact that as the class progressed, the quality of art projects not only improved, but the

relationship between personal self and the type of art projects being produced improved. All of the students completed projects of which they felt proud and with which they felt comfortable, based on their sense of worth, as it related to their art. It was apparent that the art show (Appendix E) was important and that the students looked forward to displaying their works. This sense of adequacy and confidence is directly related to the sense of personal self which grew and became established throughout the course of the semester.

Family self. The external factor of family self is the individual's feelings of adequacy, worth, and value as a family member and perception of self in relation to his/her immediate circle of associates (Roid and Fitts, 1988). TSCS positive and negative self-descriptive items included such statements as: (a) "My friends have no confidence in me," (b) "I am an important person to my friends and family," (c) "I am satisfied with my family relationships," (d) "I am too sensitive to things my family says," (e) "I try to play fair with my friends and family," and (f) "I do my share of work at home."

Conant (1964) noted that disabled children, adolescents, and, to some degree, adults can derive not only personal fulfillment but also conceptual enrichment from

involvement in art. Not only can such individuals identify and deal with emotions but, also, relationships with family and friends can be improved. It is quite obvious that the art class provided the necessary elements for the students to partake in communicating with parents and friends about their art projects. It also enabled the students to have a basis for discussion, which involved those individuals who were in the immediate circle of friends and family.

The art education class allowed for a continuous spectrum of thoughts and ideas to be shared by both the students in the class and their significant others. In so doing, the perception of self and how self interacts with others in the family was improved.

Identity

As previously reported, although the internal dimension factor of identity was not statistically significant, it did show a trend in favor of the control group (refer to Table 8). According to the TSCS, identity items "are the 'what I am' items whereby the individual describes his or her basic identity, as self-perceived" (Roid & Fitts, 1988, p. 3). An internal dimension factor of self-concept is being measured here. The TSCS contains a total of 30 positive and negative self-descriptive items dealing with self-identity including such statements as: (a) "I have a healthy body," (b) "I am a

decent sort of person," (c) "I am not loved by my family," (d) "I am a cheerful person," and (e) "I am hard to be friendly with."

It was stated by Atwater (1983) that all individuals are distinguished throughout life by various factors which impact identity (positively and negatively). Such factors include: (a) opportunity of individuals to be free of constraints (family, job, etc.) to acknowledge that they do have a separate, individual identity; (b) understanding that in establishing an identity, individuals must be persistent and committed in that direction, and (c) awareness that individuals who are seeking their own identity will identify both likes and dislikes within themselves and it is up to them to make the appropriate change for the better.

Atwater (1983) further delineates identity in four stages:

1. Identity Achievement Stage. Individuals who are at the level of establishing their own identity have previously encountered the fact that they were having an identity crisis. Therefore, they have established definite commitments which will allow them to continue to make changes within the identity of self. Individuals, who are at this stage, are capable and willing to make some changes despite any and all opposition from their immediate family, friends, or outside influences.

2. Moratorium Stage. Individuals in this stage have attempted to identify who they are but, for one reason or another, they have been delayed in their search. Often times, family and/or friends have inadvertently prevented the opportunity for self-disclosure. Many times, individuals at this stage do not have the power or willingness to continue the search and exhibit a high level of anxiety. This is especially true of those who are in a sheltered or controlled environment, and are dependent on others to lead them through life's struggles, which may at times be intense.

3. Foreclosure Stage. Individuals at this stage of attempting to identify self often make commitments willingly, but are not aware of the energy and problems which will arise in the future. They are vulnerable to both positive and negative responses from their family and close circle of friends. Negative responses to disabled individuals in this stage will be "taken to heart" and will have a great impact negatively on the individual's ability to develop and maintain a positive image of self-identity. Individuals who are disabled will constantly strive to identify who they are but because they are insecure, they cannot maintain it without support from others.

4. Identity Diffusion Stage. This stage is characterized by individuals who, for whatever reason, are

simply not capable of maintaining the search for identity. They tend to be uncertain as to what identity they are seeking, with any disclosure of self having a tendency to be disorganized and confusing.

It was noted by Coopersmith (1967) that as individuals begin to revise or change their self-concept, self-awareness is enhanced and dissatisfaction increased regarding those aspects of self-identity that are disliked. Individuals whose self-concept is evolving must be able to absorb and accept criticism and rejection, especially from those for whom they care and love, if self-identity is to continue to develop.

Rogers (1961) believed that individuals experiencing personal growth have a tendency to alter their self-concept away from agreeing with others or conforming to standards of others and are no longer in the position of pleasing others just for the sake of doing so. The commitment of identity change can only be achieved through self-acceptance, self-trust, and self-direction but these changes may be extremely disruptive and unsettling to the individual making this change. As such, the individual will harbor dissonance regarding self-identity until the transition is complete.

Assumption as to Why Self-Identity Decreased in the Experimental Group. One would expect that as the total self-concept scores of study participants showed gains, so too would their individual factor scores. This, however, was not the case for the identity factor among experimental group subjects. Literature review and personal observations of the author of this study indicate that individuals in the experimental group were perhaps experiencing a new concept of self due to the art education program. In so doing, they were re-establishing or, in some cases, establishing a basis of identification of who and what they were.

This conclusion is based on the fact that disabled individuals (especially those with developmental disabilities) are often in a sheltered environment which is controlled by others. Individuals in the control position in this environment, providing the love and care for the disabled individual, might not be ready for this change in concept of self. As the concept of self changes within the disabled individual so, too, must the acceptance of the disabled person's new identity by those involved change.

Examination of the disability distribution in the sample (refer to Table 1) reveals that the experimental group had a higher number of developmentally disabled adults than did the control group. The developmentally disabled, as compared to other disability populations, often have a

more highly structured, controlled environment during most, if not all, of their lives where development and disclosure of self-identity have not been a high priority. The art education class may have been the first opportunity for many of these individuals to embark on the development and recognition of their own identity.

Social Self

Both the experimental and control groups showed a loss in this factor which was in direct opposition to their other TSCS self-concept scores. T-test comparison of the two groups revealed a statistically significant difference in favor of the control group (refer to Table 15). This was the only statistical comparison in the study which showed significance in favor of the control group, warranting the discussion that follows.

The TSCS identifies social self as another "self as perceived in relation to others" but also defines "others" in a more general way, "reflecting the person's sense of adequacy and worth in social interaction with other people in general" (Roid & Fitts, 1988, p. 3). Social self is an external dimension factor of self-concept which is being measured. The TSCS has a total of eighteen positive and negative self-descriptive items to which the individual responds, including such statements as: (a) "I should be

more polite to others," (b) "I try to understand the other fellow's point," (c) "I find it hard to talk to strangers," (d) "I ought to get along better with other people," (e) "I am as sociable as I want to be," (f) "I see good points in all the people I meet," (g) "I am a friendly person."

Rogers (1961) discussed the fact that most individuals have learned, through relationships with others, how we are expected to behave and react in certain situations. Whenever we are in a position to alter or change our self-concept, our social selves are the most flexible area of self-concept and change more quickly and more readily than other parts of self. This is expanded upon by Livesley & Bromley (1973) and Shantz (1983) in that social self is social understanding of how well one individual understands someone else's point of view or perspective. It consists of being aware of and understanding how the other person feels and identifies with the physical world. Asher (1978) stated that social understanding of self and how it relates to the environment may have an impact on how individuals evaluate themselves.

Assumption as to Why Social Self Decreased in the Experimental Group. As discussed in Chapter Two, the importance of the environment in developing self-concept cannot be overemphasized. Kelley (1962), Neugarten (1969),

and others stressed the importance of social context and the need for interaction with others in order to develop a positive self-concept. As was also discussed previously, social comparison theory posits that one's comparison with others in a given situation where one views others as "better" can have an immediate negative effect on self-concept (Morse & Gergen, 1970). In formulating social comparison theory, Festinger (1954) espoused cognitive dissonance in the individual as critical to the development of self-concept. The individual's comparison of self with others provided the dissonance necessary to come to know, understand, and identify self. Attending college classes (among both control and experimental group subjects) and to a greater extent, participation in the art education class by experimental group subjects quite possibly may have created this dissonance, causing perception of social self to become lower.

Informal Data Review

Throughout the experiment, the researcher met informally with the Director of DSP&S, the art class instructor, and the Special Education Advisor to discuss the study. Comments pertaining to the art class and student participants were noted by the researcher. Upon conclusion

of the experiment and review of the discussion notes, it was decided to include this information in order for readers to become familiar with the flow of the study. Additionally, upon completion of the study, the researcher informally interviewed several of the students from the experimental group to obtain a more personal perspective of their feelings and reactions.

It is stressed that the forementioned interviews were not preplanned as part of the methodology of the study. The information is only intended to assist the reader in gathering a flavor of the human dimension throughout the experiment.

Interviews of Students in the Art Education Class

The narratives that follow are samples representative of feedback from students in the informal interviews done upon conclusion of this study.

1. Describe your circle of friends. Who is your best friend? Who do you spend time with at the college?

- "it is important for me to trust people because that is the hardest thing I have had to learn to do"

- "those people who really understand me...some people can't understand the way I talk"

- "people who are nice to me"

- "friends are people who can be nice to me and not make fun of my not being like them"

2. What do you do right now that you think is good? What do you think your strengths are? What are your weaknesses?

- "I am very good in art now that I have had the opportunity to be in the class"

- "I pay very close attention to people and how they are acting...I think I should try to listen more"

- "I am very good at art, especially painting...I wish I could do sports better"

- "I am good at painting with oil colors...I would like to be able to be better in my job"

- "I like to do pottery now"

3. What are some of the things that you can do, without having to have someone help you? When you need help, do you ask for it? Why and why not?

- "I feel that I can do just about anything without asking for help...when I have to, I go to my mom, sometimes my teacher, sometimes my brother, and sometimes my friends"

- "I can now work independently without having to ask for help all the time...I really try to help myself but when I need it, I can ask my friends"

- "For me it is a lot easier to give help than to ask for it...my disability is an inescapable adjustment to a painful reality"

4. In what social settings do you feel the most comfortable and the "best" about yourself?

- "I feel very comfortable now in one which is artistic or musical"

- "Getting together with friends at school always makes me feel the best, especially now"

- "Parties, dances, movies, bowling, horseback riding and swimming"

- "I don't know...but I think I have changed somewhat"

- "Here at the college"

5. What kind of closeness do you feel you now have with other individuals?

- "I am very happy to be with other people now, when before I didn't want to be"

- "I feel good and I know that it will continue"

- "I liked being able to share my paintings in the art class because my friends liked them and told me"

6. How do you feel about your life at this very moment?

- "I am very happy right now"
- "I think I got the raw end of the deal...health problems all my life"
- "It's ok"
- "I know I can create something now that is different and of value to other people"

7. What are some of the new things you have learned this past semester while attending the college?

- "The number one thing I learned was how to paint and it was wonderful and so rewarding"
- "How to work with clay in the art class"
- "I have learned not to be so critical of others, especially when looking at their art work"
- "Nothing I didn't already know"
- "I learned how to paint...and to ask questions"
- "I learned how to be more sociable with people I didn't know"

8. What new things have you found out about yourself this semester?

- "I have learned how to be more courteous to people and I have seen myself in a different light because of the paintings I did for the art show"

- "Not a thing...well, maybe I did learn about me"

- "I found out about myself and how I feel about things I never even thought of"

- "That I can do a lot of things that I didn't think I could do before"

- "I don't know...not sure...but I can't ignore the fact that I have changed and am different...learned how crappy I am to other people who are not disabled"

- "I don't know what I learned about myself this year...I know my feelings get really dragged down during pressure times...but seem to handle it better now than before...I guess I did learn something about myself...huh?"

- "I learned that I am very good at painting...and that I can have friends who are not disabled too"

- "I learned about art and how to work with other people and to see what they are creating and not be afraid to be different"

- "That I am a happy person"

It is apparent from the many positive answers which were given that change did occur in perception of self. It is also quite apparent that those individuals who were in the art education class were able to express how they felt. They also verbalized how they perceived those around them, both in the art class and in other areas of their lives, differently than before taking the art class. The expression, "I learned a lot about myself this year" was common among the experimental group. It is evident that individuals came to see themselves as different and, in many cases, started to realize that they were worthy of praise, recognition, and accomplishment. This informal data gave further support to the formal study results.

DSP&S Staff Narratives

Throughout the entire study, the DSP&S staff (Director, Special Education Advisor, and Classroom Instructor) kept notes on their perceptions of how the students in the art education class were progressing and reacting to the course. The following summaries provide a brief narrative of each individual's comments and observations at the beginning, middle, and end of the experiment.

The Beginning (First Three Weeks)

Director of DSP&S - "As with many classes in a college setting, the first class brought apprehensions of students and staff alike. Most of the students were quiet, sitting together at the art tables, but not talking to each other very much. Affects were rather flat. Many of the older students with developmental difficulties were having a difficult time adjusting to the open environment and freedom to create. They had a tendency of getting out of their chairs and going outside and not participating in the group session."

Classroom Instructor - "The first few weeks of class have been hectic in that students are having a very difficult time in making decisions based on what type of art project they would like to work on. In addition, students in the art class do not seem to want to try new and different approaches without direction. Interaction among students is minimal and at times nonexistent."

Special Education Advisor - "It appears that not much is happening as far as creativity and students engaging in informal and formal class participation. In general, students do not appear to be interested in the way in which the art class instructor is presenting projects and, as such, not much is really happening."

The Middle (First Ten Weeks)

Director of DSP&S - "Student attendance was regular, with only one student arriving late one time during the first ten weeks of class. Some students were able to identify whether they wanted to work on the project for the day or whether they had something else they wanted to do. The class was now fairly verbal with many interactions between staff and students occurring often. Most students could work with minimal to moderate assistance, but continued to need encouragement to try new ideas (colors, paper, design, clay, etc.). Their ability to stay on task was fair to good."

Classroom Instructor - "Students are now participating with far more enthusiasm and creativity. Materials are selected by the students, with minimal assistance from staff. Projects are being completed and students are wanting to begin new ones immediately. The critical thinking component of the class is still not as effective as it should be but it is beginning to show promise. Students are interacting with each other and positive 'strokes' are common and part of the class."

Special Education Advisor - "The class is now in full swing and activity is everywhere. Students are involved in many different projects, with anticipation of the art show only a few weeks away. Each student is intent on providing

quality art projects which they can be proud of. Classroom discussion is held to a minimum, yet students take the time to help each other when necessary."

The End (Last Seven Weeks)

Director of DSP&S - "The students are excited about the completion of their work (clay, oil, drawing, etc.). The gallery show (Appendix E) has brought excitement and continued enthusiasm to the class. The students are talking to staff, peers, and other students on campus (not in the class) about their successes and accomplishments. All students are willing to try new projects and have negated the need for any type of assistance from the instructor or aides in the classroom. Students are more self-assured, more willing to accept critiques of their work, and have shown themselves to be far more assertive than they were at the beginning of the class."

Classroom Instructor - "The students in the class are working almost completely on their own, without any form of assistance or direction. Art projects are being completed that are just beautiful and very creative. Students are working well with each other, alone, and in small groups. Disabilities are not even recognized or acknowledged and many of the students identify the fact that they are feeling very good about themselves, successful, and worthwhile. The

main topic of conversation is the art show which will be held in the next few weeks and each student has identified what he or she wants to display. It is a completely positive atmosphere, with energy and dedication. Students have shown respect for their peers, and encouragement is shared on a daily basis."

Special Education Advisor - "It goes without saying that the lives of the students in the art education class have been enriched by their experiences. More importantly, the ripple effect of the creative process has touched the lives of all who have been involved with the program this semester. Sharing the results of creativity has been a wonderful experience."

In summarizing the comments provided by the DSP&S Director, Special Education Advisor, and classroom instructor, it is very apparent that these individuals noted a tremendous change in the students who were in the experimental group and were receiving the art education class as the treatment. In the author's 18 years of experience in working with disabled adults, he has found that many disabled adults have such low self-concepts that they are constantly attempting to please others at the sake of their own displeasure. A notable change which was expressed by all three individuals interviewed was the fact

that the students in the art education class showed tremendous growth in their ability to try new and different things, and accept their works of art for themselves and not necessarily for pleasing others.

The informal data gained from interviews of the DSP&S Director, DSP&S Special Education Advisor, and classroom instructor at the beginning, middle, and end of the study provided additional support and triangulation of the study's findings. Also, the potential limitation identified in Chapter Three was negated via interview responses from the art instructor. It was evident that the teaching-learning process was not inhibited by any biases toward the disabled on the part of the instructor.

Implications for Leadership in Postsecondary Settings

It can be concluded from study results that the self-concept of the disabled adults involved in the art education class was improved. With this established, it is then especially important for post-secondary educational leaders to provide opportunities for disabled individuals to become more confident, self-assured, and to enhance their contributions as societal members.

Leadership is generative in its nature and, as such, must enable community members, both nondisabled and disabled

to become more capable over time and to realize individual wants and collective needs. If this form of leadership is to be truly productive, those individuals in our society who are disabled, and for all intents and purposes not in the mainstream of life or society, must be recognized and their needs addressed. Therefore, recognition is the first step to which leadership must attend and, as such, individuals who are disabled must be in a position to accept and not reject this recognition. Foster (1986) advocated this in stating, "leadership is based on a shared culture and does not result from position or power" (p. 182).

The educative role that must be assumed by those in leadership positions further requires that each societal member be both allowed and encouraged to formulate a vision for the future that will incorporate individual views as determined via self-reflection. This can only be accomplished as each member, especially those who are disabled, gains self-worth and contributes meaningfully to the crystallization of the evolving vision.

Foster (1986) believed that if human potential is to be released and acted upon, leadership must not only provide a vision but the means for those affected by that vision to share and express the necessary power to achieve it. Individuals who are disabled have in many cases lost not only the power of being in the mainstream of society but the

power of free choice to come and go as they desire, the power of self-respect and dignity, and the power of independence. It is incumbent upon postsecondary educational leaders, then, to provide programs and services to accommodate disabled individuals' sharing in the realization of the vision.

Critical also to leadership is the need for an ethical and moral foundation upon which individuals can make judgments related to their social condition. The postsecondary educational leader, cognizant of results of studies such as the current one, must become accountable for addressing the needs of disabled societal members by not only providing opportunities for their personal growth, but also by raising the moral consciousness of the nondisabled and the educational system as a whole.

Postsecondary educational leaders, then, have the opportunity to enhance the quality of life of both disabled and nondisabled individuals by providing educational programs which:

1. Allow and encourage each member to move to a higher level of self-actualization.
2. Improve the sense of community for all by allowing for better cohesion, more unified purpose and providing courses which will improve self-concept and self-esteem.

3. Increase independence among followers (including disabled students) which improves the whole of society.

4. Provide the opportunity, in courses such as the art class, for disabled adult students to make significant contributions for the betterment of society.

5. Provide the opportunity for all those involved in postsecondary education to become involved and, as such, allow for movement to a higher level of social, ethical, and moral consciousness.

Recommendations for Further Research

A paucity of research has been conducted on the use of art education for improving self-concept in disabled adults. This study not only contributes to the literature but also suggests the following recommendations for further study:

1. Replication of the study with similar yet larger samples, with a three month, six month, and one year follow up after completion of the art course, utilizing the TSCS for posttesting.

2. Replication of the study in other settings and with other ethnic populations.

3. Replication of the study using sampling techniques that provide discrete populations according to disability.

4. Replication of the study using sampling techniques that provide discrete populations according to gender.

5. Replication of this study using a sample of nondisabled adult students in a community college setting.

6. Use of other creative media (e.g. music, drama) to test their effect on self-concept in disabled adults.

7. Evaluation of the critical thinking component of the art class to determine its effect (in addition to the art itself) on self-concept of participants.

8. Further exploration of the individual self-concept factors of identity and social self in disabled adult students in postsecondary settings. It should also be noted that if indeed social self declines in replicated studies, concurrent support mechanisms should be utilized (i.e. counseling, family interaction, seminars, etc.) whenever art education is instituted.

9. Given the insight provided by informal data gathered at the conclusion of this study, further formal qualitative research in conjunction with the TSCS should be utilized to provide thick descriptions and triangulation, using interviews, observations, and other methodologies.

As was noted on the dedication page (ii), the motivation for conducting this study originated from the author's respect and admiration for Eugene Wright. Eugene passed away on November 25, 1987, a few weeks short of his

64th birthday. Eugene was afflicted with Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis, or what is better known as "Lou Gehrig's Disease" which affects all muscle control and speech. It is degenerative in nature and when he was diagnosed in 1975, Eugene was told that, at best, he had only three years left to live.

Eugene became involved in the DSP&S at the college in 1984. He then became involved in the art education program and for the first time in his life realized that he was capable and creative in the area of oil painting. Through the exclusive use of his mouth, he quickly established himself as a very competent mouth painter, who in the Fall of 1986 became a member of the International Association Mouth and Foot Painters in Vaduz, Switzerland. At this time, he was awarded a \$16,000 scholarship in honor of his outstanding art work.

Eugene was not one of the common variety of painters. In his very first year of painting, he produced well over 100 paintings by mouth, all of which are now hanging in homes and galleries around the country.

Eugene was committed to improving his condition and his way of life. His attitude about life and his love for his art can best be summed up by the following quote made by Eugene a few months before he died: "I thought I was down to

a point in my life where I was useless, and now I find by painting I can get what is inside me out."

In summary, it is noted that this is one of the first studies done in the area of self-concept as it relates to disabled adult students in a postsecondary setting. The results of the study have shown conclusively that self-concept in disabled adults will be improved and heightened through the use of art education. It further shows that leaders in postsecondary educational settings have the ethical and moral obligation to do everything in their power to provide the necessary leadership to meet the wants and needs of this particular group of individuals. Art education does in fact provide the necessary forum for such an endeavor and, as such, it should be utilized and implemented to its fullest potential.

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Appendix A

Consent to Act as a Research Subject

University of San Diego

CONSENT TO ACT AS A RESEARCH SUBJECT

Jim Harrington, an administrator at College of the Redwoods is conducting a study to find out more about our students in the Disabled Students Services Program. To do this he needs your assistance in completing a questionnaire about how you feel about yourself as a student at the college.

My name is _____ and I understand that I will be asked questions which deal with how I feel about myself prior to the beginning of the term and upon its completion.

My participation may last about 2 hours. If I tire during the interview, I understand it will be carried on in two or three sessions. Participation in the study will not involve any added risks or discomforts to me except for the possible minor fatigue.

My participation in the study is entirely voluntary. I understand I may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without jeopardy to my attendance at the College of the Redwoods and from receiving necessary services from the Disabled Student Services Program.

I further understand my answers and results will be kept completely confidential. My identity will not be disclosed without consent which is required by law. I further understand that only group data will be used in any publication of the results of the study.

The study has been explained to me and my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. If I have any other questions or problems, I can reach Jim Harrington at 619-552-8406 or the Disabled Student Services office at 707-443-8411.

There are no agreements, written or verbal, related to this study beyond that expressed on this consent form. I have received a copy of this consent document.

I, the undersigned, understand the above explanations and, on that basis, I give consent to my voluntary participation in this study.

Signature of Student

Date

Location

Signature of Witness

Date

Signature of Researcher

Date

Appendix B

Data Collection Sheet

Data Collection Sheet

Control Group

	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Disability
7818	M	36	White	Physically Disabled
4272	M	35	White	Physically Disabled
4444	F	27	White	Learning Disabled
6185	M	31	White	Physically Disabled
6905	M	36	White	Learning Disabled
7606	F	53	White	Physically Disabled
8766	F	28	White	Physically Disabled
1503	M	51	White	Physically Disabled
5083	F	37	White	Physically Disabled
0211	M	37	White	Learning Disabled
0762	F	35	White	Physically Disabled
3639	M	20	White	Learning Disabled
6251	M	40	White	Learning Disabled
0796	F	32	Other	Learning Disabled
2904	M	42	White	Physically Disabled

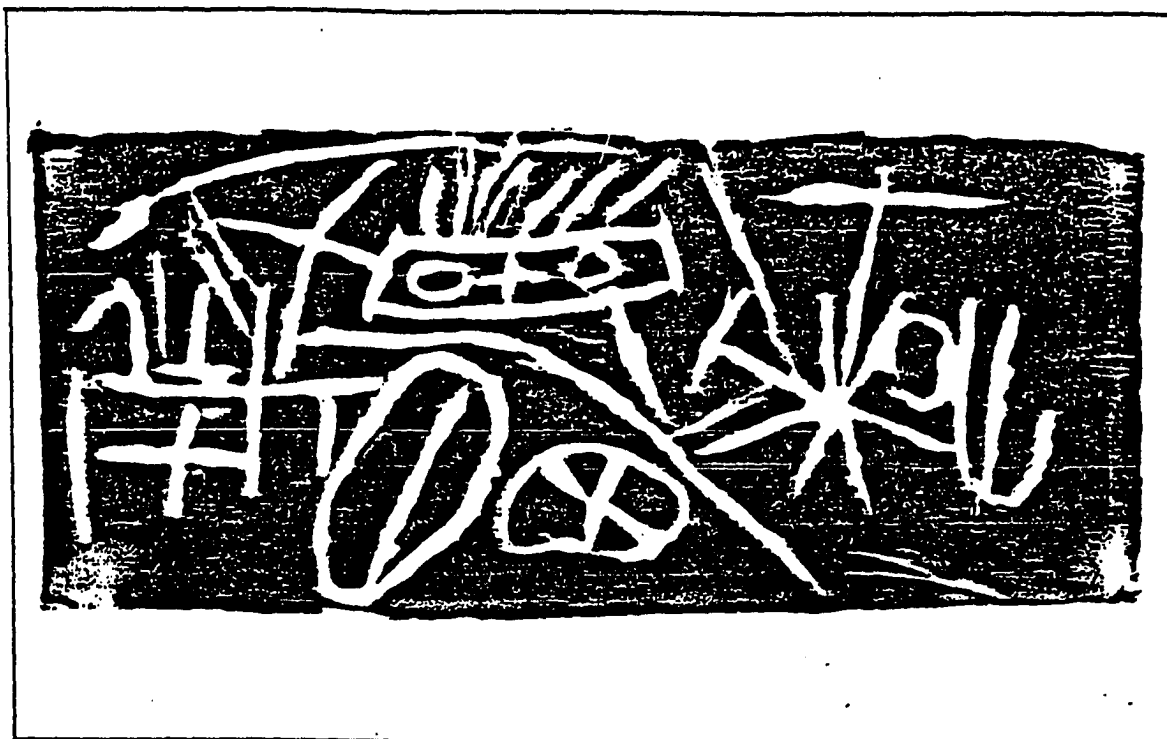
Experimental Group

4412	M	36	White	Developmentally Disabled
9987	M	25	White	Developmentally Disabled
6693	F	58	White	Physically Disabled
1431	M	49	White	Developmentally Disabled
5498	M	34	White	Developmentally Disabled
0305	M	41	White	Physically Disabled
5878	M	61	White	Physically Disabled
1831	M	40	White	Physically Disabled
9500	M	19	White	Learning Disabled
1914	F	19	White	Physically Disabled
0079	F	20	White	Physically Disabled
1862	F	16	White	Physically Disabled
3232	M	32	White	Physically Disabled
2873	F	51	White	Developmentally Disabled
4162*	F	62	Hispanic	Developmentally Disabled

* Dropped part way through study

Appendix E

Announcement of Art Exhibit



John Taylor 1988

College of the Redwoods
Presents

“Open Doors”

An Exhibition of Art
by the
Physically and Mentally
Challenged

January 12 to January 28

Reception for the Artists
January 12, 1989, 11:30 a.m. to 2:30 p.m.
Creative Arts Gallery

A joint project of C/R
and
HCAR's Redwood Learning Center

For additional information, call 443-8411, ext. 760
The Gallery is open Monday through Friday, 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.

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