

THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ACHIEVEMENT GROUPS,
INTELLIGENCE GROUPS, SEX GROUPS, AND SOCIO-
ECONOMIC GROUPS IN THEIR PERCEPTION OF THE
SAME ELEMENTARY CLASSROOM SITUATIONS

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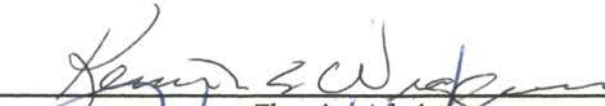
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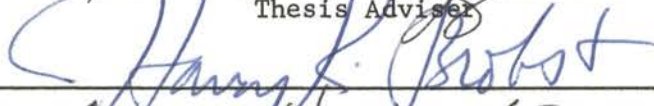
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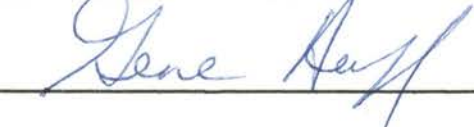
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"Now unto Him that is able to do exceeding abundantly above all that we ask or think, according to the power that worketh in us. Unto Him be the glory . . ."

Ephesians 3:20-21a.

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CHAPTER I

OUTLINE OF THE INVESTIGATION

Introduction

This paper is based on the assumption that an individual's perception of a situation determines the behavior possible for him in that situation and that each child accumulates a different background of experiences. Each accumulation is unique from any other given group of experiences, or indeed unique in each child's perception of experiences which may have been similar or dissimilar to those of some other child.¹

Gill² writes about the effects of children's perceptions upon their classroom behavior and holds that the child's perception of the classroom will determine not only how he behaves, but how appropriate his behavior will be.

Combs and Snygg³ state that behavior is determined by a personal, individual way of perceiving, which is not identical to that of any other individual, and not by the objective field. What is proper seems so obvious to the individual in his frame of reference that he acts accordingly. If he knew of any alternate behavior to employ at the instant he acts which would be superior to the action he chooses, he would use it.

The reality or objectivity of the situation is really of little consequence. Only the manner in which the individual receives and

interprets the stimuli will affect his behavior and hence are of utmost importance to the professional educator.

It is not an uncommon thing for the classroom teacher to become disturbed when a pupil does not perceive or respond to a learning situation as she feels he should. It is important that the teacher discover how the child feels about the learning situation and which factors in it are important to him. These are the things of which perceptions are made and the teacher must be cognizant of the role of perception in the learning process. Ayer⁴ has said that we cannot refute the child who refuses to perceive the "facts" as we do. We must recognize that each person is "programmed" to emit different responses to stimuli and that the teacher's disagreement with the child lies not in the fact that the child is unable to see the reality of the situation, but that he does not describe the phenomena in the way in which the teacher describes them.

It is important that teachers be aware of the literature on children's methods of perception. The public schools profess to serve the needs of all children representing the spectrum from the lowest socioeconomic class to the highest, children with the most meager experiential background to those with rich experiences. As such, the children in the elementary classroom have unique needs which are many times locked away in their perceptual set. The teacher must discover and develop methods of identifying each child's particular style of perceiving.

The school plays a major role in developing the perceptual set of the child. Murray and Kluckhohn⁵ devote a portion of their writing to the importance of the school's role as they state ". . . the child's

development is determined [in part] by the larger societal and cultural institutions. . . ." This, of course, would include the public schools.

Meeks⁶ sounds the distress call to the schools by urging that they identify the needs of the child as early as possible and provide a realistic atmosphere of success and acceptance for him. She says that the earlier we accomplish this, the greater will be the chance that the child's self-concept can grow as a basis for progress.

This paper proposes to examine children's perceptions of selected classroom situations on the basis of the variables of achievement, intelligence, sex, and socioeconomic level. It is hoped that the findings will be beneficial to the classroom teacher who is consistently seeking ways to better understand her students, and thereby assist them in their quest for self-actualization.

The Problem

The purpose of this study is to identify differences between high and low achievement groups, high and low intelligence groups, high and low socioeconomic groups, and sex groups in their perception of the same classroom situations. A perceptual diagnostic instrument was administered to the subjects, and their responses were analyzed according to the groups mentioned above.

Basic Assumptions

The perceptual diagnostic instrument administered in this study enables the child to employ freedom of expression in responding to each item. Estevan and Estevan⁷ state that any technique used to measure

the perceptual style of an individual must enable the participant to enjoy as much freedom of expression as possible. He must understand that he is given complete latitude to react as he sees fit with a minimal fear of censure. This is the only way one may determine in what manner the child has organized his own personal meaning from the mass of stimuli. This paper assumes, therefore, that since the Hughes-Carin School Situation Perception Test satisfies these criteria, the responses are an indication of the child's perceptual style.

The paper also assumes that each child's unique perception controls the behavior possible for him in a given situation.⁸

Hypotheses

The hypotheses in the investigation are: (1) The High Achievement Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Low Achievement Group; (2) The High Intelligence Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Low Intelligence Group; (3) The High Socioeconomic Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Low Socioeconomic Group; (4) The Female Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Male Group.

Limitations

The subjects were limited to those students presently in grade six, who had also attended grades four and five in the district, in all five of the public elementary schools in the school district sampled by this study. The rationale for employing this technique is that the researcher wished to obtain a yield of the perceptual style of the

child who had been subjected to a lengthy exposure to the school district environment used in this study.

The subjects are not to be considered representative of a typical school population as they reside in a university community and might be expected to experience more achievement press than children in a typical school district.

Other variables which exist, such as chronological age, race, ethnic group, etc., are not considered in this study.

Items 12, 13, 17, 19, and 20 of the Hughes-Carin instrument were discarded for this study as the item variance was so low as to make the data ineffective for the purposes of this study.

Definition of Terms

Perception: the interpretation of a situation made by the individual on the basis of his experience.

Selected classroom situations: fifteen situations selected from several hundred observed and recorded classroom situations compiled in a School Situation Perception Test by Hughes and Carin in conjunction with the University of Utah's Co-operative Research Project #353, "Development of the Means for Assessment of the Quality of Teaching in the Elementary Schools."

High Intelligence Group: subjects attaining an intelligence quotient of one hundred or higher on the California Test of Mental Maturity, S Form, 1957 Edition.

Low Intelligence Group: subjects attaining an intelligence quotient of ninety-nine or below on the California Test of Mental Maturity, S Form, 1957 Edition.

Upper elementary aged children: students who have attended grades four, five, and are presently in grade six, all of which experience has been in the public school district selected for this study.

High Achievement Group: subjects scoring above the national norm as determined by mean grade placement scores on the Stanford Achievement Test, Complete Battery, Form W.

Low Achievement Group: subjects scoring below the national norm as determined by mean grade placement scores on the Stanford Achievement Test, Complete Battery, Form W.

High Socioeconomic Group: subjects whose father's occupation fell above the median on the National Opinion Research Center's scale of the prestige positions accorded to occupations. ✓

Low Socioeconomic Group: subjects whose father's occupation fell below the median on the National Opinion Research Center's scale of the prestige positions accorded to occupations. ✓

Perceptual set: a bias or a characteristic manner employed by the perceiver in responding to stimuli.

Perceptual style: the manner in which the subject perceives.

Perceptual field: the mass of stimuli to which the organism is exposed.

Life-style: the individual's pattern of behavior.

Stimulus trace: a lingering of the stimulus in the cognition mechanism of the subject; a cataloging for future reference.

Subjects for the Study

Two hundred thirty-two students in the sixth grades of all five elementary schools in the public school district selected for the

study, who had also attended grades four and five in the district, were used in the investigation. The investigator has limited the study to these children as he desires to test only students who have been subjected to a lengthy exposure to the school district environment used in this study.

The children should not be considered to be representative of the typical public school population. They reside in a university community and, as such, may experience an excessive amount of achievement motivation.

Organization of the Remainder of the Thesis

Chapter II deals with the review of the literature on perception as it applies to this study. The achievement factors, intelligence factors, sex factors, and socioeconomic factors are examined as to their relationship to the perceptual process. Some observations are made relative to the significance of classroom teachers' striving to gain more information about how the children in their classrooms perceive stimuli.

Chapter III treats the methodology employed to elicit the desired information for the study. The reliability and validity of the perceptual instrument are discussed, along with the process of administering it to the subjects. The procedure for classifying the subjects' responses into positive or negative perceptual styles is developed, along with the methods employed in classifying students as high-low achievers, high-low intelligence group, and high-low socioeconomic group. The statistical analysis for treating the data is described.

Chapter IV centers about a discussion of the School Situation

Perception Test. Space is devoted to a discussion of the method of presentation of the test to the subjects and methodology employed to classify responses in scoring the instrument.

The findings of the study are contained in Chapter V. Chapter VI contains the summary, implications, and recommendations. Applications of the findings with regard to improvement of instruction by the teacher and attainment of self-actualization on the part of the child are discussed as well.

FOOTNOTES

¹ Arthur W. Combs and Donald Snygg, Individual Behavior: A Perceptual Approach to Behavior (New York, 1959), p. 17.

² Newell T. Gill, "Selected Perceptual and Socio-Economic Variables, Body-Orientation Instruction, and Predicted Academic Success in Young Children," Childhood Education, XLV (1968), p. 52.

³ Combs, pp. 17-31.

⁴ A. J. Ayer, Foundations of Empirical Knowledge (New York, 1940), pp. 17-18.

⁵ Henry A. Murray and Clyde Kluckhohn, "Outlines of a Conception of Personality," Personality, Nature, Society and Culture, ed. Clyde Kluckhohn (2d. ed., New York, 1956), p. 4.

⁶ Anna Meeks, "The Elementary School Counselor," Guidance and Counseling in the Elementary School, ed. Don C. Dinkmeyer (New York, 1968), pp. 81-84.

⁷ Frank J. Estevan and Elizabeth W. Estevan, The Child's World: His Social Perception (New York, 1959), p. 12.

⁸ Combs, p. 17.

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE

Perception Defined

The task of defining the term perception is as elusive an undertaking as that encountered by Hull¹ as he set out to develop and define a comprehensive theory of learning which would be acceptable to the proponents of the various schools of thought regarding the matter. His efforts were hailed by most scholars as being highly sophisticated and commendable, yet, with the possible exception of Skinner,² most would probably say he fell far short of attaining his desired goal.

Dember³ has pretty well summed up the difficulty of setting forth any definition of perception which would be acceptable to all in his widely read work on the subject. He says,

. . . because of the wide variety of "psychologies" there is no single, generally accepted definition of perception. Its meaning ultimately resides in the function it plays within a complete theory of psychology. Since the latter is far from realization, any definition of perception must necessarily be, to some extent, fuzzy and tentative.

The writer, while heeding the warning signal posted by Dember, will attempt to delimit the concept of perception in this study to the following observations.

Gill⁴ has stated, "Perception refers to the interpretation an individual puts upon his environment." This interpretation is unique to the individual organism. It may be similar to that elicited from

the stimuli by some other individual, but psychologists, sociologists, and other students of human behavior agree that the individual's perception is unique. Combs and Snygg⁵ express it:

People do not behave according to the facts as others see them. They behave according to the facts as they see them. What governs behavior from the point of view of the individual himself are his unique perceptions of himself and the world in which he lives, the meaning things have for him.

The perceptual field cannot be directly observed by any other individual. We can only observe behavior and postulate the possible perceptions which may have acted as the stimuli for such behavior. It is not necessary to be able to observe atoms in order to study the laws which govern their behavior. Similarly, it is not necessary that one be able to observe a given child's perceptions in order to study them. One may simply observe the stimuli and the behavior and make inferences about the possible perceptions of the organism. Dember⁶ expresses it:

An emitting machine with feedback has the rudiments of a perceptual system. It relates output to input. The study of perception is the study of such systems as they occur in living organisms.

A central heating system in a typical home is analogous to a perceptual system. The stimulus "cool air" is fed into the thermostat which interprets the input and dictates a reaction (behavior) on the part of the mechanism (heater) which emits warm air into the room according to the manner in which the mechanism was programmed to function under such circumstances. The mechanism continues to emit this response until such time as it ceases to receive the original stimulus (cool air). When the stimulus subsides or is altered, the mechanism responds in a different manner. Both the mechanism's output and the stimulus' input are observable in this paradigm.

This paper will consider perception as the relationship of the organism's output to the input of the stimuli, both of which are potentially observable. Devereux⁷ postulates an equilibrium-seeking tendency as a property of systems of any sort. Hochberg and Gleitman⁸ state, "The perceptual field . . . is a dynamic system of stresses, always tending to achieve equilibrium between its forces"--thus documenting the analogy.

The organism is exposed to multitudinous stimuli simultaneously and almost continuously. A child will react in an overt manner to selected stimuli, in a covert manner to other stimuli and seemingly ignore the remainder, as Bruner and Postman⁹ state: "Stimuli do not act upon an indifferent organism." Conversely, another child may "select" different stimuli in the same situation, or indeed, select the same stimuli, but his perceptual set is programmed to elicit a response which is uniquely representative of his frame of reference. Locke¹⁰ has said, in this respect, that a "percept is something which exists only insofar as it's perceived, like an after-image or an hallucination or possibly a mirage." He views perception as being closely akin to a sensation or an idea. He goes on to say that "the perception can be perceived by only one person, the person whose percept it is."

Oft times the teacher may become upset with a student because he refuses to respond to stimuli as she feels he should. It is important that the teacher discover how the child perceives a given learning situation, how he feels about it and what factors in the experience are important to him. Ayer¹¹ has said,

We cannot refute him, because as far as the facts are concerned, there is really no dispute between us. . . . Our disagreement . . . consists in the fact that he refuses to describe the phenomena in the way in which we describe them.

Dinkmeyer¹² alludes to the matter of the teacher's discovering how the child perceives the classroom situation as he speaks from the Adlerian frame of reference:

Man is an indivisible social being whose every action has a purpose. The purposiveness of behavior is central in understanding the individual. It is more important to recognize the purpose than the cause of the behavior. The pattern of his life, his life-style, tells us why he acts as he does.

Thus, Adlerians are vitally interested in how the child perceives the situation, a difficult assignment at best. No doubt the proponents of Rogers¹³ would state that the teacher could best attain this goal by attempting to perceive the child's world as if it were her own, without losing the "as if" quality. The fact that this is a difficult assignment should not deter the teacher from manifesting a maximum effort in this direction.

A basic assumption of this research paper is that each of the subjects in the study has accumulated a different background of experiences, each accumulation unique from any other given group of experiences, or indeed, unique in each child's perception of the environment. The experiences may have been similar or dissimilar to those of some other child as outlined by Combs and Snygg.¹⁴

The individual is a unique person and his behavior must be considered as related to his self-concept and his concept of his place in his environment, his need or desire to participate in a given situation, his relationship to others in the situation, his freedom to relate to elements in the situation, his acceptance or rejection of others or by others or of self. The individual behaves only in the manner possible for him in accord with his perception at a given time. Gill¹⁵ has said, "How a child perceives a classroom situation quite obviously

determines not only how he behaves, but how appropriate his behavior is as well."

Combs and Snygg¹⁶ point out that everything we do seems reasonable and necessary at the time we're doing it. When we look at other people from an external, objective point of view, their behavior may seem irrational because we do not experience things as they do. Even our own behavior may, in retrospect, seem to have been silly or ineffective. But at the instant of behaving, each person's actions seem to him to be the best and most effective acts he can perform under the circumstances. If, at that instant, he knew how to behave more effectively, he would do so.

They continue to state that all behavior, without exception, is completely determined by, and pertinent to, the perceptual field of the behaving organism. And this behavior is determined, not by the objective field, but by a personal, individual way of perceiving which is not identical to that of any other individual. What is right and proper seems to the individual so clear with respect to his own observation that no other conclusion seems warranted.

The reality of the situation is, in the final analysis, of little consequence. Wisdom¹⁷ relates a hypothetical example in which he postulates a fictitious leprechaun is inside his wrist watch. It is the leprechaun's job to keep the machinery moving. Although Wisdom's way of describing the facts can be castigated as silly, unnecessary, misleading, etc., it cannot be shown to be mistaken. This absurd illustration is analogous to the teacher-child relationship in the classroom. Only the manner in which the individual receives and interprets the stimuli are of concern to the teacher. This is what will govern

the child's behavior.

Stendhal,¹⁸ in his early writing, analyzes the changes that occur in the lover's perception of his object of love. He perceives his love object to have grown miraculously more beautiful, when, in fact, she has undergone no significant change from other young men's frame of reference. What man has not experienced a gradual, or indeed, sometimes a rapid alteration of his perception of a situation or another individual as a result of extenuating circumstances, additional exposure to the stimulus, etc.? Shostrom and Brammer¹⁹ state that it isn't what is said that counts but what the (child) hears or thinks he hears. They further note that perception is the basis for learning and say,

Perceptions come from within. They are real to the individual only as they relate to his experience. . . . We learn those parts of what others can offer which we can fit into our experiences and purposes.

Role of Learning

The vast majority of theorists hold that perceptual patterns or interpretations are learned. Perhaps few would go so far as John Locke, the pure empiricist, who postulated that the mind, at birth, is a tabula rasa, a blank tablet on which sensory stimuli leave their imprint. The source of all mental content is, to Locke, the result of experience. Such a view at the extreme end of the continuum is not popular today, but nevertheless, the role of learning in perception, especially the early experience of the child, continues to evoke controversy. (See Maya Pines, Revolution in Learning [New York, 1967] for assessment of theories of Carl Bereiter, Siegfried Engelmann, and others.)

Prescott²⁰ notes that research on perception shows that the child sees in a situation whatever his early experiences have made him ready to see and that, insofar as the earlier experiences differ, children will see different things in, and get different meanings from, the same situation.

Dember²¹ alludes to the concept of "stimulus trace" as a factor in influencing the child's perceptual style as he discusses the role of learning in perception. He states,

Stimuli leave "traces" of themselves. These traces may be of a very brief duration, lasting perhaps only a few seconds; or they may last for perhaps even the lifetime of the individual.

Köhler²² suggests that any recall which is occasioned by a perceptual experience involves a process in which such an experience brings into function a memory trace of a similar experience of the past.

Warnock²³ in his recent work states that "Both perception and inference are learned, intelligent activities which we perform with varying degrees of efficiency"

These are representative of the many theorists' views on the importance of learning in perceptual style. Murray and Kluckhohn²⁴ sum it up pretty well when they say, "A human being does not grow up in a vacuum."

Perceptual Set

Concomitant with this trend of thinking are the roles of various "set inducers" such as stereotypes, need-disposition, socioeconomic factors, achievement factors, and sex difference.

Dember²⁵ sees stereotypes as being thought of as

. . . powerful set inducers. As such, they would be expected to influence not only how one individual responds overtly to another, but also how one individual actually perceives another.

An experiment by Asch²⁶ led Kelly²⁷ to replicate the study in an actual classroom situation. The experimenter entered the classroom and informed the students the professor would be absent and that a substitute would teach the class for the period. He further stated that to enable the class to know what to expect, a brief written description of the substitute would be given to the class. For half the students, the subject was described as "a rather cold person, industrious, critical, practical, and determined." For the other half, the word "warm" was substituted for the word "cold." The substitute teacher also recorded student communications to him.

The students were asked to write a brief description of the substitute at the end of the class period. The "warms" described him as "more considerate of others, better natured, more humorous, more humane" than did the "colds." The "warms" also recorded more communications to the substitute than their counterparts. Kelly postulates that stereotypic set accounted for the observed difference in perception. Bruner and Postman²⁸ state ". . . the perceptual effect of a stimulus is necessarily dependent upon the set or expectancy of the organism."

Need-Disposition

Bruner and Goodman²⁹ in their classic experiment, illustrate the role of need-disposition as it relates to perception. Children from a low socioeconomic situation were compared with children representative of a relatively high socioeconomic group in their perceptions of the size of coins (postulated to represent a high need-factor for the low

group and a neutral or low need-factor for the high group). The low socioeconomic subjects perceived the coins as being larger in size than did the high socioeconomic subjects. Bruner³⁰ has compiled further evidence in support of this theory by observing the change which the perceived size of desirable toys undergoes when the toys are withheld from children.

Sanford³¹ observed that residents at a summer camp for young men attending camp to learn how to care for their diabetic condition had substituted photographs of succulent sweets for the usual pictures of beautiful young ladies which one would expect to adorn their cottage walls. Truly this would be illustrative of Gardner Murphy's³² statement, "... the perceived world pattern mirrors the organized need pattern within."

Frenkel-Brunswick³³ summarizes the case for fulfillment of need-disposition in the following manner:

We do not always see ourselves as we are, but instead perceive the environment in terms of our own needs. Self-perception and perception of the environment actually merge in the service of these needs.

Does the person who is hungry see more food-related stimuli in his environment, or see them more clearly or sooner than the person who is not hungry? Does the socially insecure person notice more than usual the rejecting aspects of others' behavior? McClelland and Liberman³⁴ conducted a study demonstrating that subjects highly motivated for achievement are more sensitive to words connoting satisfaction of that motive than are subjects presumably less achievement motivated. The achievement motivation was inferred from a projective test.

Postman, Bruner and McGinnies³⁵ found comparable results in a similar study, as did Wispe and Drambarean³⁶ as they divided sixty

subjects into three groups of twenty. One group was deprived of food and drink for twenty-four hours, one group for ten hours, and one group nondeprived. The deprived groups had lower thresholds for need-related words (presented tachistoscopically) than the nondeprived group. There was no significant difference in neutral word thresholds.

It would appear, on the basis of this evidence and other findings of a similar nature, that better understanding the child's need-dispositions would be a valuable tool in gaining insights into his perceptions. The Postman, Bruner, and McGinnies³⁷ study cited above also makes reference to findings of relatively higher thresholds of subjects' low-value words. This has interesting implications concerning possible inability to perceive positive aspects of the classroom situation due to the child's perceptual set.

Socioeconomic and Sex Factors

Social, economic, and sex factors appear to be greatly interrelated in the literature. Devereux³⁸ asserts, "Clearly, there is ample evidence of mutual empirical interdependencies between culture on the one hand and personality and social systems on the other."

Murray and Kluckhohn³⁹ in their work on outlining the conception of personality state:

✓ A human being does not grow up in a vacuum; his development is determined not only by the physical environment as the biologist proved, and by the family /and sex/ factors as Freud proved, but as the massive data collected by the cultural anthropologists showed, by the larger societal and cultural institutions . . .

Pritzkau⁴⁰ states that environment does not exist apart from individuals, that values which the child holds result from influences exerted through his constant involvement with people and that his

behavior is influenced by the values derived from this involvement with his environment.

Experiences either help the child to trust or distrust himself and others, see himself as worthy or inferior. The way a child sees himself therefore is important to the response he is able to make in a given situation.

Smith, Stanley, and Shores⁴¹ hold that people tend to act in conformity with perceptions of their place and the social position of others in the society. The social position the individual occupies in the society has deep influence upon the individual's beliefs, aspirations, loyalties, and the way he perceives the events that occur to him. They go on to state that:

. . . each individual takes on comparable elements of special patterns of the culture characterizing his social class. He tends to see the world from the standpoint of his class, to value things that are honored by those in the same social structure, to judge himself and others by standards accepted by his peers and to identify himself with those causes with which his social class is identified.

Even though the authors penned these words some twelve years ago, one need but view the events of the day to determine the truisms contained therein. Today our schools are reaping the results of failure to comprehend perceptual differences brought about through socioeconomic class differences.

Jersild⁴² writes that the school environment is essentially middle class in its values, teaching staff and, as such, it reinforces the attitudes and habits taught in middle class homes. The lower class child, on the other hand, may find that what the school teaches is not entirely in accord with ways of behaving and believing that he has been taught at home, and while some lower class children, with the

encouragement of their parents, seek to learn at school what they have not been taught at home, there are others who turn against the school and reject the percepts of the teacher.

Cultural, ethnic, and racial differences influence the perceptions of individuals by accentuating the difference in experiences, values, expectations, aspirations, and identification with community groups. The school is populated by representatives of all social classes, cultural and sub-cultural groups. As a result of the diversity of population, the school is faced with the need of meeting the needs of children with a wide diversity of experiences. Children are able to behave only in ways possible to them by virtue of their experiences. It therefore is important to study the unique perceptions of students with regard to classroom learning.

The culturally deprived child brings serious limitations to the classroom with him. It is most difficult for him to understand the new surroundings and activities. They seem to have little in common with his past experience and his present situation. The actions and expressions which have always been perfectly acceptable at home do not obtain the desired results in the new situation. In fact, they sometimes result in the exact opposite of the desired consequences. The child many times finds himself unable to react to the situation other than in a limited manner or socially unacceptable manner.⁴³

Thus the child's behavior is governed by his own goals, the goals of the sub-culture and the larger societal goals. However, as Devereux⁴⁴ states, "There always remains some lack of congruence between individual and societal goals."

Gill⁴⁵ has written concerning the effect of socioeconomic

factors and sex factors on the child's perceptual pattern,

Of the many things in an individual's development that significantly shape his world of meanings, the social, economic and sex factors have been repeatedly demonstrated by research as among the most influential.

Roe's⁴⁶ study on the hierarchy of the father's occupation as it relates to the child's perception also indicated that the higher the father's occupation on the occupational hierarchy instrument used (Roe's), the less abasement press was perceived by the student. He also suggests that the level of the mother's education is positively correlated with intellectual press.

Role of Achievement

An examination of the literature concerning the differences in perception of low achievement groups and their counterpart high achievement groups is revealing. This study will cite but two of the experiments found in the literature.

Herr's⁴⁷ study on environmental press indicated that low achieving students perceived more press for self-depreciation and self-devaluation; for indifference or disregard for the feelings of others as manifested in overt, covert, direct, or indirect aggression; for dissociation from others, withholding friendship and support; for restrained response and for superstitious, irrational, paranoid, or otherwise egocentric perceptions than did students classified as high achievers.

These data would seemingly uphold the hypothesis that low achievement students perceive themselves and social situations in a less favorable manner than do high achievement students.

Kroeber and Parsons⁴⁸ also allude to the importance of achievement in perceptual style as they report on a study which distinguished two main types of peer groups in the final analysis. One student group stressed popularity, friendliness, etc., but placed little value on "studentship" and achievement, while the second group gave almost equal value to both complexes at the same time, thus perceiving achievement with a positive valence in Tolman's⁴⁹ paradigm.

Sociologist's View

A discussion of perception would be lacking without specific reference to the sociologists' views on the subject. A brief resume of Talcott Parsons' theory of action is appropriate. Parsons⁵⁰ defines his theory of action as a "theoretical frame of reference" and further states:

This is a scheme for the analysis of behavior as a system, broken down in terms of the analytical independence and interpenetration of four major subsystems which it is convenient to call the behavioral organism, the personality, the social system and the cultural system.

The Parsonian model of what takes place when the child perceives a given classroom situation as in the Hughes-Carin instrument employed in this research study, is that the object (situation) emits various sensory stimuli, indeed, these may be "elicited" by the actor rather than "emitted" by the object. These stimuli are filtered through the actor's need-dispositions. Such need-dispositions are developed through the organism's internalization of cultural and social system standards, ingested through learning, while some may also relate to physical needs of the organism. The actor responds to these stimuli in terms of these need-dispositions. His behavior will be designed to

minimize their deprivation or satiate their gratification.

The actor (perceiver) must discriminate the object (situation) from the mass of stimuli in the environment at the given moment. Dember⁵¹ says, "Every perceptual event occurs in a context of other events." The actor must establish what the situation is before he can decide how it can relate to his need-dispositions. Parsons refers to this as cognizing. This image constitutes reality to the actor, whether objective or subjective.

The Hughes-Carin instrument is designed to trigger a perceptual set as described by Dember.⁵² He illustrates this point as follows:

A very crude analogy might be made between the individual and a computer. The computer is fed information, and in turn yields information--the latter being some kind of a transformation of the former. But, what comes out of the computer is dependent not only on what goes in--that is, the data--but also on the computer's program. The program is a set of instructions which are fed into the machine, telling it, in effect, how to deal with the input. In analogous fashion, the fate of the stimulation impinging on an individual is determined by the individual's preparation or set . . . something like a computer's program seems to be operating in the individual.

As such, the actor discriminates the stimuli through examining, testing, differentiating, and classifying it according to his own particular bias (program). (i.e., Hypothetical situation: The teacher stops at Joe's desk. What will she do? The child with a mental set which is anti-academic might well perceive a punitive situation in the offing.) The actor would next evaluate the stimuli on the basis of its utility-disutility, meaningfulness-meaninglessness, etc., as related to his needs or values. He interprets the possibilities of the situation and synthesizes, or as Parsons would say, "cathects," to determine how the object fits into his life space. He determines what meaning it has for him, if any. He chooses whether or not to respond or react to the

situation. This selectivity then becomes the final step prior to the actor's response, which is designed to elicit maximum gratification of the need-disposition consistent with minimum deprivation of other need-dispositions.⁵³

Devereux⁵⁴ writes that the Parsonian situation cannot be defined independently of the actor's orientation toward it. He further states,

. . . the actor constructs a cognitive map of the situation and appraises or evaluates it in terms of its relevance to his various goals, interests and normative standards. In this process, the situation is structured by the actor into some meaningful configuration, in which its various elements are seen as things to be desired or avoided, as obstacles to be overcome, as conditions to be accepted, or as potential means to be utilized. The actor must predict how the situation may be expected to develop and consider whether, in terms of his own goals and values, some active intervention is necessary or feasible; he must consider alternative courses of possible action, and predict and evaluate their consequences in terms of his various goals and normative standards.

Implications

It would seem that it would behoove the school to be cognizant of the need for an awareness on the part of teachers in light of the literature on children's methods of perception. Herr⁵⁵ indicates that administrators must seek to see more clearly the ways in which environments need to be modified if different kinds of students are to develop most effectively within them or find maximum identification with the goals of their institutions. Also Meeks⁵⁶ has stated:

The earlier the school identifies the needs of the child and provides for a realistic atmosphere of success and acceptance, the greater will be the chance that the child's self-concept can grow as a basis for progress.

Kaczkowski⁵⁷ alludes to the fact that the child who perceives himself as a poor achiever and has this poor self-concept reinforced by

the teacher and by his school experiences cannot be helped by remedial procedures unless he alters his perception of himself, and in turn, of achievement. When one considers Symonds'⁵⁸ writings in which he states that the self-perception of the child is but a reflection of the attitudes expressed toward him by others, this places a heavy responsibility on the school staff.

Combs and Snygg⁵⁹ sum up by saying that to understand other people and to use ourselves effectively as instruments for human welfare, our own welfare as well as the welfare of others, we will need to understand, as clearly as possible, the factors controlling and limiting the process of perceiving and the function of the perceptual field.

Certain of the documentations in this text allude to sensory stimuli. One might be tempted to surmise that there is little correlation between sensory perception and social perception. However, Dember⁶⁰ and others make it very clear that the principles of perception are applicable to all stimuli. Dember states,

The principles of perception should apply to all stimuli, including complex social stimuli. There is no reason concepts found useful in the experimental laboratory should not also be relevant, in the principle at least, to the social situation.

Such is the position taken by this research study.

FOOTNOTES

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⁵Arthur W. Combs and Donald Snygg, Individual Behavior: A Perceptual Approach to Behavior (New York, 1959), p. 17.

⁶Dember, p. 6.

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- 32 Gardner Murphy, Personality (New York, 1947), p. 351.
- 33 Else Frenkel-Brunswik, "Personality Theory and Perception," Perception: An Approach to Personality, eds. R. R. Blake and G. V. Ramsey (New York, 1951), p. 379.

³⁴D. C. McClelland and A. M. Liberman, "The Effect of Need for Achievement on Recognition of Need-Related Words," Journal of Personality, XVIII (1949), pp. 236-251.

³⁵Leo Postman, J. Bruner, and E. McGinnies, "Personal Values as Selective Factors in Perception," Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, XLIII (1948), pp. 142-154.

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⁴⁸A. L. Kroeber and Talcott Parsons, "The Concepts of Culture and Social System," American Sociological Review, XXIII (1958), pp. 582-583.

⁴⁹Winfred Hill, pp. 91-114.

⁵⁰Talcott Parsons, Social Structure and Personality (London, 1964), p. 81.

⁵¹Dember, p. 233.

⁵²Ibid., p. 273.

⁵³Max Black, The Social Theories of Talcott Parsons (Englewood Cliffs, N. J., 1961).

⁵⁴Devereux, Jr., p. 52.

⁵⁵Herr, p. 686.

⁵⁶Anna Meeks, "The Elementary School Counselor," Guidance and Counseling in the Elementary School, ed. Don C. Dinkmeyer (New York, 1968), pp. 81-84.

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⁵⁹Combs, p. 36.

⁶⁰Dember, p. 301.

CHAPTER. III

METHODOLOGY

The Perception Instrument

The researcher administered the School Situation Perception Test developed by Marie Hughes and Arthur Carin to all the subjects in the study. This is a paper and pencil test composed of twenty classroom episodes actually observed and recorded in the University of Utah's Co-operative Research Project #353, "Development of the Means for the Assessment of the Quality of Teaching in Elementary Schools."

The test permits students to respond freely when presented with the stimuli experienced in typical classroom situations. The episodes (test items) each describe a classroom situation which has doubtless been replicated many times in the student's elementary school experience. Each episode involves interaction between the teacher and a student or classroom group. DeVaney¹ states that Hughes and Carin were guided primarily by four criteria in their selection of the episodes which they chose from those observed in Project #353 to compose the perception instrument. She says,

The episodes had to be common enough that the children responding to them could easily identify with the situation. The selected /items/ had to portray the teaching act as it was /originally/ coded by the University of Utah /staff/. In other words, if the act were coded as teacher admonishing the child, the story situation should be able to arouse this perception in children responding to the story. The stories /items/ had to have a minimum of reading in order to portray

the desired situation. Furthermore, the wordings had to be such that fifth graders could read and comprehend the stories easily. The stories had to be in an interacting form, so that the teacher and pupil in the story were acting and reacting with one another.

Hughes and Carin were careful to keep the wording intact exactly as it occurred in the original recorded observation in an actual classroom. The test questions, presented to the subject after he had been exposed to the stimulus, were tailored to each situation to elicit the child's feelings about and understanding of the situation.

The original purpose Hughes and Carin had in mind as they developed the test was to determine if their subjects' perceptions of the item situations would correlate positively with the role which the Utah staff had assigned to the episode; i.e., if the staff had identified the episode as manifesting positive teacher affect, would the child perceive this and indicate it in his response?

Results secured from one thousand and fifteen fifth grade children demonstrated that at least seventy percent of the children in any given classroom did see the teacher's role as defined by the staff, thus establishing the validity of the instrument. In addition, however, the subjects expressed much more emotionality and responded to many more aspects of the situations than had been expected by the investigators.

Subsequently, DeVaney² used the instrument to examine the correlation between children's perceptions and those of classroom teachers. Her findings reinforced the belief that the instrument, crude as it may be, can be a useful vehicle for portraying the child's perceptual style.

Any method of assessing the perception of the child must permit ample freedom of expression on the part of the respondent. Estevan and

Estevan³ allude to the fact that this is the only way one can determine what elements in the total complex of stimuli the individual has selected to respond to, what meaning he ascribes to these, and his attitude toward what is perceived.

The School Situation Perception Test makes possible unstructured responses on the part of students. It is possible for pupils to identify with and react to the situations because the episodes portray very common classroom experiences. The episodes occur in a variety of circumstances familiar to the typical public elementary school environment. They are so common to children that the average child has doubtless been exposed to similar experiences many times as he traversed the elementary school years to grade six.

The wording in the instrument is such that it is possible for sixth grade children to read it with little, if any, difficulty. DeVaney⁴ reports that only three percent of the total possible responses were left blank, while this investigation experienced a four percent ratio of blank responses. The researcher assumes that these abstinences indicate either a lack of comprehension of the written material or a lack of motivation of the subject by the stimuli. Chapter II cited the Bruner and Postman⁵ statement which bears this out when they said, "Stimuli do not act upon an indifferent organism."

The subjects' responses are elicited by means of questions which are asked following each episode, i.e., "How would you have felt if you had been Sam?"; "What was the teacher trying to do?"; "What do you wish she would have done?"; "How did Sally feel?" The subjects responded freely and prolifically to these queries in their own unique styles.

DeVaney⁶ found that five episodes (12, 13, 17, 19, and 20) of the

original test yielded item variances so low as to render them useless for discrimination purposes. This study eliminated these items on the basis of this assessment and renumbered the items in chronological order. She goes on to state that their inclusion would only result in meaningless repetition of the same comment by the subjects.

Test Reliability

Test reliability was established by using the split-half reliability technique as outlined by Helmstadter.⁷ The investigator divided the instrument into two parallel tests on a judgement basis as described by Anastasi.⁸ These half-tests were identified as "Test A" and "Test B." Test A is composed of items 1, 2, 3B, 5, 6, 6B, 7, 10, 11B, 12B, 13B and 15, while Test B is composed of items 2B, 4, 5B, 8, 9, 9B, 11, 12, 13, 14, 14B and 15B.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, as described by Guilford,⁹ was calculated between the subjects' scores on Test A and Test B with a yield of $r_{\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}} = .566$. Guttman's¹⁰ correction formula was applied to this result to correct the figure to the estimated reliability for the full-length test with a resulting figure of $r_{11} = .707$. Homogeneity of variance was established, thus enabling the researcher to employ the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula as well as the Guttman formula cited above. The Spearman-Brown formula yielded $r_{11} = .723$.

Scorer Reliability

The researcher scored the instruments on the basis of his subjective judgement by categorizing the student responses into four categories: (1) Positive Response; (2) Negative Response; (3) Miscellaneous

Response; and (4) No Response. Scorer reliability was assessed by extracting a random sample of forty-seven papers which were scored by a certified teacher with testing experience. These scores were correlated with their counterparts from the initial scoring by using the technique devised by Pearson as described by Guilford.¹¹ This procedure yielded an r of .809. This figure was expanded to obtain the correlation coefficient one would have had, had the tests been scored by five independent scorings by applying the correction formula developed by Spearman and Brown described above. It resulted in a yield of $r_{55} = .955$. DeVaney¹² reports a scorer reliability correlation coefficient using three independent scorers of .893 in her study in which she used the instrument.

Perceptual Classification

The test scores of the subjects were quantified on the basis of assigning the quantity two to each positive response, the quantity one to each miscellaneous response (miscellaneous responses were postulated to be more indicative of positive affect than of negative), and the quantity zero to each negative response.

A total composite score of forty-eight was theoretically possible on the quantified results of the test. The investigator assigned a score of twenty-four as a line of delineation to classify negative perceiving subjects and positive perceiving subjects. Students scoring twenty-four or lower were classified as "Negative Perceivers" on the instrument, while those attaining a score of twenty-five or above were classified as "Positive Perceivers." The statistical analysis described later in this chapter was then computed, using these

composite results.

Achievement Classification

The subjects were classified into high-low achievement groups on the basis of their mean grade placement scores on the Stanford Achievement Test, Complete Battery, Form W.¹³ The test was administered to each classroom group by the homeroom teacher. The teachers administering the test were trained and supervised by the district's testing specialist. Results were obtained by the machine scoring method. The instrument was administered when the subjects were at grade level 6.0.

Grade placements for the test ranged from 1.3 to 12.6. The researcher designated subjects whose mean grade placement score was 6.1 or above as High Achievement Group and those whose mean grade placement score was 5.9 or below as Low Achievement Group. No child's mean score was observed to fall between the two cutoff scores. The investigator obtained the scores from school records.

The examiner realizes the line of delineation is an arbitrary one, but claims the prerogative of making this decision so as to include as many subjects as possible in the study. The use of only the highest twenty-five percent and the lowest twenty-five percent of the subjects and eliminating the large fifty percent "middle group" would have resulted in depleting the value of n in the categories for investigation to such an extent that it would have seriously affected the study in a deleterious manner.

Intelligence Classification

The subjects were classified into high-low intelligence groups by

virtue of their scores on the California Test of Mental Maturity, S Form, 1957 Edition.¹⁴ The instrument was administered to all subjects by the homeroom teacher who was instructed and supervised by a testing expert employed by the district. The tests were subsequently scored by the testing company and the researcher obtained the results from school records.

Children whose intelligence quotients were recorded as one hundred or above were classified as High Intelligence Group, while those whose intelligence quotient was ninety-nine or below were classified as Low Intelligence Group. The researcher realizes that this, also, is an arbitrary classification, but again takes the liberty to make the division so as to include as many of the subjects in the study as possible.

Sex Classification

Children were classified according to sex on the basis of school records. Many times it is difficult to determine sex on the basis of the child's name alone. Indeed, these days it is sometimes even difficult to determine sex by a cursory visual analysis.

Socioeconomic Classification

The subjects were classified into high-low socioeconomic groups on the basis of the occupation of the father. Admittedly, there are more sophisticated and thorough approaches to the problem of classifying subjects according to socioeconomic group, i.e., family income, etc. However, these kinds of data were unavailable to the researcher, and precedent is well established for making such classifications on the

basis of father's occupation only. Parsons¹⁵ states: "... the main criteria of class status are to be found in the occupational achievements of men, the normal case being the married man with immature children."

Mulligan¹⁶ states that if only one item relating to socioeconomic status could be recorded, he would select occupation as the most significant.

The researcher selected the National Opinion Research Center's list of a hierarchy of occupations according to prestige, as the instrument of classification for socioeconomic group. Hodge, et al.¹⁷ state that the NORC scale is "... representative of the entire range for legitimate occupations in the United States." They go on to say that the "... NORC rankings of occupations has been widely accepted as affirming a rank-structure of the prestige status of occupations."

Since the NORC scale was developed more than twenty years ago, the researcher sought out a replication of the study which was done in 1963 by Hodge, et al.¹⁸ which yielded a correlation of .99 with the original study. Obviously, the work of Hodge and his associates demonstrated that little change in the public's perception of hierarchy of occupational prestige had taken place during the interim. The authors state that "... occupational morphology . . . remained remarkably stable . . . between 1947 and 1963."

The NORC scale is composed of ninety occupations arranged in a hierarchy according to the prestigious position given them by a representative sample of the population of the United States. The scale lists no occupation in position number forty-five due to a tie between two occupations in a lower category. Thus, since forty-five represents

the median between one and ninety, the examiner selected ranking number forty-five as the line of delineation between high and low socioeconomic groups. Subjects whose father's occupation fell at rank forty-six or above were classified as High Socioeconomic Group, while those whose father's occupation fell at rank forty-four or below were classified as Low Socioeconomic Group.

The occupation of a few of the fathers was not listed on the scale. The investigator relied on personal judgement to classify the children whose father's occupation was not listed on the NORC scale. Precedent has been well established for this practice.¹⁹ Subjects whose fathers are deceased or whose parents are divorced were classified on the basis of the mother's occupation and the homeroom teacher's assessment of their socioeconomic situation.

Treatment of the Data

The investigator explored the possibility of using various statistical techniques before determining to use the t test as the research instrument. The analysis of variance technique would have yielded more information regarding interaction of the variables. However, six of the categories for investigation had an n value of zero, and thus, the analysis of variance technique was not feasible.

Popham²⁰ describes the t test technique in his recent work while pointing out the basic assumptions underlying its use. The data accumulated for this study meet the criteria of normal distribution which is requisite to using the procedure.

The normal curve distribution for $n = 206$ would have 140.08 subjects in the $+1$ standard deviation group and 195.70 subjects in the $+2$

standard deviation grouping. The scores on this study, with a mean of 22.835 and standard deviation of 6.224, yield 140 children in the ± 1 standard deviation group and 196 children in the ± 2 standard deviation group. These data document the assumption of normal distribution of the scores used in this study.

Popham describes the t test as follows:

The t test . . . is computed by analyzing sample data in such a way that a statistic . . . t, is generated. The statistic is subsequently interpreted for statistical significance from a probability table that indicates the probability that an observed mean difference or more extreme difference could be attributed to chance alone. If the t value is sufficiently large, the null hypothesis is rejected and the researcher concludes that the two samples under investigation are not drawn from the same population. . . .

The investigator calculated the tests by hand and then compared the results with those acquired via the computer in order to get a better feeling for the data and hopefully to be better able to interpret the findings.

All F ratios were insufficient in magnitude to reject the hypothesis of homogeneity of variance among the various samples, and thus, the pooled variance t model was employed. The investigator set alpha at .05 which is appearing more and more in the literature relating to studies in education as being necessary to attain before postulating meaningful results.

The determination was made on the judgement of two testing experts that the subjects in the study could be grouped into categories. There are sixteen possible combinations of the eight variables high-low achievement, high-low intelligence, male-female sex, and high-low socioeconomic class; i.e., a given child might be classified as high achievement, high intelligence, male sex, and low socioeconomic class.

As stated, there are sixteen such combinations possible. These categories are listed in Table II on page 56.

The categories were then subjected to analyzation by computing twenty-one t tests. The pairings for the t test computations are listed in Table I on page 42.

TABLE I
 VARIABLES INVESTIGATED BY CALCULATING t TEST

Test	Achiev. Level	Intel. Level	Sex	S-E Level	n	vs.	n	Achiev. Level	Intel. Level	Sex	S-E Level
1	HIGH	HIGH	M	HIGH	47		14	HIGH	HIGH	M	LOW
2	HIGH	HIGH	M	HIGH	47		35	HIGH	HIGH	F	HIGH
3	HIGH	HIGH	M	HIGH	47		8	LOW	HIGH	M	HIGH
4	HIGH	HIGH	M	LOW	14		9	HIGH	HIGH	F	LOW
5	HIGH	HIGH	M	LOW	14		9	LOW	HIGH	M	LOW
6	HIGH	HIGH	F	HIGH	35		15	LOW	HIGH	F	HIGH
7	HIGH	HIGH	F	LOW	9		35	HIGH	HIGH	F	HIGH
8	HIGH	HIGH	F	LOW	9		13	LOW	HIGH	F	LOW
9	LOW	HIGH	M	HIGH	8		15	LOW	HIGH	F	HIGH
10	LOW	HIGH	M	HIGH	8		9	LOW	HIGH	M	LOW
11	LOW	HIGH	M	LOW	9		13	LOW	HIGH	F	LOW
12	LOW	HIGH	F	LOW	13		15	LOW	HIGH	F	HIGH
13	LOW	LOW	M	LOW	23		9	LOW	HIGH	M	LOW
14	LOW	LOW	M	LOW	23		33	LOW	LOW	F	LOW
15	LOW	HIGH	F	LOW	13		33	LOW	LOW	F	LOW
16	HIGH				105		101	LOW			
17		HIGH			150		56		LOW		
18			MALE		101		105			FEMALE	
19				HIGH	105		101				LOW
20	HIGH	HIGH			105		101	LOW	LOW		
21	HIGH	HIGH		HIGH	82		56	LOW	LOW		LOW

FOOTNOTES

¹Elena DeVaney, "Perceptions Among Teachers and Students of Varying Cultural Backgrounds" (unpub. Ed.D. dissertation, University of Utah, 1962), p. 20.

²Ibid.

³Frank J. Estevan and Elizabeth W. Estevan, The Child's World: His Social Perception (New York, 1959), p. 12.

⁴DeVaney, p. 23.

⁵Jerome Bruner and Leo Postman, "On the Perception of Incongruity: A Paradigm," Perception and Personality: A Symposium, eds. Jerome Bruner and David Krech (2d. ed., New York, 1968), p. 206.

⁶DeVaney, p. 24.

⁷G. C. Helmstadter, Principles of Psychological Measurement (New York, 1964), pp. 67-70.

⁸Anne Anastasi, Psychological Testing (New York, 1954), p. 108.

⁹J. P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education (3d. ed., New York, 1956), p. 140.

¹⁰Anastasi, p. 109.

¹¹Guilford, p. 140.

¹²DeVaney, p. 37.

¹³Truman Kelley, et al., Stanford Achievement Test, Intermediate I, Complete Battery, Form W (New York, 1964).

¹⁴Elizabeth T. Sullivan, Willis Clark, and Ernest Tiegs, California Test of Mental Maturity, S Form (Monterey, California, 1957).

¹⁵Talcott Parsons, "An Analytical Approach to the Theory of Social Stratification," American Journal of Sociology, XLV (1940), p. 856.

¹⁶Raymond A. Mulligan, "Socio-Economic Background and College Enrollment," American Sociological Review (April, 1951), p. 189.

¹⁷Robert W. Hodge, Paul M. Siegel, and Peter H. Rossi, "Occupational Prestige in the United States," American Journal of Sociology, LXX, No. 3 (1964), pp. 286-302.

¹⁸Ibid.

¹⁹Albert J. Reiss, Jr. et al., Occupations and Social Status (New York, 1961), p. 113.

²⁰W. James Popham, Educational Statistics (New York, 1967), pp. 140-141.

CHAPTER IV

ADMINISTRATION OF THE INSTRUMENT AND MODES OF RESPONSE

Administration

The instrument was administered to the subjects in their own classrooms, in most cases, although on two occasions it was administered to groups in an adjacent room. The investigator administered the test to all subjects and gave identical instructions.

The children were told that they were being given a series of familiar classroom situations to read, each of which was followed by one or more questions. It was explained that the school was interested in studying the differences in what children thought about these kinds of classroom experiences which are common to nearly everyone's school experience. They were asked to attempt to write on each question, but if, after reading the episode, they were at a loss as to making any sort of response, to feel free to leave it blank. However, they were encouraged to attempt to answer each question.

The administrator stressed the fact that there were no right or wrong answers on the instrument and that their answer would be "right" for them, so far as the investigator was concerned, because it would represent how they felt about the situation. The children were also assured that the administrator would not try to discover some "juicy" response on their paper and run to the teacher to show it to her.

The investigator is confident the students felt relatively free of constraint as there were many responses to a question like "How do you feel about this?", such as: "Drop dead" or "Dumb teacher." Few children will write such statements if they suspect they'll be vulnerable to be reprimanded as a consequence.

Children were told they could ask questions during the test if they desired. The investigator limited his responses to queries to pronouncing words to avoid biasing the child's perception by "explaining" an episode. Children were told there was no time limit, but to work with dispatch.

Modes of Response

The investigator at first classified the subjects' responses to the situations into six categories: Positive Response; Negative Response; Acceptance of Responsibility; Literal Interpretation of the Situation; Miscellaneous Response (ambiguous response or other non-classifiable response); and No Response. This is the same technique employed by DeVaney¹ in her study in which she used the instrument. However, this investigator then postulated that categories representing positive responses, acceptance of responsibility, and literal interpretation of situation responses should all be considered more representative of manifesting positive perception of stimuli than negative, as no evidence of negative comment was detectable.

Concomitant with our basic assumption that the subjects demonstrated freedom of expression as they responded to the test, the respondent must have been experiencing an accepting attitude toward the situation or the negative affect would have been detectable in the

response. This rationale is the basis for the consolidation of the categories. Thus, the responses were classified into four categories for this study: Positive Response; Negative Response; Miscellaneous Response; and No Response.

Positive Responses

The positive response indicates an acceptance of the situation on the part of the respondent. The expressions which he writes indicate that he seems to feel happy, adequate, satisfied, comfortable, non-threatened, needed, wanted or accepted in such situations. Some episodes seemed to cause certain individuals to raise the storm warnings, while at the same time being accepted in stride by other subjects, and vice versa. Positive expressions included manifestations of being pleased with receiving teacher praise, being trusted and feeling happy to have a request granted, feelings of competency or adequacy, an indication of welcoming the opportunity to be shown how to improve one's self, pleasure at seeing one's classmates receive honors or attention from the teacher or students, enjoyment of participation, a feeling of belonging, recognizing that the teacher was trying to be helpful or that she cared for the children's welfare and just happy expressions such as, "Good," "Feel fine."

These positive expressions seem to indicate that the child is relatively free from inner tensions and biases which distort "reality" for certain individuals in the given situation. The life experiences of the child who perceives a given situation in a positive manner have left, on the whole, an over-all positive stimulus trace in his perceptual mechanism. This set is triggered by the stimuli unless they are

received along with interfering stimuli from the environment which bias the perception in some manner.

The child seems free to weigh the elements of the situation in light of his need-dispositions. He sees the stimuli in a non-threatening manner, even though some may serve no particular function so far as his needs are concerned. He embraces a sense of worth and values himself in the given setting. The positive responding child can relate more readily to other human beings and "permit" them to occupy places of importance in his life space. His perceptions are broadened and enriched and he tends to be better able to relate to society and to the world. He is better able to meet life, to accept its challenge. He is stimulated by change and by risk. He is free to try new ideas, to be different, to change, to innovate at the particular time that he is perceiving in a positive manner. He is not afraid to make mistakes at this point in time and space and he is capable of a more meaningful participation with and interaction with his environment.

This is the goal of the school. This is definitive of the self-actualizing human being. This is the "key to the kingdom" for which teachers and administrators search daily. The highest calling of the school is to strive toward discovering methods of helping the child to enter into the free world of positive perception.

Negative Responses

Negative responses to the test items included expressions of distrust, jealousy, inadequacy in the situation or an indication one felt he could not perform as well as the rest of the class, inappropriate punitive statements, fear of the teacher or of classmates' attitudes

toward self, self incrimination, overt criticism or ridicule of teacher or classmates, belittling successful classmates and expressions of negative effect toward teacher when she was in the role of helping.

Some negative affect is desirable in the integrated personality. One would be quite useless to society who perceived all stimuli through rose colored glasses. Jesus Christ, the perfect Man, demonstrated negative affect when He drove the money changers from the Temple.² Constructive negative affect can be demonstrative of critical analysis on the part of the individual or can be indicative that he feels free to express himself in a constructive manner. However, such reactions can also be indications of deeper seated troubles. They may be barometers which signify insecurity, a sense of foreboding, feelings of inadequacy or inability to cope, lack of adjustment or inability to integrate with society.

An overabundance of negative responses as compared to the positive can be a detriment to the development of an organized personality. Such characteristics as feelings of inadequacy, a defeatist attitude, a pessimistic outlook, paranoid tendencies, feelings of insecurity or inferiority, overt manifestations of aggression toward others and conflict with others and self interfere with the individual's ability to develop acceptable patterns of behavior. They also make it very difficult for him to attain self-actualization and find his niche in the social environment.

The child who establishes a life style such as this, finding himself consistently in conflict with the accepted norms of society, is well on his way to being caught up in the limbo of rebellion. He demonstrates an inability to discriminate as to when he should be

resistant to the pressures of society and when he should yield to them. One could hypothesize that such behavior is actually due to real negative feelings on the part of the respondent rather than the result of rational thinking on his part.

It is significant to note whether or not patterns of negative response occur with regard to certain segments or groups in the classroom. If this be the case, one might hypothesize that certain classroom experiences elicit such responses from these subjects, in which case the school would wish to alter its method of presenting the particular experience to the students so as to provide a more accepting environment for them.

Miscellaneous Responses

Expressions which could neither be classified as positive or negative were classified as miscellaneous. Children responded at times with such statements as: "Partly good, partly bad"; "Feel O.K., but maybe a little scared"; etc. At times the responses simply could not be classified under anything but miscellaneous. Some children responded with expressions which were completely outside the situation described.

One could speculate as to whether or not the child understood the episode as he read it, but this would be fruitless. The situations are quite common to the experience of each child who has spent his elementary years in the classroom, which the subjects have. If the child is able to comprehend the majority of the episodes as indicated by his positive or negative expressions, he should be able to comprehend those to which he replied with an ambiguous reply.

One of the basic assumptions of this paper is that the School Situation Perception Test permits the respondent to experience freedom of expression and that, as such, there would be some clue to his feelings if he were experiencing negative perception as a result of the stimuli. Thus, the investigator classified miscellaneous responses as leaning more toward the positive than the negative and this is reflected in the quantification process.

Conclusion

It is the business of the professional educator to be concerned with the reasons which lie behind the behavior of the child. Documentation has been presented in this paper which demonstrates that the behavior of the child is controlled by his perception of the stimuli. Thus, it becomes pertinent that the school investigate the reasons which lie at the base of the perceptual style of certain types of children or particular groups or classifications of students.

Perhaps it will be postulated that the school has presented the stimuli in a manner which evokes negative perceptual response on the part of certain children or groups of children. Chapter II discussed the matter of the school's being middle-class value oriented and the impact this has upon the child who is representative of a different social class. It seems that the important point at this juncture is whether the school itself has the ability to be objective (to perceive the phenomena in a positive manner, if you please) about the possibility that it may be the responsibility of the school to alter its mode of presentation of the stimuli, rather than concentrating solely upon effecting a change in the perceptual style of the child or group.

It seems obvious that if a particular type of teaching procedure or interaction which is fostered by the teacher as a part of her plan for sharing learning experiences with the children evokes negative affect or perceptions by the students, it would be reasonable to question the wisdom of using this technique in this particular situation. The school is, in the frame of reference of the larger society, failing to meet the needs of the child who perceives in a negative manner. Contrary to the school's philosophy of seeking to help each child integrate into the larger society while still maintaining his sense of personal integrity, the student exhibiting a pattern of negative affect will have a more difficult time in adjusting to his environment than will his positive perceiving counterpart.

It is hoped that this investigation will reveal some relationship between classroom perception and one or more of the variables of achievement, intelligence, sex, and socioeconomic class. This would set the stage for further study as to possible change in the school's modes of presentation of experience situations to selected children which would hopefully alter their perception of the modified stimuli and effect a more desirable result.

FOOTNOTES

¹Elena DeVaney, "Perceptions Among Teachers and Students of Varying Cultural Backgrounds" (unpub. Ed.D. dissertation, University of Utah, 1962).

²Matthew 21:12-13.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

The results from the analyses of the various t tests indicated that, for the most part, there is no significant relationship between the child's perception of classroom situations as measured by the School Situation Perception Test, and the variables achievement, intelligence, sex, and socioeconomic class. The investigator is at a loss to explain this phenomenon as the majority of the literature would lead this researcher to postulate that these relationships would be significant. Be that as it may, a research study is designed to report findings, not aspirations; facts elicited from the data, not fantasy to support tentative hypotheses.

One t test yielded a significant difference between means at the .05 level of probability, namely girls representative of the high socioeconomic class who were low achievers with high intelligence, versus girls from the low socioeconomic class, controlling for the other variables. The low socioeconomic group tended to perceive the classroom situations in a more positive manner than did their high socioeconomic counterparts.

The remainder of the twenty-one t tests yielded no significant differences, the observed differences in group means being due to chance alone as much as to actual differences between groups. However, these differences are of interest to the study and will be dealt with

later in the chapter.

The test instrument was administered to two hundred thirty-two children at the inception. The quantification process revealed twenty-six children whose composite scores could have been raised or lowered sufficiently to place them in the opposite positive or negative perception category, had they not left so many items blank. One cannot make valid assumptions as to what sort of response a subject would have made had he chosen to respond. The only alternative available to the investigator was to exclude these twenty-six subjects from the study, leaving an n of 206.

There were very few blank responses in the study as a whole, however. Just two hundred fifty-three responses out of a possible five thousand, five hundred sixty-eight, or four percent, were omitted by the subjects. This compares with an omission rate of three percent as reported by DeVaney¹ in her study.

DeVaney postulates that such a low omission ratio justifies the assumption that the subjects found the instrument to be stimulating and readable. This would seem to this examiner to be a valid assertion, as there were no other apparent motivating factors involved which would cause subjects to respond to the stimuli.

The investigator postulated sixteen possible categories, representative of the four variables under consideration, into which a subject might fall. These categories are listed in Table II. Categories 5, 6, 7, 8, 15, and 16 yielded an n of zero. Thus, the two hundred six subjects fell into the remaining ten categories.

The relationships between the subjects' composite scores in these ten groups, with n ranging from 8 - 47, were then compared by computing

fifteen t tests. Analysis of variance was not feasible because of the incidence of zero in the six aforementioned categories. The investigator also computed t tests between six larger amalgamated groups with n ranging from 56 - 105. They were High Achievement Group vs. Low Achievement Group; High Intelligence Group vs. Low Intelligence Group; Male Group vs. Female Group; High Socioeconomic Group vs. Low Socioeconomic Group; High Achievement-High Intelligence Group vs. Low Achievement-Low Intelligence Group; and High Achievement-High Intelligence-High Socioeconomic Group vs. Low Achievement-Low Intelligence-Low Socioeconomic Group.

TABLE II

CLASSIFICATION CATEGORIES

Category Number	n	Achievement Level	Intelligence Level	Sex	Socioeconomic Level
1	47	High	High	Male	High
2	14	High	High	Male	Low
3	35	High	High	Female	High
4	9	High	High	Female	Low
5	0	High	Low	Male	High
6	0	High	Low	Female	High
7	0	High	Low	Female	Low
8	0	High	Low	Male	Low
9	33	Low	Low	Female	Low
10	8	Low	High	Male	High
11	13	Low	High	Female	Low
12	9	Low	High	Male	Low
13	15	Low	High	Female	High
14	23	Low	Low	Male	Low
15	0	Low	Low	Male	High
16	0	Low	Low	Female	High

The results of these t tests were examined to determine relationships which would yield information relative to the original hypotheses as stated in Chapter I. They were (1) The High Achievement Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Low Achievement Group; (2) The High Intelligence Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Low Intelligence Group; (3) The High Socioeconomic Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Low Socioeconomic Group; and (4) The Female Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Male Group.

It would be well to reiterate at this point that the composite scores on the instrument were divided at quantity twenty-four. Scores falling above this point were classified as positive perceiving while scores falling on or below twenty-four were classified negative perceiving. This particular point was selected as the cutoff because of a possible score ranging from 0 - 48. The actual range of scores was 7 - 39, as reported earlier, with a mean of 22.835.

Large Group Analyses

The means of the large amalgamated groups were so nearly equal, there was little chance of a significant difference between groups. The greatest divergence was only 1.289, that being between the male and female groups.

Group standard deviations were also quite similar. The greatest difference in standard deviation among large groups was .948, this being between the Male Group (6.029) and the Low Intelligence Group (6.987).

Males had the lowest mean (22.178) (indicative of a tendency toward negative perceptual style) of all the large amalgamated groups, while females had the highest (23.467) (tending toward a less negative perceptual style than males). Even though this was the case, the t model did not yield a significant difference between the means. The table value needed for significance when the total Male Group was compared with the total Female Group was 1.960 at the .05 level of probability and 1.645 at the .10 level. The test result of 1.468 was not sufficiently large to yield significance.

TABLE III
COMPARISON OF TOTAL MALE GROUP
WITH TOTAL FEMALE GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
Total Male	101	22.178	6.039	36.473	1.187	204	1.468
Total Female	105	23.467	6.578	43.275			

One phenomenon which is surprising to the researcher, although it is of no particular significance, is the fact that three of the large groups contain the same number of subjects (105). They are the Male Group, the Low Achievement Group, and the Low Socioeconomic Group. Still three other groups also have the same n (101). They are the

Female Group, the High Achievement Group, and the High Socioeconomic Group. This was puzzling to both the investigator and the statistical consultant, but the data yielded the same results whether computed by hand calculation or on the IBM sorter.

It is interesting that the High Achievement-High Intelligence Group with a mean of 22.600 and standard deviation of 6.599 ($n = 105$) is so similar to its counterpart in this respect. The Low Achievement-Low Intelligence Group's mean is 22.980, a difference of but .380, while the group's standard deviation is 6.232, a difference of but .367. These data would tend to indicate that the curves and means of the two groups would be very similar and one might postulate that the two groups, while being of wide divergence in ability and performance, tend to perceive the classroom situations in a manner more similar than dissimilar.

TABLE IV

COMPARISON OF THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE GROUP
WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-LOW INTELLIGENCE GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
High Achiev.- High Intell.	105	22.600	6.599	43.550	1.119	204	.290
Low Achiev.- Low Intell.	101	22.980	6.232	38.844			

Similar findings existed between the High Achievement-High Intelligence-High Socioeconomic Group (n = 82) and the Low Achievement-Low Intelligence-Low Socioeconomic Group (n = 56). The High-High-High Group's mean was 23.122 as opposed to the Low-Low-Low's 22.625, a difference of only .497. The High Group's standard deviation was 6.555 against the Low's 6.987, a difference of only .432. Here again, one is brought to the conclusion that, on the basis of these results, the group generally thought of as being less richly endowed tends to perceive the classroom situation in a manner similar to their more fortunate and successful peers. This is contrary to the writings of most contemporary psychologists and sociologists. The data are shown in Table V.

TABLE V

COMPARISON OF THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-LOW INTELLIGENCE-LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
High Achiev.- High Intell.- High Socioec.	82	23.122	6.555	42.971	1.136	136	.425
Low Achiev.- Low Intell.- Low Socioec.	56	22.625	6.987	48.820			

The High Achievement Group (n = 105) had a mean of 23.124 as compared to the Low Achievement Group's (n = 101) 22.535, a differential of only .589 which was not significant. The standard deviations of the two groups were very similar, the High Achievement Group's being 6.198 with the Low Achievement Group's being 6.462, a difference of but .264. Here again, the data indicate that the curves of the two groups are nearly identical, indicating that these children who represent a dichotomy of classroom achievement tend to perceive the classroom situation in essentially the same manner.

TABLE VI
COMPARISON OF THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT GROUP
WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s ²	F	df	t
High Achieve.	105	23.124	6.198	38.413	1.087	204	.668
Low Achieve.	101	22.535	6.462	41.763			

Controlling now for the variable "intelligence," the researcher found no significant difference in the perceptual style of the High Group (n = 150) as compared to the Low Group (n = 56). The High Intelligence Group's mean was 22.913 as opposed to the Low Group's 22.625, a difference of .288. The standard deviation of the High Group was 6.077 against 6.987 for the Lows, a differential of .910. None of these data

yielded a significant t value.

TABLE VII
COMPARISON OF THE HIGH INTELLIGENCE GROUP
WITH THE LOW INTELLIGENCE GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
High Intell.	150	22.913	6.077	36.933	1.321	204	.290
Low Intell.	56	22.625	6.987	48.820			

The final large amalgamated group to be treated was that of socioeconomic class. Contemporary literature is replete with reference to the effects of socioeconomic class upon the child with regard to his performance in the middle class oriented public school classroom. The body of research bears out the notion that the socioeconomically deprived child may not be motivated (in the manner desired by the teacher) by the stimuli of the middle class-valued public school environment.

However, these data did not bear out the hypothesis that children who are representative of the lower class socioeconomic group will tend to perceive the classroom situation in a more negative fashion than their higher socioeconomic class counterparts.

The High Socioeconomic Group (n = 105) had a mean of 22.600 as compared to the Low Group's (n = 101) 22.980, a difference of .380

which is not significant. The standard deviation of the High Group was 6.599 compared to 6.232 for the Low Group, a difference of but .367. In failing to reject the null hypothesis, one would have to state that, on the basis of these data, there is no significant difference in the manner in which high and low socioeconomic groups perceive classroom situations as measured by the School Situation Perception Test.

TABLE VIII
COMPARISON OF THE HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP
WITH THE LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
High Socioec.	105	22.600	6.599	43.550	1.120	204	.424
Low Socioec.	101	22.980	6.232	38.844			

Small Group Analyses

It will be recalled that the investigator compartmentalized the data into ten categories which were subsequently investigated by calculating fifteen t tests. The results of these tests will now be discussed.

The greatest mean difference (4.808) existed between the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-High Socioeconomic Group (n = 8) with a mean of 20.500 and the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-

Low Socioeconomic Group ($n = 13$) with a mean of 25.308. The means of these two groups were not tested for significance because of confounding variables in the groups. Although the t value would have indicated significance, the results would have been relatively meaningless since one could have controlled but two of the four variables.

It is interesting, however, that these two groups of low achievement-high intelligence offered a greater divergency of perceptual style than any of the groups tested. The female group tended to perceive the classroom situations more positively, the males more negatively, which is in keeping with the tendency of the large Male Group and Female Group, although the t value was not significant.

It is also worth noting that the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-Low Socioeconomic Group's standard deviation of 4.571 was the second lowest of any of the ten categories, while the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-High Socioeconomic Group's (7.653) was the highest. This would tend to indicate that the former group's style of perception was more consistent or had a greater central tendency than the latter. However, one must bear in mind that we are dealing with only ten percent of the total n of two hundred six subjects.

The researcher obtained but one significant t value out of the twenty-one t tests which were calculated, as was mentioned earlier. This resulted from controlling for socioeconomic class differences among low achieving, high intelligence females. The Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-High Socioeconomic Group's ($n = 15$) mean of 21.533 was 3.775 lower than the 25.308 mean value of the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-Low Socioeconomic Group ($n = 13$). This difference was significant at the .05 level of probability.

One could postulate, on the basis of national norms, that it is not the ordinary situation for a child to be a low achiever with high intelligence. Twenty-one percent of the total n in this study fall into the category of low achiever-high intelligence, while fifty-one percent are in the high achiever-high intelligence grouping. This tends to support the proposition that the low achievement-high intelligence category represents a minority group. The investigator would thus be very reluctant to generalize from this unreliable base to make statements about the perceptual style of the total population. This is especially true when one considers that the remainder of the twenty-one t values were not significant. (See Table IX, page 66.)

It is well to point out that these thirteen children in the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-Low Socioeconomic Group represent the only category with a mean value exceeding 24.000, which is indicative of a positive perceptual style as measured by the instrument.

The High Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-High Socioeconomic Group (n = 47) was the largest category of all ten. The group's mean value of 22.532 was .303 less than that of the total group (n = 206). This was not significant but it is interesting to note that these subjects who are considered more richly endowed than their peers have a smaller mean value than the total group. This is indicative of a more negative perceptual style than the total group. The standard deviation of this richly endowed group was 5.710 as compared to the total group's 6.224, a difference of .514. This is not significant, but it indicates that the central tendency of the small group was approximately the same as that of the large group.

TABLE IX

COMPARISON OF THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE-HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE-LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s ²	F	df	t
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Female- High Socioec.	15	21.533	4.912	24.132	1.155	26	2.094
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Female- Low Socioec.	13	25.308	4.571	20.889			
Total High Socioeconomic	105	22.600	6.599	43.550			
Total Low Socioeconomic	101	22.980	6.232	38.844			

This High-High-Male-High Group was analyzed by comparison to the second largest group (n = 35), the High Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-High Socioeconomic category with a resulting t value of .945. The table value required for significance was 1.990 at the .05 level of probability, and thus we failed to reject the null hypothesis of group homogeneity.

The High-High-Female-High Group's mean of 23.916 exceeded the mean of the total Female Group (n = 105) (23.467) by .449. It also exceeded the mean of the High-High-Male-High Group by 1.384. These two phenomena support the hypotheses of girls manifesting a more positive perceptual style than boys, as well as more richly endowed groups perceiving

school situations more positively than the less fortunate group. Of course, these differences in means are not significant and could have occurred by chance alone.

The Male Group's mean was 22.532 compared to the Female Group's 23.916, a differential of 1.384, while the difference in standard deviation values was 1.855 (Male Group = 5.710; Female Group = 7.565). These results fail to reject the null hypothesis relating to sex differences as stated in Chapter I.

This High-High-Male-High Group's mean was not significantly different from the mean of the total Male Group ($n = 101$), the differential being but .354 favoring the smaller group. This follows a pattern which is fairly consistent as one compares the means of the small male groups with the total Male Group. (See Table X, page 68.)

The pattern of similarity between mean values as one analyzes the data comparing the smaller compartmentalized groups with the large amalgamated groups remains a relatively constant one, revealing no significant difference when subjected to the t test.

The comparison of the High Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-High Socioeconomic Group ($n = 47$) with the High Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-Low Socioeconomic Group ($n = 14$) indicated a mean difference of .682 which the t test revealed to be of no significance. It is interesting that the mean of the Low Socioeconomic Group was the higher of the two, indicating a more positive perceptual style than that of the High Socioeconomic Group, even though this difference could have occurred by chance alone.

The small High Socioeconomic Group's mean of 22.532 was very similar to that of the total High Socioeconomic Group ($n = 105$), the large

group's mean (22.600) exceeding that of the smaller group by .068. The same relationship held true when the investigator compared the means of the small Low Socioeconomic Group (23.214) with the total Low Socioeconomic Group (22.980). The smaller group's mean exceeded that of the total group by .234.

TABLE X

COMPARISON OF THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-MALE-HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE-HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s ²	F	df	t
High Achieve.- High Intell.- Male- High Socioec.	47	22.532	5.710	32.513	1.760	80	.945
High Achieve.- High Intell.- Female- High Socioec.	35	23.916	7.565	57.215			
Total Male	101	22.178	6.039	36.473			
Total Female	105	23.467	6.578	43.275			

These results would tend to support the proposition that the high achievement, high intelligence factors involved in these comparisons resulted in a more positive perceptual style when compared to the large group. However, the t value proved to be of no significance.

The standard deviation of the High-High-Male-High Group (5.710) exceeded that of the High-High-Male-Low Group (5.406) by .304. Thus, the curves of the two groups would be very similar in appearance and one could postulate that the two groups tend to perceive the classroom situations as portrayed in the instrument as more nearly alike than different. These data fail to reject the null hypothesis of socioeconomic differences.

TABLE XI

COMPARISON OF THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-MALE
HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-
HIGH INTELLIGENCE-MALE-LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
High Achieve.- High Intell.- Male- High Socioec.	47	22.532	5.710	32.513	1.111	59	.397
High Achieve.- High Intell.- Male- Low Socioec.	14	23.214	5.406	29.265			
Total High Socioeconomic	105	22.600	6.599	43.550			
Total Low Socioeconomic	101	22.980	6.232	38.844			

The investigator computed a test of the t value between the High Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-High Socioeconomic Group (n = 47) and the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-High Socioeconomic Group (n = 8) next. The paragraphs above have already alluded to the fact that the High Achievement Group had a mean of 22.532. This compares to a mean of 20.500 (a difference of 2.032) for the Low Achievement Group which indicates a more negative perception of the classroom situations, although the t value was not significant.

This Low-High-Male-High Group had the lowest mean value of any of the categories, along with the highest variance (standard deviation, too, of course) and the lowest n value (8). The magnitude of the variance (58.571) was one of the factors which contributed to the failure to attain a significant t value. Perhaps a larger sample in this particular category would have yielded a significant difference between the two means, as this could have had the effect of lowering the variance and would have raised the degrees of freedom. This, in turn, would have reduced the required t value for significance. The tabled t values diminish as the n values of the two variables increase. Thus, a larger n would require a smaller t value for significance.

The High Achievement Group had a standard deviation of 5.710 as compared to the Low Achievement Group's standard deviation of 7.653, a difference of 1.943. This represents one of the larger differentials between standard deviation values among the groups compared and would indicate a more elongated or platykurtic-shaped curve for the Low Achievement Group than for the High Achievement Group.

This small High Achievement Group's mean of 22.532 was compared to the mean (23.124) of the total High Achievement Group (n = 105). The

mean of the larger group surpassed that of the small group by .592 which was not significant.

Similarly, the mean of the total Low Achievement Group (22.535) exceeded that of the small Low Achievement Group (20.500) by 2.035. Again, this did not prove to be of significance when subjected to the t test. However, the fact that these two small high intelligence-high socioeconomic groups' means are less than those of their large, total (High and Low) Achievement Group counterparts is contrary to the examiner's expectations in which the hypothesis was that these two factors of high intelligence and high socioeconomic class would result in a more positive perceptual style. (See Table XII, page 72.)

The sex variable was investigated next, between high achievement, high intelligence, low socioeconomic groups. The High Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-Low Socioeconomic Group ($n = 14$) yielded a mean value of 23.214 as opposed to the High Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-Low Socioeconomic Group's ($n = 9$) mean of 23.000, a difference of .214 in favor of the Male Group. The t value proved to be of no significance and thus, one must conclude that the observed difference could have occurred by chance alone. The data fail to reject the null hypothesis relating to sex differences in perceptual style.

The standard deviation of the Male Group was 5.406 which exceeds that of the Female Group (4.092) by 1.314, indicative of a wider distribution of scores about the mean for the Male Group. This is contrary to the pattern of the total sex groups in which the total Female Group's ($n = 105$) standard deviation is greater than that of the total Male Group ($n = 101$). (See Table XIII, page 73.)

TABLE XII

COMPARISON OF THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-MALE-HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-MALE-HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
High Achieve.- High Intell.- Male- High Socioec.	47	22.532	5.710	32.513	1.801	53	.886
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Male- High Socioec.	8	20.500	7.653	58.571			
Total High Achievement	105	23.124	6.198	38.413			
Total Low Achievement	101	22.535	6.462	41.763			

An examination of the relationship between the High Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-Low Socioeconomic Group (n = 14) and the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-Low Socioeconomic Group (n = 9) offered the researcher another opportunity to isolate the achievement variable for statistical analysis. The mean of the High Achievement Group (23.214) exceeded that of the Low Group (21.444) by 1.770. Although this differential would bear out the hypothesis that high achievement groups tend to perceive the school situation in a more positive manner than their low achieving counterparts, the statistical analysis indicated the difference between the two means was not significant. The data fail to reject the null hypothesis.

TABLE XIII

COMPARISON OF THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-MALE-
LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-
HIGH INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE-LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
High Achieve.- High Intell.- Male- Low Socioec.	14	23.214	5.406	29.265	1.747	21	.101
High Achieve.- High Intell.- Female- Low Socioec.	9	23.000	4.092	16.750			
Total Male	101	22.178	6.039	36.473			
Total Female	105	23.467	6.578	43.275			

The mean of this small High Achievement Group was almost identical to that of the total High Achievement Group ($n = 105$), exceeding it by .090, while the mean of the small Low Achievement Group was 1.091 less than that of the total Low Achievement Group ($n = 101$). (See Table XIV.)

The next comparison was between the socioeconomic differences in high achieving, high intelligence females. The High Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-High Socioeconomic Group's mean of 23.916 was .916 more than that of the High Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-Low Socioeconomic Group (23.000). Although this difference was not significant, the distribution curves of the two groups would differ in appearance to a considerable degree due to the difference in the standard deviations. The Low Socioeconomic Group's standard deviation of 4.092

was 3.473 less than that of the High Socioeconomic Group (7.565). Obviously, the distribution of the High Socioeconomic Group was much broader than that of the Low Group, the latter being more leptokurtic in shape, indicative of a greater central tendency about the mean.

TABLE XIV

COMPARISON OF THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-MALE-
LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-
HIGH INTELLIGENCE-MALE-LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
High Achieve.- High Intell.- Male- Low Socioec.	14	23.214	5.406	29.265	1.420	21	.710
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Male- Low Socioec.	9	21.444	6.464	41.788			
Total High Achievement	105	23.124	6.198	38.413			
Total Low Achievement	101	22.535	6.462	41.763			

It is interesting to note that in comparing the data on these two categories, the Low Socioeconomic Group had the lowest standard deviation (4.092) of all the groups tested as well as having one of the lowest n values (9). At the same time, the High Socioeconomic Group

had the next to the greatest standard deviation (7.565) and also the next to the highest n value (35). This wide differential in standard deviations (and, of course, in variance also, from which the standard deviation is derived) is of little consequence in this particular case in the calculation of t, as the yield was only $t = .348$. There was little chance of obtaining a significant t score due to the similarity of the means.

The small High Socioeconomic Group mean of 23.916 was 1.316 greater than that of the total High Socioeconomic Group's ($n = 105$) mean of 22.600. Although this mean difference is not significant, its direction is indicative of a more positive perceptual style on the part of the smaller group which is made up of high achieving, high intelligence females. This would support the proposition that high achievement, high intelligence, and female sex are contributing factors toward a more positive perceptual style in the classroom situation. However, because of the lack of significance from the statistical analysis, one must conclude that the data fail to reject the null hypothesis relating to socioeconomic factors influencing perception. (See Table XV, page 76.)

The achievement variable of the high intelligence, high socioeconomic female group was examined next by the investigator. The same female group alluded to in the paragraphs above (High-High-Female-High) ($n = 35$) was compared to the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-High Socioeconomic Group ($n = 15$). The difference in the means was 2.383, with the mean of the High Achievement Group being 23.916 against the Low Achievement Group's 21.533. This yielded a t value of 1.119 which was approximately .900 short of significance.

TABLE XV

COMPARISON OF THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE-HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE-LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s ²	F	df	t
High Achieve.- High Intell.- Female- High Socioec.	35	23.916	7.565	57.215	3.416	42	.348
High Achieve.- High Intell.- Female- Low Socioec.	9	23.000	4.092	16.750			
Total High Socioeconomic	105	22.600	6.599	43.550			
Total Low Socioeconomic	101	22.980	6.232	38.844			

The standard deviation of these two groups indicated a differential of 2.653, the High Group's being 7.565 and the Low Group's 4.912. This also indicates, of course, that the variance of the High Group was more than twice that of the Low Group. Had they been equal, or nearly so, the analysis would have come close to yielding a significant t value.

The comparison of this small High Achievement Group's mean (23.916) with that of the total High Achievement Group (n = 105) mean of 23.124 yielded no significant difference. The 1.002 differential between the smaller Low Achievement Group's mean of 21.533 and the total Low Achievement Group's (n = 101) mean of 22.535 was not

significant either. It is of interest, however, because of its vector. The high intelligence, female sex, and high socioeconomic factors involved here should have caused the mean of the smaller group to be greater than that of the larger group according to the original hypotheses. Such was not the case.

TABLE XVI

COMPARISON OF THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE
HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH
INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE-HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
High Achieve.- High Intell.- Female- High Socioec.	35	23.916	7.565	57.215	2.370	48	1.119
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Female- High Socioec.	15	21.533	4.912	24.132			
Total High Achievement	105	23.124	6.198	38.413			
Total Low Achievement	101	22.535	6.462	41.763			

The investigator next examined the relationship between the means of two high intelligence, female sex, low socioeconomic groups, while controlling for differences in achievement level.

The mean of the High Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-Low Socioeconomic Group (n = 9) was 23.000 which was 2.308 less than that of the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-Low Socioeconomic Group's (n = 13) mean of 25.308. Even though the variances of the two groups were lower than most of the categories examined (High Group's variance = 16.750; Low Group's = 20.889), the t test between the two groups was not significant. The computed t value of 1.214 lacked .511 being great enough to reject the null hypothesis regarding the influence of achievement on the perceptual style of children.

The small High Achievement Group's (n = 9) mean of 23.000 was .124 less than that of the total High Achievement Group (n = 105) mean of 23.124. The opposite was true of the small Low Achievement Group (n = 13) mean of 25.308 when contrasted with that of the total Low Achievement Group (n = 101) with a mean of 22.535. The differential here was 2.773 in favor of the small group. However, neither of these differences was significant when subjected to the t test. The data fail to reject the null hypothesis relating to achievement differences. The data appear in Table XVII on page 79.

Two smaller groups with a combined n of only twenty-three were investigated next. The variable under consideration was sex difference while holding achievement, intelligence, and socioeconomic class constant. The Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-High Socioeconomic Group's (n = 8) mean of 20.500 was 1.033 less than that of the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-High Socioeconomic Group's (n = 15) mean of 21.533. This mean difference was not significant, although the direction of the difference indicative of a higher female mean value was consistent with that found when comparing the means of the

total Female and Male Groups. This supports the hypothesis of girls manifesting a more positive perceptual style in classroom situations than boys, but not, of course, at a significant level. Thus, the null must be retained as stated in Chapter I.

TABLE XVII

COMPARISON OF THE HIGH ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE
LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH
INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE-LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
High Achieve.- High Intell.- Female- Low Socioec.	9	23.000	4.092	16.750	1.247	20	1.214
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Female- Low Socioec.	13	25.308	4.571	20.889			
Total High Achievement	105	23.124	6.198	38.413			
Total Low Achievement	101	22.535	6.462	41.763			

The standard deviation of the Male Group (7.653) was 2.741 greater than that of the Female Group (4.912). It must be called to the reader's attention once again that the magnitude of the Male Group's variance, along with its small n value (8) are contributing factors to the

failure to obtain a significant t value.

Both the small Male Group's mean (20.500) and the small Female Group's mean (21.533) are lower than those of their total Male Group (n = 101; \bar{X} = 22.178) and total Female Group (n = 105; \bar{X} = 23.467) counterparts, although not at a significant level. The differential of 1.678 between the Male Groups and 1.934 between the Female Groups did occur in the direction hypothesized by the investigator. That is, these low achievement children yielded a lower mean score than did the total group. However, the difference in means may be attributed to mere chance alone because of the failure of the t test to yield a significant value.

TABLE XVIII

COMPARISON OF THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-MALE
HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH
INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE-HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s ²	F	df	t
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Male- High Socioec.	8	20.500	7.653	58.571	2.427	21	.396
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Female- High Socioec.	15	21.533	4.912	24.132			
Total Male	101	22.178	6.039	36.473			
Total Female	105	23.467	6.578	43.275			

Still another comparison of two groups with small n values was considered next. The combined n of seventeen was the smallest analysis made of all the t tests computed. The variable under consideration was socioeconomic class while controlling achievement, intelligence, and sex.

The Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-High Socioeconomic Group's (n = 8) mean of 20.500 was only .944 less than that of the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-Low Socioeconomic Group's (n = 9) 21.444. The variance of the High Socioeconomic Group was 58.571, the highest of all the categories. This, coupled with the 41.788 variance of the Low Socioeconomic Group and the small n values of the two categories, made the attainment of a significant t value an impossibility. The two groups, while manifesting a difference in standard deviation of 1.189 in favor of the Low Socioeconomic Group, nevertheless perceive the classroom situations more nearly the same than differently.

The means of both of these small socioeconomic groups fall below their large companion groups' means. The mean of the small High Socioeconomic Group was 2.100 less than that of the total High Socioeconomic Group's mean of 22.600, while the mean of the small Low Socioeconomic Group was 1.447 less than that of the total Low Socioeconomic Group's mean of 22.980. The trend here is consistent with the original hypothesis in that the low achievement factor inherent in the small groups should have resulted in their lower means. However, the male sex and the high intelligence factors should have counterbalanced this and negated the differential. Here again, the t value proved of no significance and the observable difference in the mean values may be attributed to mere chance alone. The data appear in Table XIX on page 82.

TABLE XIX

COMPARISON OF THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-MALE-HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-MALE-LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s ²	F	df	t
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Male- High Socioec.	8	20.500	7.653	58.571	1.401	15	.276
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Male- Low Socioec.	9	21.444	6.464	41.788			
Total High Socioeconomic	105	22.600	6.599	43.550			
Total Low Socioeconomic	101	22.980	6.232	38.844			

The sex variable between the low achieving, high intelligence, low socioeconomic children was examined next. The Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-Low Socioeconomic Group's (n = 9) mean of 21.444 was 3.864 lower than that of the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-Low Socioeconomic Group's (n = 13) mean of 25.308. This represents the greatest mean difference obtained between the categories compared. The resulting t value of 1.647 lacked but .078 being significant at the .10 level of probability and .433 being significant at the .05 level.

As has been pointed out in previous analyses, the value for significance might have been attained had the n values been larger and/or the variance of the Male Group smaller, it being twice the size of the

Female Group (Males = 41.788; Females = 20.889). The one t value of significance obtained in the study occurred with a combined n of twenty-eight, compared to this analysis' twenty-two and a combined variance of 45.021 compared to 62.677. The mean difference in the significant analysis was less than that of the one under consideration here, but the factors mentioned above were sufficient to cause a failure to reject the null hypothesis in the present case.

These factors lend credence to the idea that the inability to utilize the entire sample because of complications in the quantifying process could have lowered the n values and/or raised the variance values sufficiently to result in the failure to obtain t values great enough to reject the null hypothesis.

The data resulting from comparisons of these small male and female groups with the total Male Group (n = 101) and Female Group (n = 105) were not significant when subjected to the t test. Differences which occurred did so by chance alone. The mean of the small Male Group (21.444) was .734 less than that of the total Male Group (22.178). The mean of the small Female Group (25.308) surpassed that of the total Female Group (23.467) by 1.841. This inconsistency in the pattern is contrary to the expectations of the original hypotheses and differences in the means may be attributed to chance alone. The data appear in Table XX on page 84.

The Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Male-Low Socioeconomic Group (n = 9) was also used in the next analysis. This time the examiner controlled for the intelligence variable as the category was compared to the Low Achievement-Low Intelligence-Male-Low Socioeconomic Group (n = 23). These two groups were very similar in their perception of

the classroom situations as represented by the instrument. The means of the two groups were but .252 apart with the Low Intelligence Group (21.696) being the higher.

The standard deviations of the two groups were quite similar, the High Group's being 6.464 against the Low Group's 6.649. The curves of these two samples would be very similar and obviously the mean difference did not prove significant.

TABLE XX

COMPARISON OF THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-MALE-
LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH
INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE-LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Male- Low Socioec.	9	21.444	6.464	41.788	2.000	20	1.647
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Female- Low Socioec.	13	25.308	4.571	20.889			
Total Male	101	22.178	6.039	36.473			
Total Female	105	23.467	6.578	43.275			

The mean difference between the small High Intelligence Group (n = 9) and the total High Intelligence Group (n = 150) was 1.469 in favor

of the large group as expected in light of the low achievement, male sex, and low socioeconomic factors attributable to the small group. The total High Group mean was 22.913; the small High Group's was 21.444.

Similar findings resulted from a comparison of the means of the small Low Intelligence Group ($n = 23$) with the total Low Intelligence Group ($n = 56$). The small Low Group's mean of 21.696 was .929 less than that of the total Low Group's 22.625. Again, this is as predicted in light of the same factors alluded to above. It must be pointed out, however, that the reader should remember that these mean differences are not significant and may have occurred by chance alone.

The researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis of difference in perceptual style due to degree of intelligence based on these data. (See Table XXI, page 86.)

The Low Achievement-Low Intelligence-Male-Low Socioeconomic Group ($n = 23$) was compared to the Low Achievement-Low Intelligence-Female-Low Socioeconomic Group ($n = 33$) in the next analysis. The Male Group's mean of 21.696 was 1.577 less than that of the Female Group's 23.273, which is as hypothesized. However, this differential was not significant when subjected to the t test.

The standard deviations of the two groups indicate a differential of .795 with the Male Group's 6.649 being less than that of the Female Group (7.444).

The value of n of the two groups enables the examiner to postulate with considerable confidence that there is no significant difference between the means of these two groups.

TABLE XXI

COMPARISON OF THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-MALE-
LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-LOW
INTELLIGENCE-MALE-LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s ²	F	df	t
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Male- Low Socioec.	9	21.444	6.464	41.788	1.058	30	.097
Low Achieve.- Low Intell.- Male- Low Socioec.	23	21.696	6.649	44.213			
Total High Intelligence	150	22.913	6.077	36.933			
Total Low Intelligence	56	22.625	6.987	48.820			

The differences between the means of these two small groups and their total group counterparts were quite small and will not be considered here. (See Table XXII, page 87.)

The intelligence factor was isolated in the next analysis as the t test was computed on the Low Achievement-High Intelligence-Female-Low Socioeconomic Group (n = 13) and the Low Achievement-Low Intelligence-Female-Low Socioeconomic Group (n = 33). The High Intelligence Group's mean of 25.308 exceeded that of the Low Group (23.273) by 2.035. However, the very high variance of the Low Group (52.448) precluded any chance for significance.

TABLE XXII

COMPARISON OF THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-LOW INTELLIGENCE-MALE-
LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-LOW
INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE-LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
Low Achieve.- Low Intell.- Male- Low Socioec.	23	21.696	6.649	44.213	1.186	54	.828
Low Achieve.- Low Intell.- Female- Low Socioec.	33	23.273	7.241	52.448			
Total Male	101	22.178	6.039	36.473			
Total Female	105	23.467	6.578	43.275			

The standard deviation of 4.571 for the High Group as compared to 7.444 for the Low Group indicates that the curves of the two groups are quite different. The Low Group with an n of 33 would be much broader, while the High Group would be more leptokurtic in shape.

An analysis of the relationship between these two small groups and the total High Intelligence Group (n = 150) and total Low Intelligence Group (n = 56) also produced no significant mean differences. The small High Intelligence Group's mean of 25.308 proved to be 2.395 higher than the total High Intelligence Group's 22.913, while the small Low Intelligence Group's mean of 23.273 was .648 higher than the 22.625 mean value of the total Low Intelligence Group. These phenomena are not consistent with the hypothesis set forth by the investigator in

Chapter I, as the low achievement and low socioeconomic factors should have more than offset the sex variable advantage and caused the means of the small groups to be lower than the total groups. Such was not the case. Of course, mention has already been made of the fact that these differences are not significant. The data fail to reject the null hypothesis concerning the relationship between intelligence and children's perception.

TABLE XXIII

COMPARISON OF THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-HIGH INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE-
LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP WITH THE LOW ACHIEVEMENT-LOW
INTELLIGENCE-FEMALE-LOW SOCIOECONOMIC GROUP

Category	n	\bar{X}	s	s^2	F	df	t
Low Achieve.- High Intell.- Female- Low Socioec.	13	25.308	4.571	20.889	1.661	44	.938
Low Achieve.- Low Intell.- Female- Low Socioec.	33	23.273	7.241	52.448			
Total High Intelligence	150	22.913	6.077	36.933			
Total Low Intelligence	56	22.625	6.987	48.820			

Summation

A considerable number of weeks were consumed in planning, administering and analyzing the School Situation Perception Test used in this study. The search for such an instrument was laborious and unfruitful until the investigator found this instrument. The validity and reliability criteria were met in an adequate manner and the administrator anticipated using the resultant data for elaborating on the hypotheses. It was quite unexpected when it was discovered that mean differences between variables were almost totally not significant when exposed to the t test for probability.

The original hypotheses as stated in Chapter I are as follows:

(1) The High Achievement Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Low Achievement Group; (2) The High Intelligence Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Low Intelligence Group; (3) The High Socioeconomic Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Low Socioeconomic Group; and (4) The Female Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Male Group.

These hypotheses were converted to the null format and subjected to the t test procedure. The test consistently failed to reject the null hypotheses as follows: H_{01} , the data failed to reject the null on seven out of seven tests computed; H_{02} , the data failed to reject the null on five out of the five tests computed; H_{03} , the data failed to reject the null on five out of the six tests computed; H_{04} , the data failed to reject the null on six out of the six tests computed.

Since the t values indicated that the mean difference was significant on only one statistical analysis, the assumption must be made that all four hypotheses are invalid and that any differences in the perception of classroom situations as presented by the School Situation Perception Test in this study may well be due to chance alone instead of due to actual differences in perceptual style among the various groups of children.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This investigation was initiated because of a concern with the problem of differences in perceptual style of elementary aged children. It is the task of the school to be concerned with the whole child. The child's perception of his environment is indicative of his self-concept and thus is of interest to the educator.

The purpose of this study was to identify differences between high and low achievement groups, high and low intelligence groups, high and low socioeconomic groups, and sex groups in their perception of the same classroom situations. A perceptual diagnostic instrument was administered to two hundred thirty-two sixth grade children who had also attended grades four and five in the school district used in the study. Their composite scores were arranged in a positive-negative perception dichotomy and analyzed on the bases of the variables listed above through the use of the t test procedure.

The hypotheses tested were (1) The High Achievement Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Low Achievement Group; (2) The High Intelligence Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Low Intelligence Group; (3) The High Socioeconomic Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Low Socioeconomic Group; and

(4) The Female Group will tend to perceive classroom situations more favorably than will the Male Group. The data failed to reject the null on all four hypotheses.

The subjects' scores on the perception instrument were normally distributed. Although the variables achievement, intelligence, socioeconomic class, and sex did not prove to be related to perceptual style, the data show that each classroom used in the study contains three or more children who tend to perceive the classroom in a decidedly negative manner.

Implications and Recommendations

It is the belief of the researcher that there are distinct possibilities for further perfecting the Hughes-Carin instrument in order to make it a more sophisticated test with which to identify children's perceptions as being positive or negative.

Scoring criteria could be developed for the test with which one could classify a response to an item into one of five categories. These categories could be arranged in a hierarchy from negative to positive and assigned a quantity ranging from zero to five. It would then be possible to classify a child's score on the hierarchy as (a) negative, (b) more negative than positive, (c) neutral, (d) more positive than negative, and (e) positive.

The researcher feels that the items should be re-examined and those items which tend to fail to discriminate between differences in positive and negative perceptual style replaced by those which would perform this function more effectively. Some of the items elicited a literal translation from more children than other items. It is felt

that these items might be replaced by items which would tend to elicit a more valid type of response for perceptual discrimination purposes.

The reader is referred to Situation #3 of the instrument in Appendix A. Consider Question #1: (The teacher, attempting to transmit a point of good citizenship, has stated that if each child in the room would just watch one person, this would be a better world in which to live.) The question is asked, "What do you think the teacher was trying to do when she spoke?"

Several children responded in a manner indicating a literal translation of this situation, such as, "She wanted each one to pick out someone in the class and watch him." Such an item could be strengthened by changing the wording somewhat so that the child could better understand the meaning the situation is designed to portray. It would then be hoped that the respondent would reveal his perception of a situation (be it positive or negative) designed to portray the teacher in a helping role. This cannot be done unless the child is able to comprehend the subtle meaning of the teacher's statement in Situation #3.

The researcher feels this would strengthen the instrument's power to discriminate positive from negative perception. In fairness to the test designers, it should be pointed out that the instrument was not developed to discriminate positive from negative perceptual styles, but to provide a vehicle for observing children's perceptions, per se.

There were indications that the n of two hundred six was not large enough to obtain significant differences between mean values as the various categories were considered. Some of the small group categories contained an n value of only eight or nine, requiring larger t values

for significance on the t table. Although there were some t values which were so small as to strongly indicate no significant differences between means, there were some which yielded substantial values.

The investigator has already called attention to the fact that some of these t test computations would either have been of significance or very close to significance at the .05 level of probability, had the n value of the category been greater. The raising of the value of n has the effect of lowering the denominator of the equation from which t is derived. Thus, the smaller the value divided into the numerator, the greater the value of t. At the same time, the required table value of t diminishes as n increases, thus requiring a lesser t value from the calculation process.

The examiner was required to utilize as many of the subjects as possible from the entire sample in order to raise the n values of the small group categories. Even at this, there were six categories which yielded an n value of zero, precluding the use of analysis of variance and limiting the statistical analysis of the data.

If the investigator could have utilized a very large sample for such a study, for example ten thousand subjects, it is possible that the delineation between the high and low achievement groups, the high and low intelligence groups, and the high and low socioeconomic groups could have been broader than that used in this study. It is possible that one might have considered only those subjects whose mean grade placement score on the Stanford Achievement Test fell in the upper twenty-five percent of the sample as the High Achievement Group and those whose score fell in the lower twenty-five percent of the sample as the Low Achievement Group. Perhaps one could have utilized the same

procedure with the intelligence dichotomy as well as that of the socio-economic groups. Similar procedure could have been followed in identifying the positive perceiving subjects and those who tended to perceive in a negative style, discarding the middle fifty percent of the sample.

This procedure would have the effect of creating a wider gulf between the two poles of the classifications. The investigator believes that this design would be much more desirable and would result in a more sophisticated study than was attempted here. However, it must be pointed out that one could still very well find that the t tests would yield data indicating no significant differences between means.

It has been established that the original hypotheses proved to be invalid on the basis of these statistical data. However, this does not mean that there were not significant findings in the study. Probably the most significant fact arising out of the investigation is the range of scores made by the subjects on the School Situation Perception Test (range = 7-39). The normal distribution of the scores as documented in Chapter III supports the postulate of the test's ability to discriminate between positive and negative perceptual styles.

Table XXIV, page 96, reveals that the lower twenty-five percent of the subjects as grouped in a hierarchy according to composite scores on the Hughes-Carin instrument represent all schools used in the study. These figures serve to point up the fact that each sixth grade classroom in the school district contains some children who perceive the classroom situation in a manner which is decidedly negative. The normal distribution of the total sample would indicate that these findings could have implications for other grade levels in the district

through the generalization process, as it will be remembered, the subjects represent only children who have also attended grades four and five in this environment.

TABLE XXIV

NUMBER OF SUBJECTS WHOSE COMPOSITE SCORE ON THE
SCHOOL SITUATION PERCEPTION TEST FALLS INTO
THE LOWER QUARTILE BY SCHOOL

School	Number of Classrooms	Subjects Falling In Lower Quartile
A	1	3
B	3	13
C	2	11
D	3	12
E	3	11
Total	12	50

These negative perceiving subjects present a challenge to the classroom teacher and administrator. Although it appears that achievement, intelligence, sex, and socioeconomic class are unrelated to the child's perceptual style on the basis of the findings in this study, the literature does indicate that negativism is inversely proportional to one's happiness and self-actualization. These factors are just as much the responsibility of the school which is interested in the whole

child as are achievement, intelligence, sex, and socioeconomic class.

Since the negative perception group is composed of as many high achievement, high intelligence, high socioeconomic class children as their low counterparts, and their perception of the classroom environment is unrelated to these variables, it would seem that their negativism might have come from outside the school rather than from within. Prescott¹ notes that research on perception shows that the child sees in a situation whatever his early experiences have made him ready to see and that, insofar as the earlier experiences differ, children will see different things in, and get different meanings from, the same situation.

The reader is reminded of the experimental work of Kelly² cited in Chapter II in which he established a stereotypic set in the perceptual programming mechanism of his students and "caused" them to perceive the substitute professor in a negative or positive manner. Perhaps his work lends some clue as to the reason for the negative perceptions of the subjects in the present study. It is an intriguing thought that this negative perceptual style might be almost totally unrelated to the classroom as such, but could be the result of forces outside the school environment.

Kelly's findings would indicate that these children could well have brought these negative feelings with them into the classroom at the inception of their educational careers. Attitudes of suspicion toward teachers, fearful tales of punishment meted out by school authorities, distrust, scorn, derision of the school experience, and contempt which have been manifested by the child's parents and peers could have contributed to inducing a stereotypic set in the child's

perception of the classroom. It would be revealing to study the relationship of these children's perceptions of the classroom and their perceptions of the rest of their environment. One suspects the correlation might be high.

The findings indicate that it is not now a matter of the negative perceptual pattern's inhibiting the child's performance in the classroom, but that the child tends to be unhappy in his classroom environment. The fact that so many high achieving, high intelligence, and high socioeconomic class children exhibited a negative perceptual pattern could mean that they're bored with the classroom experience. Perhaps years of being unchallenged have established this perceptual set in these children.

One need be no expert to comprehend that the negative individual is not a pleasant person with which to associate. He tends toward ferreting out the unpleasant aspects of situations and centers his conversation and thoughts about these. He may achieve in the classroom while having a critical attitude toward both teacher and classmates. He may complain that no one understands him while one of the basic problems is that he fails to understand himself. These oft times talented individuals, while achieving in the classroom, at the same time limit their contribution to society and to self because of this poor self-concept which manifests itself in overt negativism. Such characteristics as feelings of inadequacy, a defeatist attitude, a pessimistic outlook, paranoid tendencies, feelings of insecurity or inferiority, overt manifestations of aggression toward others, and conflict with others and self interfere with the individual's ability to develop acceptable patterns of behavior. They also make it very

difficult for him to attain self-actualization and find his niche in the social environment.

The child who establishes a life style such as this, finding himself consistently in conflict with the accepted norms of society, is rapidly developing an attitudinal pattern of rebellion. He demonstrates an inability to discriminate as to when he should be resistant to the pressures of society and when he should yield to them. One could hypothesize that such behavior is actually due to real negative feelings on the part of the respondent rather than the result of rational thinking on his part.

The purpose of the school is to assist the individual in becoming a happy, purposeful, contributing, self-actualized individual. Certainly the individual who is limited by negativism is in need of assistance.

The role of the developmental elementary school counselor is one of assisting teachers in understanding such children and in lending direct assistance to the child himself. The classroom teacher's training is weighted toward methodology and subject matter while that of the developmental elementary school counselor is in human development, learning, and personality. Ideally, the developmental counselor could play a significant role in diluting this negative effect while working in an elementary school situation over a period of years. The school district used in this study has no such counselors in its employ; hence, the remainder of the discussion will center about steps which could be taken in such a district to better meet the needs of these children.

Combs and Snygg³ have written that the individual is a unique person and his behavior must be considered as related to his self-concept and his concept of his place in his environment. Negative affect is a barometer of a negative self-concept. A quest, on the part of the teacher, toward a better understanding of the student's behavior leads to a more empathetic teacher-pupil relationship.

The philosophy of Adler as described by Dinkmeyer⁴ offers positive assistance to the conscientious teacher as she seeks to help each individual in her classroom. He feels that the purpose of the child's behavior is the key to understanding the child himself. He states that it is more important to recognize the purpose of the behavior than to seek the cause of it. The child's behavior is goal-directed. The whole pattern of his life tells us why he acts as he does. Thus, the classroom teacher can use anecdotal references, family history, observation, case study, etc., to attempt to discover the behavioral goals of the child. Once these goals are revealed, the child may be led toward "discovering" more acceptable, efficient, and productive methods of achieving them.

Reality is of little consequence here. It is a common mistake of some elementary classroom teachers to suppose that their own perceptions should be the standard for all the children in the classroom. Ayer⁵ has written that there is really no disagreement concerning the facts of the matter, but that the contention lies in the child's refusal to describe the facts as the teacher does. This should not threaten the mature teacher. She should consider the purpose of his interpretation of the stimuli in order to better understand the negativistic child. He is a slave to his perceptual set. He is in need of

emancipation, not condemnation. Prescott⁶ has been quoted in an earlier chapter as stating that insofar as earlier experiences differ, children will see different things in, and get different meanings from, the same situation. The teacher should recognize this as a natural phenomenon.

The works of McClelland and Liberman,⁷ Wispe and Drambarean,⁸ and Bruner, Postman, and McGinnies⁹ have interesting implications for this study. The reader will recall from Chapter II that these researchers found evidence of higher thresholds for subjects' low-value words and lower thresholds for high-value words. These findings, coupled with those of Kelly¹⁰ as he worked with stereotypic set inducement, would lead one to postulate that the negativistic child is precluded from experiencing the positive aspects of many of the stimuli to which he is exposed in the classroom. This is a formidable hurdle for the teacher. However, change can occur in a corrective environment.

Perhaps the school has presented the stimuli in a manner which evokes negative perceptual response on the part of certain children. Chapter II discussed the matter of the school's being middle-class value oriented and the impact this has upon the child who is representative of a different social class. It is important that the school have the ability to be objective about the possibility that it may be the responsibility of the school to alter its mode of presentation of the stimuli, rather than concentrating solely upon effecting a change in the perceptual style of the child.

If a particular type of teaching procedure or interaction which is fostered by the teacher as a part of her plan for sharing learning experiences with the children evokes negative affect or perceptions

by some students, it would be reasonable to question the wisdom of using this technique when alternatives were available. The school is, in the frame of reference of the larger society, failing to meet the needs of the child who perceives in a negative manner.

The classroom teacher can be a positive factor in the child's life as a result of gaining insight into his behavior. Symonds¹¹ has said that the self-perception of the child is but a reflection of the attitudes expressed toward him by others. The teacher is a significant "other" in the life of the child. A positive, empathetic, accepting, non-judgmental, non-personality-evaluative attitude on her part toward the negativistic child can have a positive therapeutic effect upon his perceptual style.

FOOTNOTES

¹Daniel Prescott, The Child in the Educative Process (New York, 1957), p. 90.

²H. H. Kelly, "The Warm-Cold Variable in First Impressions of Persons," Journal of Personality, XVIII (1950), 431-439.

³Arthur Combs and Donald Snygg, Individual Behavior: A Perceptual Approach to Behavior (New York, 1959), p. 17.

⁴Don C. Dinkmeyer, "Conceptual Foundations of Counseling: Adlerian Theory and Practice," The School Counselor, XI, No. 3 (1964), 174-178.

⁵A. J. Ayer, Foundations of Empirical Knowledge (New York, 1940), pp. 17-18.

⁶Prescott, p. 90.

⁷Leo Postman, J. Bruner, and E. McGinnies, "Personal Values as Selective Factors in Perception," Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, XLIII (1948), 142-154.

⁸L. G. Wispe and N. C. Drambarean, "Physiological Need, Word Frequency and Visual Duration Thresholds," Journal of Experimental Psychology, XLVI (1953), 25-31.

⁹Postman, pp. 142-154.

¹⁰Kelly, pp. 431-439.

¹¹P. M. Symonds, The Ego and the Self (New York, 1951).

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APPENDIX A

SCHOOL SITUATION PERCEPTION TEST

SITUATION #1

Charlie came to the teacher with a health book and said:

Charlie: Miss Smith, May I borrow this book overnight so I can finish my work?

Teacher: Yes, but you bring it to me first thing in the morning so I'll know you brought it back.

Question: How would you feel if you were Charlie?

SITUATION #2

A sixth grade class was working on arithmetic times tables and the teacher was walking around the room helping children. When the teacher came to Johnny's place, she said:

Teacher: Did you do the special work I gave you?

Johnny: You mean counting by 8's? I wrote them up to 96.

Teacher: That's wonderful. Can you say them right off to 96?

Johnny: 8, 16, 24, 31...uh 33? No, 32.

Teacher: Yes, 32. You didn't work on them did you?

Question: What do you think Johnny thought when the teacher first stopped at his desk?

Question: How would you feel if you were Johnny?

SITUATION #3

The sixth grade had a bad day and the children were noisy and uncooperative. The teacher and the children didn't seem to be able to understand each other. The teacher and children decided to see what had gone wrong and the children started giving reasons.

Frank: Some of us felt bad about the grades we got on the arithmetic test you returned today.

Sally: I think we sat too long in our assembly this morning. Our legs were cramped.

Don: Well, it's Friday and we had a long week and we're tired. Besides, we changed seats today and that got us hot and nervous.

Tom: Let's make some rules and pay fines.

Sally: Paying fines doesn't help. I think we should just all try to help each other.

Teacher: Maybe we also need to help ourselves. If each of us would only watch himself, that's all it would take to have a perfect society.

Question: How do you think the class felt? What do you think the teacher was trying to do when she spoke?

SITUATION #4

The class was reading library books. The teacher was moving around the room. She stopped at Tom, who had trouble reading, and spoke to him,

Question: What do you think the teacher said to Tom?

SITUATION #5

The teacher was showing the class how to work fractions problems and they were working along with her. As they were getting ready to work on their own, she said:

Teacher: Let me warn you that in your work on page 38, there will be some problems that may trip you. I'm sure you can do them.

Question: What do you think the teacher was trying to do?

Question: How do you think the class felt?

SITUATION #6

There was laughing and talking as the sixth grade returned to their room after lunch. This was the time when the teacher usually read a story aloud to the class. The teacher waited several minutes for the class to quiet down, but the class was very noisy and restless.

Teacher: People, don't you want to hear a story today? (Several children indicated that they did, but the class remained noisy. The teacher waited several minutes.)

Teacher: I don't think it is worth it to wait any longer. (The teacher closed the book, put it on her desk and walked to the front of the room.)

Question: What did the teacher do to the class?

Question: How do you think the class felt?

SITUATION #7

Yesterday, the teacher had gotten a book from the library for John who was having trouble reading. John met the teacher in the lunchroom and said:

John: I've finished my book. I surely liked it. It was the first whole book I've ever read.

Teacher: It is a good one, isn't it?

John: When I come to the library tomorrow, I want you to find me another one about man-made satellites. Will you?

Teacher: I certainly will. I think we can find a good one.

Question: What do you think happened to John the next day?

SITUATION #8

The sixth grade was working with clay. Some boys and girls were modeling animals, while others were making bowls and dishes to be used for Christmas gifts for their parents. After they had been working for ten minutes the teacher said:

Teacher: I'm afraid we'll have to stop now. It is time to clean up. Take your clay and make it into a ball and put it back into the jar. Maybe we'll be able to make our Christmas gifts some other time.

Question: How would you have felt if you were a member of the class?

SITUATION #9

The sixth grade class was drawing faces for art. The teacher had shown them how to draw a laughing boy and girl, and then the teacher asked the class to draw an unhappy lady.

Teacher: Ann, will you pose as our model? Thanks. Notice how the corners of her mouth turn down as she acts unhappy.

Larry: The corners of her eyes went down, too.

Teacher: That is right. This is the way we show it on the blackboard. The eyebrows slant this way, the eyes are narrow and slant down at the corner.

Question: What was the teacher doing?

Question: How do you feel when your teacher does something like this?

SITUATION #10

It was library time and the class had just entered the library but was disappointed to see another class already there.

Teacher: I liked the way you came upstairs today. I heard someone say "Aw, nuts" as we entered the library. I think I can guess why. You expected me to read you a story, but another class was assigned for this time. I got my days mixed up because we didn't have school yesterday and I lost track of the days. So, you see, I wasn't prepared for this. (The children laugh and agree that they had been mixed up too.)

Teacher: Will it be O.K. to have our story Thursday instead?

Question: What do you think the teacher was trying to do when she asked the last question?

SITUATION #11

The sixth grade class members were moving chairs around in order to see a film. After a few minutes, the teacher said:

Teacher: The class is ready to see the film now. I'll bet I can close my eyes and point to Tom. He is always ready and doing the right thing.

Question: How would you feel if you were a member of the class?

Question: How would you feel if you were Tom?

SITUATION #12

Joe: Miss Smith, can you tell me what this word says?

Teacher: What does the first letter say, Joe?

Question: If you were Joe, how would you feel?

Question: What do you wish the teacher would do?

SITUATION #13

The sixth grade class was selecting library books in the room. Jim was having a hard time reading and had asked the teacher six words on the first page of the book he had chosen.

Jim: I think I'll get a book I can read. This one is too hard.

Teacher: I think that's a good idea. You'll enjoy reading if you get an easier book.

Question: What did the teacher do for Jim?

Question: How do you think Jim felt?

SITUATION #14

Teacher: I will be busy counting the lunch money for a while, class, so will you please help Linda, your class president, start the opening exercises?

Class: Yes.

Linda: Sally, it's your turn to take the roll. (Sally comes to the front.)

Teacher: Joe, Bill....you're not helping.

Question: How would you feel if you were Joe or Bill?

Question: What do you wish the teacher would have done?

SITUATION #15

The fire alarm had rung for a fire drill and the class had to leave their work on their mural they were painting. They filed quietly outside the building, waited a few minutes, and came back in when the all clear sounded.

Teacher: Let's clean up now. The fire drill took away some of our time from our mural work and we must go on to our arithmetic work.

Class: Can't we finish some of the things we started? It will only take a few minutes.

Teacher: I'm sorry, but the fire drill was not my fault. Not let's clean up quickly and quietly.

Question: How would you feel if you were a member of the class?

Question: What do you wish the teacher would have done?

APPENDIX B

DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS

School	n	<u>Achievement</u>		<u>Intelligence</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Socioeconomic</u>	
		High	Low	High	Low	Male	Fem.	High	Low
A	18	4	14	14	4	8	10	6	12
B	53	32	21	43	10	25	28	35	18
C	43	10	33	16	27	22	21	0	43
D	45	29	16	40	5	25	20	33	12
E	47	30	17	37	10	21	26	31	16
Total	206	105	101	150	56	101	105	105	101

APPENDIX C

DISTRIBUTION OF COMPOSITE PERCEPTION SCORES

School	n	<u>Positive Perceivers</u>			<u>Negative Perceivers</u>		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
A	18	2	7	9	6	3	9
B	53	8	11	19	17	17	34
C	43	8	10	18	14	11	25
D	45	12	4	16	13	16	29
E	47	11	11	22	10	15	25
Total	206	41	43	84	60	62	122

VITA

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Thesis: THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ACHIEVEMENT GROUPS, INTELLIGENCE GROUPS, SEX GROUPS, AND SOCIOECONOMIC GROUPS IN THEIR PERCEPTION OF THE SAME ELEMENTARY CLASSROOM SITUATIONS

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