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A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN THE SELF CONCEPT OF URBAN
AND SUBURBAN SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOL
STUDENTS.

The University of Oklahoma, Ed.D., 1976
Education, administration

Xerox University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
GRADUATE COLLEGE

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN
THE SELF CONCEPT OF URBAN AND SUBURBAN
SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOL STUDENTS

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

BY
DONALD M. EDWARDS
Norman, Oklahoma
1976

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN
THE SELF CONCEPT OF URBAN AND SUBURBAN
SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOL STUDENTS

APPROVED BY

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DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

This thesis is dedicated to my mother, Mrs. Essie D. Edwards, whose strength and understanding has been a constant source of encouragement and inspiration to my life.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to express sincere appreciation to the many individuals who contributed to the completion of this study. Many friends, without direct realizations, contributed immeasurably to this achievement.

Special acknowledgement is extended the director of this study, Dr. Gerald Kidd, for his sensitive concern, guidance, and active encouragement throughout all phases of the doctoral program. Appreciation is expressed to other members of the program committee, Dr. Robert F. Bibens, Dr. Jack F. Parker, and Dr. Richard P. Williams. Each has made a significant contribution to the professional growth of the writer.

Thanks are offered to Mr. L. W. Good, Mr. Charles Greene, and the writer's colleagues of the Oklahoma City Millwood School System for their understanding and assistance during all stages of the thesis preparation. Gratitude is also expressed to Drs. Melvin R. Todd and James F. Robinson for their encouragement, assistance, and guidance.

Finally, a very special thanks to the writer's wife, Dessie, and his children, Donald, Donna, Dale, and Dwayne, for their patience, understanding, thoughtfulness, and encouragement during the entire endurance of the doctoral program.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

One of the most important concepts embedded in contemporary education is in our understanding of the self concept and its vital role in human growth and development. Positive concepts of self provide the individual with an internal security and strength from which he can deal more effectively with the world.¹

"Seeing one's self as, able, acceptable, wanted, respected, as a person of dignity and integrity has far reaching positive effects on the learning process."² Previous studies indicate that the self concept is shaped by significant others, i.e., parents, teachers and school/classmates. Studies also indicate that systematic attempts to improve the self concepts of students result in large scale decreases in behavior problems, improved relations of students with students and students with teachers, in addition to improved learning in subject matter.

¹A. W. Combs, "Human Rights and Students Rights," Educational Leadership, (May, 1974), pp. 672-675.

²Ibid.

One has only to explore the periphery of related literature to isolate further credence as to the importance and theoretical basis of self concept in relation to the student.

Maslow identified self-esteem needs and needs of self-actualization as two of the very basic needs of all human beings. "Man wants to feel that he is worthwhile, that he can master something in his own environment, that he has competence and an independence and a freedom and a feeling of being recognized for some kind of endeavor." The highest needs of self-actualization involves the need for recognition and for aesthetic reality. All human beings have a natural strong desire and need to know, understand and accept himself in relation to his total environment.¹

Burns offered the following thoughts in this respect:

Each human being shares with all other human beings needs which he must fill in order to ensure his continuing existence Therefore, we can postulate that, since all men seem to exhibit common needs in existence and similar ways of filling those needs, we can show the commonality in our existence.²

According to Taylor, personal problems of students in the areas of academic achievement, self discipline and interaction with others are very much related to one's feeling about self.³

¹Abraham Maslow, Motivation and Personality, (New York: Harper and Row, 1954), pp. 19-36.

²Sarah Burns, "On Being Human," (Unpublished Paper, Norman, University of Oklahoma, 1970).

³Ronald G. Taylor, "Personality Traits and Discrepant Achievement: A Review," Journal of Counseling Psychology, (Spring, 1964), pp. 76-82.

Student self concept apparently affects most aspects of student behavior and learning. It is, therefore, incumbent on both administrators and teachers to continuously evaluate the status quo and make necessary adjustments toward becoming more humanistic in curriculum, instructional approaches and methodologies.

For purposes of this research, the development of a positive self concept should be conceived as an ultimate goal of human relations and humanistic education. This conceptualization, coupled with the development of human potentialities as being a very basic purpose of public schools, lends further support and direction to the ideal that secondary schools must be vehicles to inculcate in its students those values which this society prizes - values which encompass intimate human rights and human responsibilities.

Combs postulated, "positive concepts of self are not learned from denial of student rights. A healthy concept is most likely to result from personal experiences of respect and concern for personal rights, from being treated as valuable citizens, as persons of dignity and worth."¹

The principle of "Positive Regard" is seemingly a necessary condition for human growth and development. Based on this writer's experiences, those educators considered most effective by teachers and students are those who appear to have a deep respect for the dignity and integrity of the individual, and those who are aware that the

¹Arthur W. Combs, "Human Rights and Students Rights," Educational Leadership, (May, 1974), p. 675.

humanistic approach is conducive to rapid and more effective understanding of self and the world of learning.

The secondary schools are constantly being indicted from many quarters as being insensitive, unconcerned with, and often violative of the most fundamental human and civil rights of students.

In a summary report prepared by the National Committee on Secondary Education in 1971, it was reported that educationally, the urban area schools are in deep trouble. "Recognized until just a few years ago as the home of the very best schools, they now have few of the most successful schools and many of the most problem ridden." The report continues, "these cities have two contrasting problems with their high schools. On the one hand, they have the problem of maintaining a kind of secondary education that will compete with suburban schools and thus hold middle-income families in the cities and, conceivably, even encourage them to come back to the central city from the suburbs. But, at the same time, they have to cope with a group of young people who do poorly in school, and who do not get jobs or make satisfactory adult adjustment when they drop out of school."¹

McKenna stated that students complain that their instructors did not treat them as human beings of dignity and worth. A great many students are of the opinion that their instructors do not try

¹Commission Report, "Big-City Schools, Present and Future," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, (January, 1971), pp. 94-104.

very hard to understand how they feel about themselves, their relationships to their peers, to adults, and to the greater community.¹

Another indictment of secondary schools contributing to the non-development of positive self concept by violating the fundamental human and civil rights of students might be found in a statement by Snider which follows:

The thesis advanced here is a high percentage of those individuals now practicing administration in the public schools and institutions of higher learning in the nation provide a quality and a brand of leadership for their schools which does not contribute significantly to the achievement of the purposes for which the institution exists and is in fact inconsistent with the political, philosophical, and social framework of the American Democratic Society.²

Empirically, and as evidenced by previous studies, the open hostility, conflicts, parental apathy, drop-outs, expulsions, distrust between students and staff does not exist to the degree in the suburban area high schools as it is said to exist in the inner city schools.

Much public concern has been focused in recent years upon the varied problems of the urban schools and paramount to those concerns are the areas of student achievement and discipline. In most instances, the standard level of comparison has been the suburban area schools.

Assuming the empirical evidence and public concern to be valid, this research effort was conducted to ascertain the

¹Bernard McKenna, "Student Unrest: Some Causes and Cures," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Volume 55 (February, 1971), pp. 54-60.

²Glenn R. Snider, "Educational Leadership: An Analysis," The National Association of Secondary Principals, (April, 1965), p. 30.

quantitative level of self concept of urban and suburban area secondary students, compute a comparison and analyze its implications and ramifications for student achievement and discipline.

The Problem

The problem of this study was to determine the statistically significant difference between the self concept of urban and suburban area public school students in the Metropolitan Oklahoma City area.

Hypotheses to be Tested

- H₀1: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban and suburban area students.
- H₀2: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male and female students.
- H₀3: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for junior high school and high school students.
- H₀4: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban or suburban males and females.
- H₀5: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban or suburban junior high school or high school students.
- H₀6: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male or female junior high school or high school students.
- H₀7: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male and female, urban or suburban, junior high school or high school students.

Delimitations of the Study

The investigation was limited to public school students in selected schools of the Greater Oklahoma City Metropolitan Area. The sample for analysis was confined to students in grades seven through twelve only.

Although there may exist numerous conceptualizations of human rights, this investigation was restricted to the rights as identified by the Phi Delta Kappa's, A Guide For Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights.

Definition of Terms

1. Positive Self Concept. The individual who perceives himself as having a sense of self worth, essentiality and respect. An individual who understands and accepts himself in relation to the differences of others and is in touch with his own values.
2. Negative Self Concept. An individual who has an attitude of insecurity, fearfulness, and who lacks confidence. This individual feels unaccepted and his personal self is not accepted as being worthy. His ability to interact with others is limited as tensions, fears, uncertainties and inferiorities lead to a strong defensive reaction to social situations.
3. High School Students. The term will be used to indicate those students of the public schools enrolled in grades ten through twelve.
4. Junior High School Students. For purposes of this study, the term refers to those students of the public schools enrolled in grades seven through nine.

5. Human Rights. The concept of human rights is based on the belief that human beings live together in ways which accord each person full dignity, respect, and value, simply because he is human. The human rights identified in the Phi Delta Kappa statement on "Education and Human Rights" are those central to this investigation.
6. Human Relations. Human relations is a concept used to describe the climate of interactions among and between individuals and between groups in our society.
7. Humanistic School. A school which asserts the dignity and worth of the student and his capacity for self-realization.
8. Inner-City and/or Urban. The terms will be used interchangeably to denote that relating to, characteristic of, or constituting a city.
9. Suburban. An outlying part of a city or town; a smaller community adjacent to the city.
10. Low Achiever and/or Underachiever. The terms will be used interchangeably to denote one who does not acclaim a desired aim or perform in accordance to prescribed educational institutional standard as would be expected on the basis of his intelligence.
11. High Achiever and/or Overachiever. The terms will be used interchangeably to denote one who attains a desired end or aim as established by the educational institution as would be expected on the basis of his intelligence.

Design and Procedure of the Study

The study was designed to indicate whether there were statistically significant differences between the self concept of

urban and suburban secondary public school male and female students. The descriptive-survey method of investigation was employed in the study. The method is described by Good as being useful when securing information pertaining to an existing or current condition and may involve the procedures of analysis and classification of data.¹

Procedures

The procedures carried out in this investigation were as follows:

1. Index and bibliographies were consulted to obtain additional references to printed materials relevant to the problem.
2. A careful and detailed examination was made of published books, articles and dissertation abstracts.
3. The subjects were selected via a random sampling technique from students enrolled in selected urban and suburban public schools of the Greater Oklahoma City Metropolitan Area.
4. The subjects were administered the Oklahoma City Secondary Self-Esteem Inventory.
5. The data was compiled and analyzed using a three-way analysis of variance.
6. A statistical comparison was made of the findings.
7. The final report was drafted.

¹Carter V. Good, Introduction to Educational Research, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959), p. 167.

Sample

The subjects of this investigation consisted of 100 urban students and 100 suburban area students in the Oklahoma City Metropolitan Area as of the school year 1975-76. The actual sample size was arbitrarily selected because of the ease of handling and the economics involved as related to securing the necessary data.

The selected samples were randomly stratified by sex and grades to include the quota number of students in junior high school, grades seven through nine, and the quota number of high school students in grades ten through twelve from school rosters secured from each target building principal. A table of random digits developed by Fisher and Yates was used in the sample selection.¹

The selection of urban subjects included those of the Oklahoma City Public School System. The selection of suburban subjects included those enrolled in the Edmond and Choctaw Public School Systems.

Data Collection Instrument

The "Secondary Self-Esteem Inventory" was utilized to collect the necessary data. The instrument was modified from the "Cooper-Smith Self-Esteem Inventory" and normed by the Department of Research and Statistics of the Oklahoma City Public School System.²

¹Ronald A. Fisher and Frank Yates, Statistical Tables for Biological, Agricultural and Medical Research, (New York: Hofner Publishing Company, Inc., 1953, pp. 114-119.

²The Self-Esteem Inventory was developed by the Oklahoma City Public School's Department of Research and Statistics.

The "Secondary Self-Esteem Inventory" consists of 45 self descriptive items, of these, 24 assess the individual's perception of the general self, 8 assess the individual's school perception, and 13 assess the individual's perception of self with peer relations. For each item, the respondent is asked to choose one of two response options labeled "like me" or "unlike me."

Test-retest readability was established at .88 over a five week period using the Kuder-Richardson formula 20 test. The $KR_{20} = .75$.

Construct validity was based upon Cooper-Smith's research on self-esteem. Concurrent validity was established at .875 correlation with mathematic concepts and at .479 correlation with the Otis-Lennon Mental Abilities Intelligent Quotient Test.

Procedures for Collecting Data

A personal conference was conducted with the Superintendent of each target school system to ascertain permission to conduct the study. Subsequent conferences were held with the principal of each target school to clarify procedures for the study, relating time schedules and pertinent follow-up.

Questionnaires securing parental permission were sent to the students selected to participate in the study along with a letter of introduction and explanation. The students were administered the "Secondary Self-Esteem Inventory" at each school site by a designated official of that school. A letter of appreciation was sent to the Superintendents and principals of the target systems.

Statistical Treatment of the Data

The statistical treatment used in the computations was the three-way analysis of variance. The analysis of variance was used because it permits an analysis of the data in more than two samples at a time.¹

The results of the analysis of variance will be presented in reporting tables indicating the following values.

1. The difference in ratings of urban and suburban area students.
2. The difference in ratings of male and female students.
3. The difference in ratings of junior high school and high school students.
4. The difference in ratings of urban or suburban male and female students.
5. The difference in ratings for urban or suburban junior high school or high school students.
6. The difference in ratings for male or female junior high school or high school students.
7. The difference in ratings for male or female, urban or suburban, junior high school or high school students.

Organization of the Study

The study consists of five chapters. Chapter I includes the statement of the problem, the theoretical framework from which the

¹Freeman F. Elzey, "Simple Analysis of Variance," A Programmed Introduction to Statistics, (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1966), p. 212.

problem evolved as well as major divisions describing the study, its need, and treatment of the data.

The review of related literature pertinent to the study is included in Chapter II. The review of literature focused around three specific questions:

1. What is self concept and how is it formulated?
2. What is the relationship between the self concept and individual achievement-behavior?
3. What has been the prevailing mood of Secondary Institutions in relation to practices which have been identified as perpetuating or hindering the development of positive self concepts within student members?

The design of the study and procedures involved in its completion is included in Chapter III, and Chapter IV is designed to include a presentation and analysis of the data.

Chapter V contains a summary of the study, conclusions based on findings, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

Introduction

One result of functioning on a conceptual level is that the human being develops a set of attitudes, impressions, and cognitions about himself frequently labeled the "self concept." The self and the self concept have seemingly been topics of concern to behavioral scientists since the late 1800's and it is now apparently viewed as a kind of central construct for the understanding of people and their behavior. A careful review of the professional literature revealed an abundance of research related to the self concept with broad implications for the various segments of the school community to be concerned with identifying and manipulating those contingencies most potent in the development and maintenance of the self concept. The education of individuals is dependent upon the understanding and prediction of their behavior. Assuming that the self concept is a means toward better understanding and prediction of behavior, it should then be a significant factor within the educational arena.

For the purpose of this investigation, the review of literature centered around three specific questions:

- (1) What is self concept and how is it formulated?

(2) What is the relationship between the self concept and individual achievement-behavior?

(3) What has been the prevailing mood of secondary institutions in relation to practices which have been identified as perpetuating or hindering the development of positive self concepts within student members?

The literature reviewed in each of the general areas implied clearly that as we learn more about how the individual comes to view himself, the more likely will we be able to effect change in that view. More importantly, knowledge of the individual student's consistency of self-perceptions, as well as the value placed on those perceptions, positive or negative, should enhance both the efficiency and effectiveness of the educational process.

What is Self Concept and How is it Formulated?

Every individual has a self concept and although theories of its development vary considerably, there is a general consensus that self concept does not exist at birth nor is it a result of simple maturation. Most theorists view the self concept as a developmental product that is primarily molded by the individual's interaction with the social environment.

In her book "Peoplemaking," Satir stated "I am convinced that there are no genes to carry the feeling of worth. It is learned ..."¹

¹Virginia Satir, Peoplemaking, (Palo Alto, California: Science and Behavior Books, Inc., 1972), p. 24.

In Rogerian theory, the self is a differentiated portion of the phenomenal field and consists of patterns of perceptions and values that are experienced as "I" or "me." Roger described his point of view as follows:

As a result of interaction with the environment and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others, the structure of self is formed -- an organized fluid, but consistent conceptual pattern of perceptions of characteristics and relationships of the "I" or the "me," together with values attached to these concepts.¹

Crow, Murry, and Smythe characterized the self concept as "a syndrome of attitudes and feelings that accompany the individual's awareness of himself as a person together with what he believes himself to be." They pointed out that the individual's self concept begins to develop as soon as he identifies himself with members of his family and significant others. It was their feeling that the process usually starts in a family setting and is affected by various child rearing practices to which the individual is subjected along with the socio-economic status of the family.²

The authors identified four significant factors as being involved in the formation of the self concept:

- (1) the individual's unique biological structure
- (2) the individual's gradual accumulation of experiences

¹C. R. Rogers, Client-Centered Therapy, (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1951), p. 498.

²Lester Crow, Walter Murry, Hugh Smythe, Educating the Culturally Disadvantaged Child, (New York: Davis McKay Co., 1967), p. 21.

- (3) the individual's relationships with parents and guardians
- (4) the individual's perception of his success or failure.¹

It was purported by the author, that all of the above mentioned factors are mutually interactive, affected by the established self concept, and in turn, affect the self concept.

Similarly, Hurlock cited two factors as being determinants of the thoughts and feelings the individual has of himself:

(1) The physical determinants which are usually formed first; they relate to the individual's general appearance - its attractiveness or unattractiveness.

(2) The psychological determinants which consist of the qualities and abilities that affect the individual's adjustment to life including such qualities as courage, honesty, independence, self-confidence, aspirations, and abilities of various kinds.²

A back door approach toward determining the meaning of self concept might be best expressed by Emily Dickinson in her poem where she wrote: "I am nobody! Who are you! Are you nobody too?"³

According to Sullivan, "the self is made up of reflected appraisals."⁴ He maintained that the earliest experiences which

¹Ibid., p. 22.

²Elizabeth B. Hurlock, Child Development, (New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1972), pp. 362-364.

³Emily Dickinson, "I'm Nobody," in The Poems of Emily Dickinson, (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1939).

⁴Harry S. Sullivan, Conceptions of Modern Psychiatry, (Washington: The William A. White Psychiatric Foundation, 1947), p. 53.

influence the development of the self are those experiences with people. The attitudes and feelings of "significant others" can be communicated to the child by a process of empathy before the child is able to perceive and consciously recognize what is taking place. At a later stage when the child is able to understand language and confront restraints against his freedom, the self system evolves.

In a similar vein, Cooley perceived the self concept as a developmental product which arises out of social interaction. In his words, "each to each a looking glass reflects the other that doth pass." It was his feeling that the individual's attitude and cognitions about himself are products of his assessment of how "significant others" view him.¹

Hurlock felt that the individual learns to think and feel about himself as defined by others and develops an image of self as the chief actor in his private world. She referred to these as "mirror images" and suggested that the mirror images develop primarily from the way parents, teachers, and significant other persons describe, punish, praise, or love the individual.²

Mead described the process of self concept development as follows:

¹C. H. Cooley, Human Nature and Social Order, (New York: Scribner, 1922), p. 152.

²Elizabeth B. Hurlock, Child Development, (New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1972), p. 365.

The individual . . . enters his own experience as a self or individual . . . only insofar as he first becomes an object to himself just as other individuals are objects to him in his experiences; and he becomes an object to himself only by taking the attitudes of other individuals toward himself within a social environment. . . in which both he and they are involved.¹

Fader and McNeil enumerated that when an individual turns his eyes inward he gets an image of himself, of who and what he is, and he reacts intellectually and emotionally to his perception of what he sees. It was their feeling that with his inner eye, the individual takes the measure of himself, his characteristics, his physique, his looks, his life style . . . and compares this self view with the way others see him.²

It has been pointed out that there are two aspects of the concept of self, corresponding to the pronouns "I" and "me." The latter refers to self as seen by "me" or by others or by me through others. With regard to "I", Adcock maintained that it can only be viewed as a psychological or philosophical concept. In a somewhat perplexing manner, he stated "in so far as I view myself it is me which I see and I who do the seeing, but psychologically we can distinguish the I which is the focus of experience and action from the me which is my concept of myself." As related to the historical development of the two terms, it is convenient to refer to "I" as the ego and to the "me" as the self.³

¹George Hubert Mead, "Mind, Self and Society," Southwell and Merbourn (ed.) Readings in Psychology, (New York: Rhinehold and Winston, Inc., 1969), p. 10.

²Daniel N. Fader and Elton B. McNeil, Hooked on Books: Program and Proof, (New York: Berkley Publishing Co., 1970), p. 202.

³C. J. Adcock, Fundamentals of Psychology, (Middlesex, England: Penquin Books, Inc., 1972), pp. 114-116.

In his studies, Adcock surmised that the self concept gradually becomes aware of itself in the following sequential steps:

- (1) As a continuous reference point, a focus of experience extending back into the past through its memories.
- (2) As a bodily entity.
- (3) As a behaving organism carrying out actions which are evaluated by others and endeavoring to enhance the self in terms of the reference frame established.¹

Much of what we know today about the development of this self view came to us from Sigmund Freud and after him Abraham H. Maslow.² According to Fine, Freud distinguished between the id, ego and superego. He characterized the id as consisting of blind, primitive impulses, i.e., sex, hostility, etc. This ego was seen by Freud as an agency that reconciles the claims of the id with reality and the superego as an active conscience indicating right and wrong.³

Fine further reported that, according to Freud, the id, ego and superego are factors dominant in human conflicts, as the superego forces the ego to act in opposition to the id. Thus, the ego, which must reconcile the conflicting claims of the id and superego is subjected to pressure from both sides. Beyond serving as umpire among the forces of the id and superego, the ego acts as an executive agent,

¹Ibid.

²Benjamin Fine, Underachievers, (New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., 1967), p. 51.

³Paul Thomas Fine, Motivation and Emotion, (New York: John Wiley, and Sons, Inc., 1961), p. 528.

setting goals, making and keeping promises, discharging obligations, etc. Consequently, it was Freud's theory that it is through the ego that the individual becomes an effective, reliable, relatively autonomous, human being.¹

Engle and Snellgrove concurred with Freud's theory by stating "the individual's self concept governs to a large extent how he behaves." There is a strong tendency to do things that agree with, support or reinforce the ego.²

As a precondition before the need for self-actualization can be realized, Maslow observed that all people of our society have a need for a stable, firmly based high evaluation of themselves, for self-respect, or self-esteem and for the esteem of others. He classified the self esteem needs into two categories:

(1) The desire for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for confidence in the face of the world, and for freedom and independence.

(2) The desire for reputation, prestige, recognition, attention, importance, or appreciation.³

Maslow further felt that satisfaction of the self-esteem needs leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability, and adequacy of being necessary to self and in the world. On the

¹Ibid.

²T. L. Engle and Louis Snellgrove, Psychology, (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1969), p. 188.

³Abraham H. Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," Psychological Review, Volume 50 (1943), pp. 370-396.

other hand, thwarting of these needs produces feeling of inferiority, of weakness, and of helplessness.¹

There exists a permeating commonality among theorists that the major impetus underlining the development of one's concept of self is imbedded in his early home life, including the kinds and levels of interpersonal relationships with parents and other family members.

Combs and Snygg stated:

No experience in the development of the child's concept of self is quite so important or far reaching as his earliest experiences in his family. It is the family which introduces a child to life, which provides him with his earliest and most permanent self definitions. Here it is that he first discovers those basic concepts of self which will guide his behavior for the rest of his life.²

The authors concluded that the individual learns the values and behaviors which he attaches to his self perceptions from early experiences with family members via feelings of adequacy or inadequacy, feelings of acceptance or rejection, opportunities for identification and expectancies concerning acceptable goals.

Jersild pointed out that "the child from an early age, without being deliberate about it, acquires ideas and attitudes about himself and others. These are woven into the pattern of his life..." These concepts may be true or may be false -- healthy or morbid.³

¹Ibid.

²A. Combs and D. Snygg, Individual Behavior: A Perceptual Approach, (New York: Harpers, 1959), pp. 134-135.

³Arthur T. Jersild, In Search of Self, (New York: Teachers' College Press, 1965), pp. 3-5.

Hurlock stipulated that concepts of self are hierarchial in nature and should be classified into primary and secondary entities. The primary individual's roles in life, his aspirations and his responsibilities to others which are based on parental teachings and pressures. These would include both physical and psychological self-images. The primary concepts are those experiences which the child has in the home and are made up of many individual concepts, each resulting from experiences with different members of the family group.

The author perceived the secondary self concepts as those relating to how the child sees himself through the eyes of others and are based on contacts resulting from outside the home activity. The belief that the individual will think of his physical structure and evaluate his psychological self-images by comparing them with what he believes "significant others," i.e., peers, teachers, and other adults think of him, is emphasized.¹

That the young child's sense of self worth is dependent mainly upon the attitudes of his parents is further emphasized by Bricklin and Bricklin. They concluded that if parents genuinely love, respect and admire the child, and convey such attitudes to him in different ways including verbalization, touch, expressions . . . , the child will have a healthy sense of self worth. Although as the child grows older, other things and people begin to have an effect on his sense of self-worth and self-confidence, such as attitudes of playmates,

¹Elizabeth B. Hurlock, Child Development, (New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1972), pp. 365-370.

attitudes and feelings of relatives and teachers, i.e., the grades and evaluations he receives in school, "none of these things is as important as are the parent's initial attitudes."¹

Like other concepts, the self concept develops in a predictable pattern. Hurlock theorized that development of awareness of self is not a unitary process but that the individual perceives different aspects of himself at different times. In a healthy pattern of development, old self concepts must change as new self-discoveries are made; the unrealistic and biased elements of early concepts must be replaced by more realistic and unprejudiced ones.²

Although most theorists agree that the self concept once clearly differentiated and structured, is a fairly stable entity, they also are of the opinion that throughout one's life, it is continually developing and changing.³

It would seem that the two, development of self concept and the change of self concept, are highly interrelated . . . for knowledge about self concept development should provide important clues to self concept change while new knowledge about self concept change should lend broad implications toward self concept development. Fitts suggested that the two could be considered on equivalent terms

¹Barry Bricklin and Patricia Bricklin, Bright Child--Poor Grades, (Delecarte Press, 1967), p. 31.

²Elizabeth B. Hurlock, Child Development, (New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1972), pp. 365-370.

³D. Hamachek, The Self in Growth, Teaching and Learning, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Printice-Hall, 1965), p. 46.

if factors which really affect one's self concept were basically the same throughout life.¹

Seemingly, once the individual leaves the sheltered confines of his family, many factors begin to affect his self concept. Studies by Zakrajsek² in 1966 and Johnson³ in 1970 using seventh and eighth grade boys showed clear positive relationships between self concept and indices of physical, motor, and athletic abilities. Several other studies including one by Gay in 1966, have shown slight, but significant, positive correlations between self concept, intelligence, and school achievement.⁴

Such relationships are difficult to interpret since it is not always clear whether superior performance produces a wholesome self concept or a wholesome self concept produces superior performances. Consequently, Fitts proposed that the process can be a series of interactions . . . a good self concept contributes to effective performance, which in turn contributes to a healthy concept.⁵

¹William H. Fitts, The Self Concept and Self Actualization, (Nashville, Tennessee: Dede Wallace Center, 1971), p. 35.

²D. Zakrajsek, "The Relationships between Self Concept, Motor Ability and Peer Evaluation for Junior High School Girls," an unpublished paper, Michigan State University, 1966.

³J. B. Johnson, "The Comparison of Physical Fitness and Self Concept between Junior High Negro and White Male Students," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1970.

⁴C. J. Gay, "Academic Achievement and Intelligence among Negro Eighth Grade Students as a Function of the Self Concept," Doctoral Dissertation, North Texas State University, 1966.

⁵William H. Fitts, "The Self Concept and Self Actualization," (Nashville, Tennessee: Monograph III, Dede Wallace Center, 1971), p. 36.

Lynch conducted a study to determine if the self concept is affected by the experiences one has had and the manner in which the self concept influences the manner in which one approaches and utilizes new experiences. He found that people with high self-esteem tended to report having had more life experiences that were pleasurable than people with low self concepts. Another finding of his study was that individuals with high self-esteem were more apt to report that negative experiences had led to positive growth.¹

In a similar study in 1968, Vargas found that subjects with high self concepts described their childhood experiences more positively than did subjects with low self concepts.²

As the self concept is thought by many to be the core of personality development as opposed to separate entities, apparently, one should give consideration to its inception. As stated by Engle and Snellgrove, Freud believed an individual's personality is made up of his id, ego and superego. He contended that as one develops, part of the ego becomes the superego, commonly known as conscience, which tells us right from wrong.³

¹S. Lynch, "Intense Human Experience: Its Relationship to Openness and Self Concept," Doctoral Dissertation, University of Florida, 1968.

²R. Vargas, "A Study of Certain Personality Characteristics of Male College Students Who Report Frequent Positive Experiencing and Behaving," Doctoral Dissertation, University of Florida, 1970.

³T. L. Engle and Louis Snellgrove, Psychology: Its Principles and Application, (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1969), pp. 185-187.

The personality is the unique organization of an individual's characteristics of adjustment that sets him apart from other individuals. Most psychologists believe that most of an individual's personality, hence self concept, is learned and an important influence is the parents. Studies have indicated that "if the parents are happy and well-adjusted, then the personality and self concept of their children will tend to be happy and well-adjusted."¹

In a study of children aged eight to ten in 1965, Bealmer, Bussell, Bussell, Cunningham, Gideon, Gunderson and Livingston found significant relationships between parents' and children's self concepts. Where one or both parents had healthy, positive self concepts, the children's self concepts tended to be positive also.²

The findings of the above study are comparable with a subsequent study conducted by Coleman, Freeman and Owens involving emotionally disturbed children, aged six to twelve, and their parents in 1966. Self concept measures were utilized for the parents but not the children; instead the children were categorized into two different types of behavior problems -- acting-out and withdrawn. Results indicated that the parents of the disturbed children were rather disturbed people with negative and deviant self concepts.³

¹Ibid., p. 186.

²E. Bealmer, G. Bussell, H. Bussell, M. Cunningham, Z. Gideon, K. Gunderson and M. Livingston, "Ego Identity and School Achievement: A Study of their Relationship in the Latency-Age Child and His Parents," Unpublished Masters Thesis, University of Louisville, 1965.

³B. Coleman, H. Freeman and W. Owens, "A Self Concept Comparison of Parents with Children who Present Acting-Out or Withdrawn Behavior Problems," Unpublished Masters Thesis, University of Tennessee School of Social Work, 1966.

Henderson gave reference to the close interactive relationship between the self concept and personality when he concluded that "affection from others provides confirmation of the individual's positive self-worth. Healthy personalities are the end results of this kind of reinforcement."¹

Sullivan projected a feeling that personality can never be isolated from the complex of interpersonal relations in which the person lives and has his being. He further stated that the effects of the self concept upon the individual should never be minimized as concepts determine what one knows, believes, and to a large extent, what one does.²

Hurlock proposed that if the concept includes a favorable attitude -- or if it is emotionally weighted with a pleasant emotion -- it will lead to positive actions in the form of acceptance and seeking. On the other hand, concepts that are weighted with unpleasant emotions lead to negative actions in the form of antagonism and avoidance.³

Hayakawa expressed the opinion that since the basic purpose of all human activity is, as psychologist Paul Rogers has said, "to protect, maintain and enhance the self concept," people are constantly

¹George Henderson, To Live In Freedom, (Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 1972), p. 57.

²Harry S. Sullivan, Conceptions of Modern Psychiatry, (Washington: The William A. White Psychiatric Foundation, 1947).

³Elizabeth B. Hurlock, Child Development, (New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1972), p. 346.

proving their self concepts to be true. He contended that the individual who says "I am no good" is always trying to prove it -- and dooms himself to failure in whatever he does. One whose self concept is "I am likable" is friendly and outgoing -- the kind of person whom people cannot help liking.¹

A clarification of the self concept and its development is best summed by Young thusly:

The perception of one's self is a product of development as is the perception of other persons, animals, inanimate objects The beliefs concerning one's self are the product of experiences as are others beliefs about earth, sky, water and air. The attitudes toward the self change with age and experience as do other attitudes. Self-regarding attitudes are based upon appraisal of one's abilities, the views of other persons, successes and failures, and other factors.²

What is the Relationship between the
Self Concept and Individual
Achievement - Behavior

Historically, academic success or failure has seemingly been viewed as a function of aptitude, native ability, intelligence and other cognitive variables; however a resurgence of professional interest in the individual student's self-esteem, emotions, value formulation, motivations and attitudes has apparently led to alternate explanations of academic achievement and student behavior.

It appears that much of today's concern in educational theory and practice is how thoughts, feelings of the individual students are

¹S. I. Hayakawa, "Self Concept to Success Key" An Editorial from Oklahoma City Times, December 1, 1975.

²Paul Thomas Young, Motivation and Emotion, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1961), p. 34.

dynamically related to instructional objectives. A general consensus projected by theorists and researchers is that education and the individual's feeling of self-worth are necessary complements to one another.¹

Henderson and Bibens expressed this belief when they stated "self concept, the individual's inner view of himself, is a large and inclusive domain. It determines the extent to which the individual thinks he is capable of achieving success through his own efforts."²

According to the Coleman Report of 1966, "the child's feeling about self and his ability to control his own destiny accounted more for his achievement in school than did the total effect of the curriculum, the teachers, and the physical and material support to which he was exposed."³

In reference to the total person's accomplishment in all endeavors, Satir put it thusly:

In my many years of teaching young children, treating families of all economic and social levels, training people from all walks of life . . . from all the day-to-day experiences of my professional and personal living, I am convinced that the crucial factor in what happens both inside people and between people is the picture of individual worth that each person carries around with him.⁴

¹Daniel N. Fader and Elton B. McNeil, Hooked on Books: Program and Proof, (New York: Berkley Publishing Co., 1970), p. 202.

²George Henderson and Robert Bibens, Teachers Should Care, (New York: Harper and Row, 1970), p. 17.

³Lyn S. Martin, "What Does Research Say about Open Education: Critique and Assessment," Open Education: Critique and Assessment, August, 1975, p. 88, citing J. S. Coleman, editor, Equality of Educational Opportunity, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, (Washington, D.C: Government Printing Office, 1966).

⁴Virginia Satir, Peoplemaking, (Palo Alto, California: Science and Behavior Books, Inc., 1972), p. 21.

Identifying students who appear to have low or negative self concepts, and program activities aimed at increasing self-confidence, is one of nine teacher behaviors characterized by Lilly as being beneficial to students with exceptional educational needs. He concluded that the self concept is apparently a major factor in learning, and thus it is essential that each teacher define and deal with it on a personal level.¹

Gerhand is of the opinion that positive self concept is not only a prerequisite to learning but also a major factor in all of our actions. He declared that each of us is continuously confronted with questions such as Who Am I and What Am I and our responses determine our actions, whether they be positive or negative. The author further pointed out that how the individual views himself and how others view him are communicated and will subsequently determine his behavior.²

Correspondingly, Fine proclaimed that there can be little doubt that it is our view of ourselves that governs our fate, that leads us toward failure or achievement in the everyday exchanges of everyday living.³

In explaining why the underachiever desperately fears to undertake new tasks, Bricklin and Bricklin postulated that failure not only

¹M. Stephen Lilly, "Special Education - A Cooperative Effort," The Education Digest, Volume 41, November, 1975, p. 11.

²Muriel Gerhand, Effective Teaching Strategies, (West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Co., 1971), p. 55.

³Benjamin Fine, Underachievers, (New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1967), p. 51.

causes grief and isolation to the individual but this is compounded by a complete loss of self worth, self-confidence and hence, security. Therefore, the authors theorized, the shaky self-confidence of the individual with a negative self concept helps to make future failure a greater possibility.¹

The authors further viewed the relationship between the self concept and achievement as being circular. They intimated that self-confidence should be reasonably strong before one places a high premium in excellence and accomplishment. At the same time, self-confidence is in large part derived from the ability to do work which is acceptable to or in keeping with the individual's self picture. The example was cited that if an individual starts out by assuming that the impossible is expected of him, he will not develop self-confidence. Consequently, an individual must have a realistic view and not expect the impossible from himself, especially in his young and formative years. They concluded that self-confidence must be allowed to take root and grow in order to facilitate excellent accomplishment.²

Closely related to the above concept are the results of investigations conducted by Sears in 1937 as reported by Young. The results clearly supported the popular dictum that success breeds success and failure breeds failure. The researcher forced his subjects to succeed or fail relative to their goal by falsifying scores on an experimental

¹Barry Bricklin and Patricia Bricklin, Bright Child -- Poor Grades, (Delecorte Press, 1967), p. 33.

²Ibid., p. 43.

task. Those subjects who were "allowed" to succeed developed attitudes of self-confidence and a subsequent will to achieve.¹

According to Young, as a result of experimental endeavors in 1942 by Rotter, the goal an individual sets for himself is dependent upon two main factors:

- (1) The wish to excel, to do better on the next trial and to do better than other subjects; this desire for improvement tends to raise the level of aspirations.
- (2) The realistic estimate of one's ability based upon information concerning previous knowledge; this knowledge tends to hold the level of aspiration down to a realistic level.

Young further projected the belief that studies upon the level of aspiration should be supplemented by work upon the area of aspiration. This was projected by his finding that when an individual succeeds in an activity, he is not only more likely to repeat it but will develop interest and an attitude of self-confidence along with increasing proficiency in said activity. On the other hand, failure in an activity will more likely cause the individual to shift to some other area.²

As an extension, Henderson and Bibens pointed out that the individual with a long history of failure, labeled low achiever, has lost both hope and aspiration for success through formal education. This is reflected in their being exceptionally quiet and unresponsive.

¹Paul Thomas Young, Motivation and Emotion, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1961), pp. 496-498.

²Ibid.

The authors indicate that "their behavior usually reflects a what's the use attitude."¹

Some years ago, Bricklin and Bricklin enumerated the causes of student underachievement as falling into four general categories as follows:

- (1) Physical causes, such as poor vision or hearing.
- (2) Pedagogic or teaching method causes, such as when a child fails to learn because he is being taught poorly.
- (3) Sociological causes, such as when a child turns from school work because his peers and neighbors devalue education.
- (4) Emotional causes, such as when the child does poorly because of emotionally conflicted attitudes.²

The authors further stipulated that 80 percent of all under-achievers are doing poorly because of emotional tensions, found under such labels as disinterested, negative self feeling, lazy, unmotivated, uncooperative, late bloomer, inattentive, and daydreamer.³

They concluded that the development of an individual's self-confidence in academic work must come before the active pursuit of perfectistic excellence. "The child who does not feel he must accomplish at all costs actually accomplishes more than the child who feels desperately compelled to succeed."⁴

¹George Henderson and Robert Bibens, Teachers Should Care, (New York: Harper and Row, 1970), p. 49.

²Barry Bricklin and Patricia Bricklin, Bright Child -- Poor Grades, (Delecorte Press, 1967), pp. 85-94.

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid.

Declaring the development of a habit of reading for all normal children to be one of the most important objectives of the school, Smith and Dechant made clear that for one to become a reader, he must first find a satisfaction for his needs of self-esteem, the esteem of others¹

There exists numerous studies involving a comparison of self concept and achievement using standardized tests as criteria, with inconsistent results; some reporting significant correlations while others reported little or no correlations. Fitts suggested that the results of such correlates are difficult to interpret because self-esteem is not related to performance criteria in a purely linear fashion.²

In an investigation involving 207 black eighth graders in 1966, Gay reported a measured correlation of .45 between the "Tennessee Self Concept Scale" and the "Metropolitan Achievement Test." When the total sample was stratified by sex, the r for males was .61 and for females .30.³

Using 80 Georgia sixth graders as subjects, Williams and Cole reported correlations between the self concept and the "California Achievement Test" at .31 for reading and .33 with arithmetic.⁴

¹Henry P. Smith and Emerald V. Dechant, Psychology in Teaching Reading, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961), p. 289.

²William H. Fitts, "The Self Concept and Performance," (Nashville, Tennessee: Monograph V, Dede Wallace Center, 1972), p. 26.

³C. J. Gay, "Academic Achievement and Intelligence Among Negro Eighth Grade Students as a Function of the Self Concept," Doctoral Dissertation, North Texas State University, 1966.

⁴R. Williams and S. Cole, "Self Concept and School Adjustment," Personnel and Guidance, (January, 1968), p. 146.

Because he felt that most self concept measures were too general in nature and not sufficiently focused upon the self in a specific academic setting to demonstrate the true relationship between the self concept and academic performance, Erickson devised an 80 item Q-sort self concept measure which dealt more specifically with aspects he felt more significant . . . intellectual, leadership, citizenship and social. Using 21 participants of a summer reading clinic at Allegheny College who were of both sexes and ranged from 11 to 18 years of age, Erickson reported significant correlations with reading achievement for a total score of .453 and intellectual score of .580. Significant correlations were not obtained in the other three sub-areas of his self concept measure -- social, citizenship and leadership.¹

In contrast to the above studies, other investigations revealed no significant relationship between self concept and performance on achievement tests. In 1969, Blamick found only one statistically significant coefficient out of 99 reported. His project involved 85 ninth graders who were primarily white and middle class students at the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School in Florida. Nine scores from the Tennessee Self Concept Scale were used and correlations were computed with measures of critical thinking, open-mindedness, verbal aptitude, quantitative aptitude and achievement in social studies, mathematics, English and science.²

¹R. S. Erickson, "Self Concept and Reading Achievement," Unpublished Masters Thesis, Allegheny College, 1966.

²W. Blamick, "An Evaluative Study in Relation to Grades for Ninth-Grade Students at the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School," Doctoral Dissertation, University of Florida, 1969.

As reported by Fitts, similar results were obtained by Meighan, who studied visually impaired adolescents from schools for the blind in Maryland, Pennsylvania and New York in 1969-70 and 71; Herskovitz, whose sample came from a population of disadvantaged and low IQ black high school students in Philadelphia; and, Carless who employed high school seniors in Idaho.¹

Studies employed utilizing the individual's grade point average (GPA) as opposed to achievement tests as criteria gave results indicating a stronger relationship between the self concept and achievement. Fitts is of the opinion that this difference is due to the individuals' GPA being more indicative of his total self than scores on an achievement test. He further theorized that the individual's school performance, compared with the standards of his school and in relation to his peers, probably has greater significance for his total self concept than his score on an impersonal standardized achievement test.²

A 1967 study conducted by Hughes in Memphis, Tennessee, showed findings that eighth grade subjects of a high self concept group had better grades than did subjects of the low concept group.³

¹William H. Fitts, "The Self Concept and Performance," (Nashville, Tennessee: Monograph V, Dede Wallace Center, 1972), pp. 26-28.

²Ibid., p. 29.

³T. Hughes, "A Study of the Relationship of Coping Strengths to Self Concept, School Achievement and General Anxiety Level in Sixth Grade Pupils," Doctoral Dissertation, University of Tennessee, 1967.

Seeman's theory of personality integration proposed that the well-integrated individual will function more efficiently in all areas, including intellectual and academic performance.¹ One of his subsequent studies supported this hypothesis. It was found that college students with high levels of personality integration had higher GPA's than random, normal comparison groups with no differences in basic intellectual ability.²

According to Fitts, a series of studies conducted at Brigham Young University produced contradictory results regarding the relationship between the GPA and self concept when subjects were first classified by GPA and then administered a self concept scale of measurement. Such studies involved a comparison of the self concept between college students on academic probation and those not on academic probation.³

In 1968, Amberg made a comparison of 182 probationary subjects with 138 non-probationary subjects. The non-probationary subjects were found to have rather deviant self concepts and appeared to be much more maladjusted than the probationary students.⁴

¹J. Seeman, "Toward A Concept of Personality Integration," American Psychologist, Number 14, 1959, p. 18

²J. Seeman, "Personality Integration in College Women," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Number 4, 1966, pp. 91-93.

³William H. Fitts, "The Self Concept and Performance," (Nashville, Tennessee: Monograph V, Dede Wallace Center, 1972), pp. 29-30.

⁴W. F. Amberg, "A Comparison of Probationary Students at Brigham Young University," Unpublished Master's Thesis, Brigham Young University, 1968.

Contrarily, in a paralled study with a different sample of 50 subjects in academic probation and 102 subjects who were non-probationary students, K. N Jackson found both sample groups to be relatively normal on scores derived from the measurement scale with the difference favoring the non-probationary group.¹

As an explanation to the contradiction between theories of self concept and achievement and related investigations, Fitts hypothesized two points of needed consideration:

- (1) The self concept relates to achievement more significantly when the individual's own capabilities are considered.
- (2) The self concept correlates more highly with achievement based upon potential rather than achievement on an absolute basis.²

In 1967, Jensen³ found no self concept differences between achievers and underachievers, while in a similar study at Appalachian State, Demetriades⁴ had similar results.

As cited by Young, Adler alluded to achievement and behavior in terms of "attitudes of inferiority." He pointed out that such attitudes not only underlie a persistent will to achieve within the

¹K. N. Jackson, "The Probationary Student in Group Counseling," Unpublished Master's Thesis, Brigham Young University, 1967.

²William H. Fitts, "The Self Concept and Human Behavior," (Nashville Mental Health Center, Research Bulletin No. 1, 1965), pp. 6-8.

³R. L. Jensen, "The Effects of Group Counseling on Achieving and Underachieving Probation College Students," Unpublished Master's Thesis, Brigham Young University, 1967.

⁴D. G. Demetriades, "A Study to Identify some Personality Characteristics of Freshmen Academic Underachievers at Appalachian State University," Unpublished Master's Thesis, Appalachian State College, 1967.

individual but can produce emotional disturbances and severe personal maladjustments.¹

Insight between the relationship of individual's self concept and behavior might be found in Bagby's inventory of the characteristics of people who have attitudes of inferiority as reported by Young. It is stated as follows:

Inferiority attitudes are revealed by extreme sensitiveness to criticism and especially to ridicule. A person with such an attitude resents any evaluation that puts him in an unfavorable light and he devotes much effort to self-defense. -- the inferiority attitude is indicated by ideas of reference. The subject supposes that any whispered comment is a remark unfavorable to himself Seclusiveness is likely to be present. He hesitates to join a group, being convinced without evidence that his company is not wanted. -- Another manifestation of inferiority attitudes is an expansive response to flattery. Since there is need for feeling of adequacy and self confidence, almost any praise or compliment will be met with a prompt response or over-response. The subject also shows a peculiar reaction to competition He seeks to compete with persons he can easily defeat, or he may go to the opposite extreme Finally, there is a derogatory tendency. The person who feels inferior points to the faults of others and tends to minimize his own defects. He is highly critical of others.²

Gerhand emphasized that how we view ourselves will determine our behavior. "If we view ourselves positively, we will act positively; if we view ourselves negatively or are viewed negatively, in many cases the results are self-defeating or destructive behaviors."³

¹Paul Thomas Young, Motivation and Emotion, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1961), pp. 526-529.

²Ibid.

³Muriel Gerhand, Effective Teaching Strategies, (West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, 1971), p. 55.

From his studies of school dropouts, the author characterized six basic symptoms which are inherent in students without a positive self concept which corresponds with the previously mentioned inventory:

- (1) The student demonstrates a strong feeling of failure which appears to come from school experiences.
- (2) The student fails to meet the school's expectations; he learns to fear disapproval, criticism of any sort, and ridicule.
- (3) The student attempts to defend himself by withdrawing from the educational game. . . .
- (4) The student becomes alienated from his peers and from adults.
- (5) The student develops a feeling of overwhelming helplessness as he can see no purpose, no goal and no future.
- (6) The student lacks dignity and self respect. He makes an attempt to stop the world as there is, seemingly, no alternative but to get off.¹

In relating to aggression, achievement, and violent behavior, Slater quoted Dr. James P. Comer who suggested that the civil rights movement "mobilized an aggression in many black youths by forcing them to challenge old notions about themselves." He stated that for the first time in history the young black people began to feel good about themselves. For the most part, the new aggression became channeled and released as an urge toward achievement and this was indicated by an overall improvement in test scores. However, in other youngsters, the aggression could not be channeled into areas of curiosity, of

¹Ibid.

learning or an effort at mastery and consequently resulted in impulsive violent acts. The author continued, "violence was a way-in, a way, I think -- for some youngsters to feel good about themselves."¹

An interactive relationship between achievement and behavior was the result of a recent study in Florida by the Governor's Task Force on Disruptive Youth. It was their finding that academic achievement variables proved more useful than sociometric criteria in predicting disruptive behavior. Grade point averages from the previous year, followed by the reading part of a sixth grade test and verbal aptitude supported the need for early identification of students with academic problems.²

Similarly, Henderson and Bibens expressed the feeling that the student's concept as related to achievement can directly determine his behavior pattern. A feeling of predetermined failure will be the results of the individual experiencing little or no success when confronted with something new. Consequently, as a student, the individual falls further and further behind and his self concept related to school becomes increasingly more negative. Because all humans have self-esteem as one of their basic needs, the individual student seeks that by engaging in nonschool-sanctioned activities in which some degree of success can be experienced. The authors stated that such activities

¹Jack Slater, "Death of a High School," Phi Delta Kappan, (December, 1974), p. 252.

²Stephen A. Rollins, "A Research Report - The Governor's Task Force on Disruptive Youth," Phi Delta Kappan, (December, 1974), p. 287.

might be inclusive of but certainly not exclusive of such actions as fighting, cursing, stealing, lying¹

In a contrasting opinion, Divoky characterized the theory of "good self concept" equals "good school adjustment" equals "good mental health" as syllogism. The author made reference to the works of Harry Rosenberg and Richard Ehrigatt who stipulated that there is no research to suggest that a change in self concept leads to improved school behavior.²

Citing the results of a specially funded affective program in California's San Joaquin Valley as an example because of its great success in raising the self concept of sixth grade Chicano boys, the authors noted the following:

A follow-up study of performance, including data on unexcused absences, grades, suspensions, teacher ratings, classroom observations and fights at school, showed that 60 percent of the boys showed no significant change after participating in the program, 16 percent showed a positive change, and 24 percent showed a negative change.

It was concluded that although affective education programs are initiated for the purpose of helping students, the very opposite can be happening, unnoticed. Consequently, the authors continued, it is a misconception to assume a high correlation between self concept and adjustment to school.³

¹George Henderson and Robert Bibens, Teachers Should Care, (New York: Harper and Row, 1970), p. 18.

²Diane Divoky, "Affective Education: Are We Going Too Far," Learning-The Magazine for Creative Teaching, Volume 4, Number 2, October, 1975, p. 26.

³Ibid., p. 27.

One of the earliest studies to focus directly on the self concept of the delinquent was that of Balester's conducted in 1956. Balester attempted to demonstrate that overt, observable behavior is related to the self concept and that different behavior patterns are related to different self concept organizations.¹

Assuming that delinquent individuals and non-delinquent individuals have significantly different self concept organizations because they exhibit different behavior patterns, Balester derived a measure of the self concept from one group of 19 white male adults, 28 white male non-delinquents and 80 white male delinquents. Employing the Q-technique three times at 30-day intervals, the results did not differentiate the adults from the non-delinquent youngsters but both of those groups had significantly more positive self concept scores than did the group comprising the delinquent subjects.²

Atchinson found statistically significant differences between two groups of ninth grade boys who had been classified either as a behavior problem or as a non-behavior problem on the basis of teachers' rating. The behavior problem group consisted of 36 boys who received a percentile rating of 90 and above by three teachers on the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Teacher Rating Schedule. The non-behavior problem group consisted of 42 boys receiving percentile ratings of 40 and below.³

¹J. R. Balester, "The Self Concept and Juvenile Delinquency," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Vanderbilt University, 1956.

²Ibid.

³C. O. Atchinson, "A Comparative Study of the Self Concept of Behavior Problem and Non-Behavior Problem High School Boys," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Indiana University, 1958.

All differences were significant at the .01 level of confidence with the non-behavior problem group possessing higher self concepts.

A common belief among theorists is that the key to human behavior and learning is motivation-aroused by external stimuli.¹ Assuming this to be true, the area of motivation then becomes exceedingly relevant in exploring the relationship between self concept, achievement and behavior.

Young projected the feeling that the study of self-regarding attitudes should contribute to the general theory of motivation. He pointed out that "self regarding attitudes are inextricable from the triangle of self, other person, and common environmental object."²

In a similar vein, Smith and Dechant concluded that self-esteem, self realization, curiosity, security and a need to be adequate, successful and to belong are all motives that commonly energize human behavior.³

That the effective processes are motivational in nature and thus enhance achievement and behavior within the individual appears to be a general assumption within the educational arena. Berger identified three reasons as related to this point of view:

- (1) Affective processes are intimately related to the activation of neurobehavioral patterns.

¹Kurt Goldstein, The Organism, (New York: American Book Company, 1939), p. 196.

²Paul Thomas Young, Motivation and Emotion, (New York: John Wiley and Son, Inc., 1961), p. 532.

³Henry P. Smith and Emerald V. Dechant, Psychology in Teaching Reading, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Printice-Hall, Inc., 1961, p. 271.

- (2) Affective processes regulate and direct behavior according to the principle of maximizing the positive and minimizing the negative.
- (3) Affective processes have a specific role of organizing neurobehavioral patterns. These patterns lead to the development of motives and evaluative dispositions that become relatively stable and determinants of behavior.¹

Experiments by Young supports the belief that the strength of motives depends not only upon the intensity of the affective processes that organized them but also upon the duration of an affective arousal, the frequency of occurrence of the affective process and probably also upon its recency.²

Praise and reproof have been identified as two important factors as related to achievement and behavior motives. As reported by Young, Schmidt offered the following generalities in regards to the effectiveness of praise and reproof:

- (1) The individual who feels inferior is more highly motivated by praise than by blame.
- (2) The self-confident individual may be more highly motivated by reproof.
- (3) If one has to choose between consistent praise or consistent reproof, the former is generally more effective as reproof, without the relief afforded by occasional approval, may develop attitudes of inferiority and lack of self-confidence.³

¹E. M. Berger, "The Relation Between Expressed Acceptance of Self and Expressed Acceptance of Others," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, (1952), p. 778.

²Paul Thomas Young, Motivation and Emotion, (New York: John Wiley and Son, Inc., 1961), p. 166.

³Ibid., p. 489.

Further effects of reproof upon ones self concept are aptly expressed by Jersild as follows:

If remarks to a child are mainly derogatory, then the growing child's attitude toward himself will be mainly derogatory. The child toward whom the predominant attitude of significant persons has been one of hostility, disapproval and dissatisfaction will tend to view the world in similar terms. He will have difficulty in seeing or learning anything better, and although he may not openly express self depreciating attitudes, he has a depreciating attitude toward others and toward himself.¹

Verbalization has a profound and varied influence upon behavior. The use of words influences the individual's behavior by building up feelings which are, through association, extremely evocative.²

Engle and Snellgrove expressed the opinion that the individual who is motivated takes an active interest in his work and therefore is much more likely to succeed than the individual with a passive attitude.³

As succinctly noted by Jersild:

Personal motivations lie within the human organism. A highly important psychological system relates to attitudes and knowledge concerning the self. Self regarding attitudes and beliefs play a tremendously important role as determinants of social behavior and emotional experience.⁴

¹Arthur J. Jersild, In Search of Self, (New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960), p. 9.

²Paul Thomas Young, Motivation and Emotion, (New York: John Wiley and Son, Inc., 1961), p. 488.

³T. L. Engle and Louis Snellgrove, Psychology, (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1969), p. 77.

⁴Arthur Jersild, "Discipline," Baltimore Bulletin of Education, Volume 31, (April, 1954), p. 27.

What Has Been the Prevailing Mood of Secondary
Institutions in Relation to Practices which
Have Been Identified as Perpetuating or
Hindering the Development of Positive
Self Concept within Student Members

A major and critical goal area which has seemingly received extensive literary emphasis is the development of a positive, healthy and productive self concept and its subsequent vital relationship to human functioning. The simplified implication of this mass of literature and data to educators appears to suggest that if knowledge of the self concept enables us to predict a wide variety of behaviors or characteristics relevant to an individual's successful functioning, modifications in the individual's self concept should result in predictable changes of behaviors.

It has been suggested that the primary tasks of education are to help the growing individual understand and accept himself while providing him with the means to meet the future.¹

To be successful in accomplishing these tasks, it is further suggested by Jersild that although educators need not take over the function of the professional psychologist, the nature of his relations with young people clearly dictates a constant use of available psychological information and insights.²

¹Caleb Gottengno, What We Owe Children, (New York: Outerbridge and Dienstfrey, 1970), p. 1.

²Arthur T. Jersild, In Search of Self, (New York: Teachers College Press, 1965), p. 10.

The author continued, "the child has more capacity for understanding himself than we educators, or others for that matter, have ever realized." It is his opinion that something can be done, by teachers, to aid boys and girls to make what is probably the most important discovery of all -- a discovery of themselves.¹

Holt postulated that youth ought to be a time when the individual acquires a sense, not just of his own identity, but also of his own worth. He expressed the opinion that as is presently, educators make it almost certain to be the very opposite.²

Self concept will be promoted in the schools when and if educators face up to the reality that modifications must become evident and schools are operated on the premise that "schools for children" rather than children for schools" is what is most desirable.³

Gorman stipulated that reform is indeed necessary in our secondary schools and the actions and attitudes of some school administrators is appalling. He contended:

The most alarming finding about high school principals is their lack of faith in the capacity of the high school to be useful to all American youth . . . many apparently do not see themselves as educational leaders . . . of all the changes, of all the innovations that hold promise for better education and a better high

¹Ibid.

²John Holt, The Underachieving School, (New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1969), p. 40.

³Muriel Gerhand, Effective Teaching Strategies, (West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Co., 1971), p. 57.

school in the future, none outranks the reappraisal of human potential that is now moving through the American mind . . . promises to replace the hope for human kind.¹

Engel suggested that genuine change does not seem to be wanted within the educational arena while superficial changes are readily absorbed into the institution and rendered ineffective. He proclaimed that if genuine change was widely sought, then "writers like Ivan Illich, Paul Goodman, John Holt, and A. S. Neil would be taken far more seriously"2

In citing the worse things about our schools, Glasser declared the following:

. . . The schools assume built-in motivation, but when it does not occur, they attempt to motivate children with methods analogous to using a gun. Although guns have never worked, the schools, struggling to solve their problems, resort to using bigger and bigger guns -- more restrictions and rules, more threats, and punishments"3

Holt wrote the opinion that most of our schools remain about what they have always been . . . "bad places for children, or, for that matter, anyone to be in, to live in, to learn in." He observed that the student learns that he is worthless, untrustworthy, fit only to take other people's orders and as he puts it, "a blank sheet for other people to write on."⁴

¹Burton W. Gorman, Secondary Education: The High School America Needs, (New York: Random House, 1971), p. 25.

²Martin Engel, "Politics and Prerequisites in Educational Change," Phi Delta Kappan, (March, 1974), p. 458.

³William Glasser, Schools without Failure, (New York: Harper and Row, 1969), pp. 18-19.

⁴John Holt, The Underachieving School, (New York: Hill Publishing Co., 1969), p. 18.

Holt further accused educators of making a lot of verbal noises in the school about respect for the individual and their difference but our true actions say to the student:

Your experiences, your concerns, your curiosities, your needs, what you wonder about, what you hope for, what you fear, what you like and dislike, what you are good at or not so good at -- is of not the slightest importance.¹

Correspondingly, Rubin has stated that in our present schools, learning remains more passive than active, reason drowns feelings, values are passed on second hand, aesthetic education is seriously under-valued and often life in school scars the individual's own sense of adequacy and worth permanently.²

Speaking of inadequacies regarding our secondary school curriculum, the author declared that there is little concern for the individual as a person for preoccupation and thought tends to obliterate feeling. "The significance of personal ethos, personal knowledge, and personal experience is largely ignored; and worse, the realization of human potential is left mainly to chance."³

Pointing accusingly at educators, Gordon contended:

. . . We have learned that most of these educational people are remarkably similar to parents in their attitude toward kids and in their methods of dealing with them. They, too, usually fail to listen to children;

¹Ibid.

²Louis Rubin, "Curriculum, Affect and Humanism," Educational Leadership, Volume 32, Number 1, (October, 1974), p. 13.

³Ibid., p. 12.

they, too, talk to children in ways that put them down and damage their self esteem; they, too, rely heavily on authority and power to manipulate and control children's behavior; . . . they, too, hassle and harangue and preach and shame children in attempts to shape their values and beliefs and mold them into their own image¹

A decline in public trust of our secondary institutions, it seems, is evident and the critical storm rages loudest in the large city. It is here, in urban and suburban America, that the vast bulk of our population has congregated and where the larger portion of the nation's youth attend school.²

For several decades, Moseley noted, the usual public comment about secondary education has been that it has failed. He related:

The civil libertarians would have us believe that the secondary school exists partly to trample the legal rights of teenagers. The romantics inform us that its methods are hidebound and obscurantist and the activists among its students roundly denounce it as irrelevant to their needs The general cry is for "quality education," for the upgrading of "inferior schools," and for the equalization of educational services.³

Estes projected the greatest challenge for our nation and more specifically for educators as a need to eliminate waste of human resources in the "inner city." He prescribed a need for a "new" kind

¹Thomas Gordon, Parent Effectiveness Training: The No-Lose Program for Raising Responsible Children, (New York: Wyden, 1970), p. 28.

²Francis S. Moseley, "The Urban Secondary School: Too Late for Mere Change," Phi Delta Kappan, (May, 1972), p. 559.

³Ibid.

of education to deal effectively with the general problems of education and the specific crises of education in the urban areas.¹

The emphasis upon the plight of urban education is not incidental, as its position within the nation's public school setting has changed drastically since early 1970. Prior to World War II, the large cities certainly provided the most comprehensive and probably the best education in the nation, but the 1970's have brought about suburban alternatives to urban education as they seem to be flourishing.

Sacks reported that while the suburban areas have grown in economic power and built up more modern educational and noneducational physical plants, the ability of the urban systems to cope with greater educational demands has become limited.²

An article, "Collision in the High Schools," which appeared in the May 16, 1969 issue of Life Magazine noted that:

The huge migration to the cities has, for example, created an educational crises that completely transcends the ability of the schools to deal with it, and has revealed a clash in values and failure of understanding...³

Consequently, both blacks and whites have abandoned the large city school systems in favor of suburban and private alternatives as suburban areas surrounding the largest cities are now able to provide a

¹Sidney H. Estes, "Instruction-Inner City: Where It's Really At," Educational Leadership, Volume 32, Number 6, (March, 1975), p. 384.

²Seymour Sacks, City Schools - Suburban Schools, (Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1972), p. 14.

³Sidney H. Estes, "Instruction-Inner City: Where It's Really At," Educational Leadership, Volume 32, Number 6, (March, 1975), p. 384, citing H. Donovan, Editor-in-Chief, "Collision in the High Schools," Life Magazine, (May 16, 1969).

quantity and quality of education which is relatively superior to that of their central cities.¹

Sacks further expressed the opinion that school financial support is definitely a cause in the plight of urban schools as the system of state aid for education has failed to adjust and is still designed to aid the small rural and growing suburban school systems.

Estes theorized that the lack of effective teachers compounds the problems of inner-city education. He rejects the concept that "a good teacher is a good teacher is a good teacher" - anywhere, and is of the opinion that the stage for conflict is set when the middle class teacher with middle class values meets the "every-class" situation. It is the author's contention that regardless of ethnic background, teachers of inner-city youngsters must possess certain skills and knowledge regarding the backgrounds, life styles, learning styles, and the individual needs of children in the inner-city.²

Moseley suggested that the cause of the status of inner-city schools is found in the internal practices of the schools themselves in their methodology, in their poorly constructed courses of study, and in the failure of school people to relate warmly to the young.³

¹Seymour Sacks, City Schools-Suburban Schools, (Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1972), p. 14.

²Sidney H. Estes, "Instruction - Inner City: Where Its Really At," Educational Leadership, Volume 32, Number 6, (March, 1975), p. 385.

³Frances S. Moseley, "The Urban Secondary School: Too Late for Mere Change," Phi Delta Kappan, (May, 1972), p. 564.

The feeling of inner-city parents as related to major issues confronting their schools and possible causes for its plight was recently characterized in a Gallup survey as follows:

- (1) The physical conditions of the schools. Broken windows, overcrowded classrooms, poor equipment and obsolete textbooks were the major parental concerns.
- (2) A concern for the curriculum. Most parents questioned the subject matter and its relevancy to the lives of their children.
- (3) The teaching ability of present teachers. The lack of a humane and sensitive approach in interacting with students and parents was emphasized. Also, a need for additional reading specialists, psychologists and social workers was made.¹

Regardless of the causes, there has been a dynamic shift in population growth of our large central cities resulting in a massive change in attitude as to the educational attractiveness of the suburban area school systems. During the early 1970's, while the suburbs grew by 11 million people, the inner cities grew by only 610,000.²

From an educational point of view, the change of racial distribution of population seems to be extremely important. According to Sacks, the 1970 census of population reported that the white population in the central cities declined 1.2 percent between 1960-1970, and by 13.0 percent in the largest metropolitan

¹Stanley Elam (Ed.), The Gallup Polls of Attitudes toward Education, (Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, Inc., 1973), pp.

²United States Bureau of the Census: 1970 Census of Population

areas with populations of over one million people.. While the white population declined, the black, Puerto Rico and Mexican American population in the inner city area grew considerably to a point where they comprised 25 percent of the total population of inner cities. Thus, this changing ethnic composition of inner city population has caused an increase in the proportion of "minorities" in total urban public school enrollment.

The implication of this population shift to educators is quite clearly stated by Sacks who expressed the opinion that the minority students are more difficult to teach via traditional methods because of the destructive effects of much large scale and long term poverty.¹

Henderson and Bibens alluded to the child's position in the social order as being significant to what is practiced in secondary schools by stating: "The lower a child is in the social order, the more it seems that school success occurs at random, without patterns."

The authors contended that those in the lowest social order are not adequately developed in terms of their concepts of people, time, space, and self prior to entering school; consequently, the world, hence the school, appears in a chaotic manner. Generally, the home of the lower-class child has failed to endeavor him with "maps of middle class social terrain," as are similarly needed for

¹Seymour Sacks, City Schools-Suburban Schools, (Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1972), p. 61.

society's rewards. "Thus, the student enters school with a readiness to fail and to be failed."¹

Consequently, the teachers' acceptance of the individual students within the academic setting has a significant impact upon his willingness to achieve. Every attempt must be made, on the part of the teacher, to not only accept, but understand the student's range of abilities, style of learning, and attempt to build and shift negative attitudes toward academic enthusiasm and competence.²

Estes theorized that one course in Educational Psychology, as required by most institutions of higher learning, does not do the job of equipping teachers with a thorough knowledge of how people learn. He noted that examples of violation could be found by the number of teachers who "punish" students through homework assignments.³

As hypothesized by Carl Rogers, the educator has the responsibility to provide and maintain the type of atmosphere and relationship with student members which will allow him to . . . "discover within himself the capacity to use that relationship for growth, and change and personal development will occur."⁴

¹George Henderson and Robert Bibens, Teachers Should Care, (New York: Harper and Row, 1970), p. 18.

²Ibid., p. 19.

³Sidney H. Estes, "Instruction-Inner City: Where It's Really At," Educational Leadership, Volume 32, Number 6, (March, 1975), p. 385.

⁴Carl R. Rogers, On Becoming a Person, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1961), p. 32.

That the teacher fosters and promotes feelings of security and self-confidence was similarly expressed by Downing when he stated:

The nature of the classroom environment determines to a high degree the quality of each child's adjustment and his feeling toward school and toward himself. Self-confidence, attitudes of personal worth, and level of self-esteem are influenced by the school atmosphere.¹

As related to student evaluation, Bricklin and Bricklin expressed the opinion that an atmosphere should exist where the student will feel "free to fail" without worrying that his entire sense of self-worth will be destroyed in the process. They stipulated that when such an atmosphere does exist, the student will fail fewer times.²

Glasser inferred that too few students are involved with responsible teachers who themselves have success identities.³ As stated by Jersild:

A teacher cannot make much headway in understanding others or in helping others to understand themselves unless he is endeavoring to understand himself. If he is not engaged in this endeavor, he will continue to see those whom he teaches through the bias and distortions of his own unrecognized needs, fears, desires, anxieties, hostile impulses The process of gaining knowledge of self and the struggle for self-fulfillment and self-acceptance is not something an instructor teaches others. It is not something he does to or for them. It is something in which he himself must be involved.⁴

¹Lester N. Downing, Guidance and Counseling Services, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1968), p. 48.

²Barry Bricklin and Patricia Bricklin, Bright Child-Poor Grades, (Delecorte Press, 1967), p. 34.

³William Glasser, Schools without Failure, (New York: Harper and Row, 1969), pp. 18-19.

⁴Arthur T. Jersild, When Teachers Face Themselves, (New York: Teachers College, 1967), p. 82.

It has been stated by Fine that the potential of the Hawthorne Effect has been neglected in the educational arena. Somewhat oversimplified, the Hawthorne Effect is the tendency of the participants in an experiment or classroom situation to perform well just because their self-esteem is enhanced through the attention they are receiving.¹

After studying the results of research conducted by Bernard Rosen of the University of Connecticut and Roy D'Antrone of Cambridge, Massachusetts, Fine proposed the following elements as related to the students self-feeling in regards to classroom interaction:

- (1) If reasonably high standards are set for the student and subsequently met, they help persuade the youngster that he is capable. High standards that cannot be met are damaging.
- (2) Warmth and approval makes the youngster see himself as accepted, valued and loved. Hostility and rejection produces a self image of lack of worth, self-devigoration.
- (3) Active interest and concern strengthens the self-image of the individual student. Indifference has the opposite effect.²

Correspondingly, Downing proposed the below activities as being significant toward perpetuating positive student attitudes.

- (1) Provide for group activities. Active participation within small groups provide opportunities for students to share ideas and to profit from these intimate associations - social skills are developed, self understanding enhanced and insights gained.

¹Benjamin Fine, Underachievers, (New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., 1967), p. 56.

²Ibid.

- (2) Provide for meaningful projects and activities.
A variety of experiences makes the learning process more meaningful and valuable. As the student becomes actively involved in a variety of appealing activities, reactions of enthusiasms, interest and dedication are often demonstrated.
- (3) Encourage individual performance and activity.
Self confidence improves and self-esteem is bolstered as a child profits from his experiences.
- (4) Provide appropriate stimulating experiences.
Neither the teacher or pupil can accurately assess the quality of the individual's potentialities or capabilities - through varied stimulating and interesting experiences, new opportunities for the development of potentialities become prevalent.
- (5) Provide for role-playing and dramatic experiences.
Such experiences contribute to verbal skills, stimulate thinking, provide information about human relationships and add to knowledge.¹

In emphasizing the strength of the will, Gottegno proclaimed that the first task of teachers is often overlooked.² He specified the "first task of teachers is to know that they are persons with a will and that their students are persons with a will, and in an individual, the will is the source of change." The author continued:

Seeing the students in our classrooms as persons, as endowed with a will that permits actions and generates by itself changes, we shall immediately be closer to them - closer to understanding each as a person and closer to helping each increase his experience and his understanding of - for we shall have at our disposal what is indispensable for reaching any ends involving them.³

¹Lester N. Downing, Guidance and Counseling Service, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1968), p. 51.

²Caleb Gottegno, What We Owe Children, (New York: Outerbridge and Dienstfrey, 1970), p. 54.

³Ibid., p. 55.

Often, educators criticize students in such a manner so as to stamp the whole personality with a devastating adjective. Such labeling is generally false, inevitably insulting and always infuriating.¹

Adcock declared that when abusive adjectives are attached to an individual's personality, a chain of reactions is usually created . . . when criticized, the individual reacts in his body and soul with anger and revenge fantasies. As a student, he may then feel guilty about his hostility and ask for punishment by acting up. A circle of events is created as his antics will lead to another cycle of criticism, punishment, revenge. . . .²

The author offered the following advice as related to criticism:

- (1) don't attack personality attributes
- (2) don't criticize character traits
- (3) deal with the situation at hand

The individual student who is repeatedly made to feel stupid, dumb, irresponsible, unworthy. . . .accepts such evaluation as fact. Very often, he may give up intellectual pursuits as a result of unjust or negative criticism.³

The prevailing attitude of educators toward the importance of the self concept and an understanding of its implications to education seems promising. As reported by Jersild, in a survey of over one

¹John Holt, "Schools Are Bad Places for Kids," from The Saturday Evening Post, February 8, 1969.

²C. J. Adcock, Fundamentals of Psychology, (Middlesex, England: Pinquin Books, Inc., 1972), p. 88.

³Ibid.

thousand teachers and students of education, findings of the respondents were as follows as related to their views concerning the concept of self-understanding and its implications to them as educators:

- (1) Over 90 percent felt that schools should promote self-understanding as the concept was "promising and worth trying."
- (2) Over 90 percent indicated that the idea that understanding of others is tied to self understanding was, to them, a "promising" and not an unpleasant or distasteful concept."
- (3) Approximately 72 percent felt that the idea of self-understanding was or might be "most significant" in their own professional education.

Cooperating administrators of large city secondary schools were recently asked by the National Committee on Secondary Education to indicate the relative importance given a number of goals in developing the programs of their schools.² The development of positive self concept and a facility for good human relations averaged out in third place among the respondents behind the acquisition of basic skills, and the acquisition of basic knowledge.

However, it should be noted that differences between the successive averages were comparatively small; consequently, the particular ranking should not be over valued. The acquisition of basic skills received an important score of 4.07; acquisitions of

¹Arthur T. Jersild, When Teachers Face Themselves, (New York: Teachers College, 1967), pp. 14-15.

²National Committee on Secondary Education, "Major Goals of City High Schools," The Bulletin of The NASSP, Volume 55, Number 351, (January, 1971), pp. 23-26.

basic knowledge received an importance score of 4.00; while the development of positive self concept received an importance score of 3.85.¹

A previous survey gave the development of positive self concept a ranking of sixth, which gives the implication that urban schools are giving more attention to the non-academic needs of their students than formerly was the case.²

There are some in our society who have suggested . . . and rather strongly, that if we as educators are to reach our goal of helping every student learn, the skills and self confidence needed to achieve his fullest potential as a person, it is imperative that affective education processes, techniques and methodologies become more prevalent and personalized in the secondary schools.

It was pointed out by Biber that public concern about race riots in the cities, the presence of poverty in an affluent society and the protests against the Establishment by many people is being reflected in another major reform movement in education, in which cognitive objectives are subordinated to affective objectives. The author expressed the belief that if social relevance becomes the standard for education and personal and social well-being a compelling goal, the basic curriculum will have to be restructured to place major emphasis on the affective variables.³

¹Ibid.

²Ibid.

³Barbara Biber, "A Learning-Teacher Paradigm Integrating Intellectual and Affective Processes," Behavior Science Frontiers in Education, (New York: Wiley Publishers, 1967), pp. 111-155.

Perry stressed that affective education programing, inclusive of human relations, supports the individual student's search for an understanding of his or her needs and wants, weaknesses and his or her behaviors.¹

In stipulating that programs to help individuals develop inner resources are needed, Gardner suggested that personalized human relation programs should allow for the development of skills, habits of mind, and the kinds of knowledge and understanding that will enable young people to be involved in a continuous process of change and growth.²

Jersild stated that the development of the individual's concept of self has been left largely to chance. There is a staggering need for doing something in our educational program to help students acquire realistic attitudes of self-awareness and acceptance. It was his feeling that such emphasis on human relation in our schools would be an invaluable aid toward actualization of human potential.³

Although educators are still hovering around the perimeters of affective learning, it seems to have provided better and more effecient ways of developing cognitive skills. As pointed out by Fleres and Benmaman, as the child moves from a predominately egocentric position

¹Cereta E. Perry, "Can Human Relations Be Taught Through A Formalized Program," Educational Leadership, October, 1974, p. 27.

²John Gardner, Self Renewal, (New York: Harper and Row, 1963), p. 99.

³Arthur T. Jersild, In Search of Self, (New York: Teachers College Press, 1952), p. 99.

to a more sociocentric one, active involvement in human relations will sensitize him or her to the needs of self and others.¹

Emphasizing the need for a non-threatening school and classroom environment in which students are encouraged to discuss their feelings rather than to repress them, the authors identified the following concepts as being vital to any program for improving the quality of interpersonal relationships:

- (1) Every person needs to be loved, to feel important, and to belong. These needs are fulfilled by interacting with others.
- (2) Man's perception of his own worth is influenced by the way others treat him. In turn, he tends to act according to the way he believes others see him.
- (3) Feelings are neither right nor wrong. A sign of maturity is a growing awareness that different feelings exist, though they need not always be directly translated into action.
- (4) Individuals and groups tend to avoid or discriminate against persons who are different from themselves.
- (5) Individuals act according to their own unique perception of reality. They are prompted to act, not on facts alone, but by their beliefs and feelings about those facts.
- (6) Attitudes, values and behavior are shaped by many interacting forces. Though seemingly fixed, all three can be modified.²

In a similar vein, Gerhand proposed that although the school is not the only factor operating as related to the student's self

¹Carol Fleres and Virginia Benmaman, "Designing a Human Relations Curriculum," Educational Leadership, October, 1974, p. 31.

²Ibid., p. 32.

concept, it can and should become a key factor in bringing about positive changes in how students view themselves and can thereby alter and modify behavior outcomes.¹ Six general guidelines and practices which should be incorporated into programs of human relations or affective education are offered:

- (1) The student must become an active partner in the educational process and be involved in establishing personal goals working cooperatively with the teacher.
- (2) The student must be involved via the inquiry approach to learning, i.e., discovery and realistic problem solving.
- (3) The curriculum should be experienced based as opposed to symbol based and should provide for direct, purposeful, concrete experiences, structured for individual student success.
- (4) The learning environment must be open and threat-free as most learn far more from mistakes than from successes.
- (5) Individual student evaluation should be a shared process involving the student's self-evaluation as well as constructive teacher evaluation.
- (6) The cautious use of praise and criticism should be prevalent with the teacher's methodologies.²

While stating that the affective educator is characterized by a humanistic attitude which reveals a definite preference for asking rather than telling, sharing rather than controlling and trusting rather than mistrusting, Abrell proposed that there must exist a commitment to democratic procedures and principles.³

¹Muriel Gerhand, Effective Teaching Strategies, (West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Co., 1971), p. 56.

²Ibid., p. 57.

³Ronald L. Abrell, "The Humanistic Supervisor Enhances Growth and Improves Instruction," Educational Leadership, (December, 1974), p. 214.

In a continuing vein, Combs expressed that the treatment of students as second-rate citizens violates one of the very basic concepts of affective education. He theorized that positive concepts of self are not learned from undemocratic practices such as a denial of student rights but are acquired from personal experiences of respect and concern for personal rights, from being treated as valuable citizens, as persons of dignity and integrity. The author surmised that respect for student rights is an important factor in creating an atmosphere for effective growth and learning.¹

Maslow pointed out, the basic nature of man is not primarily negative but is essentially positive, as each person is motivated from birth to death by a never ending search for self fulfillment.² The conditions described by Maslow as prerequisites for basic need satisfaction corresponds to the basic human rights developed by the Commission of Education and Human Rights of Phi Delta Kappa.

The conditions as identified by Maslow include:

- (1) freedom to speak
- (2) freedom to do what one wishes as long as no harm is done to others
- (3) freedom to express oneself
- (4) freedom to investigate and seek information

¹Arthur W. Combs, "Human Rights and Student Rights," Educational Leadership, (May, 1974), p. 672.

²Abraham H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality, (New York: Harper and Row, 1970), p. 43.

- (5) freedom to defend oneself
- (6) freedom to justice, fairness, honesty, and orderliness in the group.¹

The basic human rights as developed by the Commission on Education and Human Rights of Phi Delta Kappa are as follows:

- (1) equal opportunity for all in: education, housing and employment; the exercise of the franchise and representation in government
- (2) due process and equal protection under the law
- (3) freedom of speech and of the press
- (4) freedom to dissent
- (5) freedom of or from religion
- (6) freedom to privacy
- (7) freedom to be different
- (8) freedom from self-incrimination
- (9) right to a trial by a jury of actual peers
- (10) right to security of person and property
- (11) right to petition and redress of grievances
- (12) freedom of assembly²

The publication made clear that the concept of human rights is based on the belief that human beings live together in ways which accord each person full dignity, respect and value. The publication

¹Ibid., p. 47.

²Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project on Human Rights, A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights, (Norman, Oklahoma, 1971), p. 7.

continued, "yet the schools, which are the training grounds for future citizens, often violate the most basic human rights."¹

Inferring that the time has come for educators to depart from tradition when that tradition has damaging side effects on a child's growth, Clute postulated that:

Responsibility cannot be learned in the absence of freedom, nor can respect for law and order be learned in the absence of respecting experience. If damaging behavior is the result of inadequate feelings about one's self and one's chances, then the classrooms of American schools must become places where children in their formative years come to know from experience what respect for rights of citizens really means. Teachers must be freed from continuing school and classroom practices which demean, diminish, and/or destroy a child's feeling of worth.²

The author further pointed out that there exists evidence that traditional classroom practices almost totally ignores the human and constitutional rights of students. He cited a survey by John Babcock which corroborated a study reported in the September 1973 issue of Phi Delta Kappan as to these findings:

- (1) The greater percentage of students in urban and suburban high schools perceived their own human rights had been violated.
- (2) Ninety percent felt that their own opinion did not count.
- (3) Over 90 percent felt that they had not been consulted or had been uninvolved in helping to plan some aspect of class work.³

¹Ibid., p. 9.

²Morrel J. Clute, "Can Human Rights Survive the Classroom," Educational Leadership, (May, 1974), p. 682.

³Ibid., p. 683.

Todd conducted an investigation during the school year 1972-73 to analyze policies and practices in nine selected Oklahoma Urban high schools which indicated a commitment to or violation of human rights. The major conclusion was that some school officials have been reluctant to adjust their behavior from a straight-laced authoritarian style of leader behavior to one which is characterized by meaningful student involvement and democratic processes. A second major finding was that the nine urban high schools of the study did not place a high priority on the human and civil rights of their students.¹

That the public schools have not been as effective as they can and should be in teaching about and exhibiting leadership in the area of human/student rights was inferred by Broudy who felt that the student may be forgiven for leaving school convinced that human rights are only words. He added "even youthful idealism can stand only so much cynicism, and the reaction often is an even more violent cynicism of its own."²

Snider indicated that for decades educational institutions have been bitterly criticized for failing to practice what they teach. In this regard, Snider is of the opinion that teacher education institutions must assume their responsibility in helping public schools

¹Melvin R. Todd, "An Analysis of Policies and Practices in Selected Oklahoma Urban High Schools which Indicate a Commitment to or Violation of Human Rights." Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation in Education, University of Oklahoma, 1973.

²Harry S. Broudy, "What Can Schools Say About Human Rights?" Phi Delta Kappan, (May, 1966), p. 467.

prepare a generation of young people who have an understanding of and commitment to the values and human rights without which, in his words, "life itself will become meaningless."¹

Perlmutter reported that educational systems in the suburbs have not been as successful as the urban cities with regard to teaching about the Bill of Rights. He suggested that the urban poor are sensitive to injustice and they react strongly, psychologically, and behaviorally. It was his feeling that the "suburban comfortable do not seem to care."²

In suggesting that the Bill of Rights should become a major source of curricula guidance if schools are to become the best that they can become, Schwartz mentioned the below school practices as being violative of and contradictory to the student's basic rights as human beings.

- (1) the use of corporal punishment
- (2) unannounced locker checks
- (3) banning the wearing of political campaign buttons
- (4) failure of the school to provide a place for students to be alone
- (5) extreme limits placed upon freedom of expression -- in the school newspaper, on bulletin boards, within the classrooms

¹Glenn Snider, "Human Rights: A High Priority in Teacher Education," The Phi Delta Kappan, (November, 1971), p. 172.

²Phillip Perlmutter, "Suburban and Human Rights," (New York: American Jewish Committee, March, 1969).

- (6) The lack of opportunities for student members to become relevantly involved.¹

The author concluded that if schools are really to make a commitment to help students find personal meaning in the concepts of freedom, dignity, rights and responsibility, a base may be found in developing affective education programs.²

Recent research has emphasized the core concepts found in Open Education as being vitally important in regards to maximizing the positive concepts of self within individual students, hence enhancing their achievement. Recognizing that the teacher plays an important role in responding to and stimulating the student's interest and assistance in acquiring knowledge and understanding, open classroom concepts have adopted many of Jean Piaget's principles of learning. Central to these principles of learning are the concepts of discovery learning, the use of concrete activities, play, manipulative materials and interaction with others.³

According to Rogers and Church, the results of research conducted by Olander and Robertson in 1973; Simmons and Esler in 1972; Vance and Kieren in 1972; and Cook in 1968, clearly indicated

¹Sy Schwartz, "Beyond the Court Cases: Curricula Responses to the Student-Citizen," Educational Leadership, (November, 1974), p. 128.

²Ibid.

³Lyn S. Martin, "What Does Research Say About Open Education: Critique and Assessment," Open Education: Critique and Assessment, Rogers and Church (ed), August, 1975, p. 88.

significant gains, not only in achievement but also in concept development and ability to transfer, reapply and retain what had been learned.¹

The authors further reported that recent findings of subsequent studies by Krenkel and Wilson have also supported the hypotheses that the affective factors of self concept and attitude as emphasized by open school educators greatly facilitates learning. On self concept and self-esteem measures, the open classroom children far surpassed the traditional classroom children and the differences became more pronounced with increased age and grade level. These studies concluded that the decreased competition and comparison that take place in the open classroom may account for many affective advantages for children.²

In declaring his premise that schools should be structured for the benefit of students and their individual needs, Rubin prescribed the following concepts as being central to affective education:

- (1) Whenever possible the student must be encouraged to look inward as well as outward.
- (2) Knowledge of self must be seen as important as knowledge of world.
- (3) The relationship between freedom and responsibility--between autonomy and commitment to the public good must be made clear.
- (4) Self-expression must benefit from high priority.
- (5) The significance of the self, interacting with others, must be studied more closely.
- (6) The wisdom buried in the humanities must be brought to bear upon the mounting tide of

¹Ibid., p. 87.

²Ibid.

helplessness, hopelessness and resignation among the young.

- (7) Values must be re-examined.
- (8) Realities of the social system cannot be disregarded.¹

With the optimistic belief that self awareness is good-sharing one's feelings with others is good--self-awareness and sharing will lead to good mental health--and good mental health will lead to good school adjustment, school systems everywhere are buying their way into the affective education movement.²

Although some educators, in response to the new emphasis on affective education, argue that -- "we've always said we're suppose to deal with the whole child, and now finally we're doing something about it," the fact is the new affective movement is more than an update of traditional ideas about happy classrooms and humane teachers.³

The old assumptions were that a healthy school environment was the background against which learning took place, that most teachers instinctively had the wherewithal to create such environments, and that mental health was not a school consideration. . . . The new assumptions are quite different . . . students must be taught ways to live well with themselves and with others; teachers must be trained

¹Louis Rubin, "Curriculum, Affect and Humanism," Educational Leadership, Volume 32, Number 1, (October, 1974), p. 13.

²Diane Divoky, "Affective Education: Are We Going Too Far," Learning - The Magazine for Creative Teaching, Volume 4, Number 2, (October, 1975), p. 22.

³Ibid.

to be humane and sensitive with their students; good mental health is something to be learned and practiced in school, along with mathematics and reading.¹

The two factors of self-evaluation and self-pacing are characterized by Rogers and Church as being significant in supporting increased achievement in open classrooms as opposed to traditional classrooms. They identified studies of Gardner in 1968 as showing equal or superior achievement of open classroom students in all academic areas when a comparison was made of British children in open and traditional classrooms.²

In 1971, Shapiro found that students in the open classroom attained superior scores on achievement tests than did students in traditional classrooms. Comparative research conducted during 1973, in Philadelphia School District Number 6, revealed that Iowa Tests given two years after a change to an open classroom approach in follow-through classes showed gains which exceeded those of similar classes before the introduction of Open Education programs, as well as those made district wide and in other Title I Elementary schools.³

¹Ibid., p. 24.

²Vincent Rogers and Bud Church, "Open Education: Critique and Assessment," Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1975, p. 92.

³J. N. Shapiro, "Creativity and the Elementary School Climate," Dissertation Abstracts International 33: 124-A, 1972.

Jones looked at underachieving boys entering open programs and noted definite improvement in achievement over time. He attributed their improvement to a higher self concept, lower self-criticism, decreased pressure to achieve, and less comparative evaluation by teachers.¹

Studies dealing with vertical grouping patterns have indicated affective or non-cognitive advantages for students. As cited by Rogers and Church, research by Zweibelson in 1967 and Morse in 1972 concluded that grouping by ability increased competition among students while decreasing motivation. On the other hand, heterogenous grouping of students across abilities and age seemed to have specific advantage of increasing positive self concept as well as improving attitudes toward school and schoolwork.²

In rendering a concluding opinion on the role of affective education within our schools, Divoky stated the following:

The motive of making children safe for schools seems to permeate much of the affective movement today. We want youngsters to be happy and cooperative and agreeable in school. But when affective education flows naturally from truly concerned, empathetic, highly skilled teachers, we seem to get quite the opposite-- children who are strong and self-confident enough to stand against the tide, to question the routines, to demand changes. To say that the teacher makes the difference is to say the obvious. But when dealing with the mental and emotional well-being and sovereignty of a child, even the obvious should be stated and restated.

¹D. J. Jones, "A Study of Variables Related to the Achievement of Underachieving Boys in An Open Education Environment," Dissertation Abstracts International 33: 2617-A; 1972.

²Vincent Rogers and Bud Church, "Open Education: Critique and Assessment," Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1975, p. 87.

If the few who are mighty move with caution, then perhaps affective education has a role in the schools. But if the many who are less than mighty charge ahead with what they see as a mask for academic incompetence or a new, respectable way to keep youngsters at bay, then affective education is an expensive and ultimately terrifying tool.¹

In relating the close philosophical stance between Continuation Education and Humanistic Principles found in open education, Weber proposed that the teaching of subject matter should always be secondary to the development of attitudes which will foster learning. These attitudes, the author continued, are most successfully developed through relationships with a classroom teacher who is a warm accepting individual. He identified two approaches to be extremely important:

- (1) Accept any student at his own level, regardless of his problems or his degree of learning.
- (2) Make a diligent effort to help the student find a satisfactory life and become a productive citizen within the framework of his own ability and personality.²

Hoyt expressed the opinion that educators have spent far too much time urging students to do better without giving them sufficient credit for what they have already done. He theorized that the teaching/learning process would be more effective if we emphasized success, rather than failure, to students. In perpetuating career education

¹Diane Divoky, "Affective Education: Are We Going Too Far," Learning, - The Magazine for Creative Teaching, Volume 4, Number 2, (October, 1975, pp. 26-27.

²Edward J. Weber, "The Dropout Who Goes to School," Phi Delta Kappan, (May, 1972), p. 573.

as an affective process toward effective learning, the author stated "career education seeks to help every student understand that he or she is someone because he or she has done something . . ." ¹

In answer to the question of what educators can do to change secondary schools from sick institutions to viable social agencies, Slater wrote:

What can educators do? We can start by building just and equitable conditions in schools NOW. We can have respect and regard for students. We can develop programs designed to help youngsters increase their regard for and acceptance of themselves and others. We can initiate curriculum renewal designed to confront social ills. We can stop teaching students to conform. We can do more than just teach students to cope with the world as it is. We can teach them to question, to become skillful in bringing about political and social change. We can develop their (and our own) social consciences. ²

Summary

The review of literature revolved around three questions: (1) What is self concept and how is it formulated? (2) What is the relationship between the self concept and individual achievement-behavior? (3) What has been the prevailing mood of secondary institutions in relation to practices which have been identified as perpetuating or hindering the development of positive self concepts within student members.

¹Kenneth B. Hoyt, "Career Education and the Teaching/Learning Process," Educational Leadership, Volume 33, Number 1, (October, 1975), p. 34.

²Jack Slater, "Death of a High School," Phi Delta Kappan, (December, 1974), p. 255.

In response to the first question, the literature reviewed gave a strong indication that the self concept is the individual's perception of himself or the individual as known to the individual. It is a developmental process learned by each individual through his lifetime of experiences with himself and significant others, i.e., parents, family, peer groups, teachers, and other realities of his external world. While some theorists have emphasized the single notion of self as experienced, others have emphasized social interactions as an integral part of self concept development.

In response to the second question, what is the relationship between the self concept and individual achievement-behavior, it was concluded that the self concept is a significant variable in human behavior. The individual's inner view of himself determines, to a large degree, the extent to which he thinks he is capable of achieving success or succumbing to failure.

Although research studies have been somewhat contradictory in results reported, a general conclusion is that the status of the individual's perceptions of self is a determinant of his will to achieve. Correspondingly, it was also concluded that the self concept is intimately related to the individual's behavior. . . how the individual views himself and how he perceives others as viewing him will subsequently determine his general behavior patterns.

In response to the third question, it was concluded that generally, present practices in our secondary institutions have failed to assist students to know themselves and to develop healthy attitudes

of self-acceptance. The literature reviewed emphasized clearly that self-understanding requires an overall approach quite different from the structured teacher preparatory courses, instructional methodologies, inflexible study plans and other skills of "know how" traditionally emphasized in educational circles.

Strong emphasis was placed on a need for more and better human relation experiences in the classrooms of our secondary educational institutions, as a basis for perpetuating positive self concepts among students. Such experiences are generally seen as fundamental toward establishing necessary values, attitudes, behaviors within students, and a subsequent readiness toward understanding, appreciation and acceptance toward self and other external forces of the students' social environment.

It should be realized that maximizing positive self concepts among secondary students will be a difficult task. Perhaps educators must begin by shedding their intellectual pretentiousness and place more emphasis on affective learning, to the feelings, values, and attitudes that students and teachers bring to the classroom. The literature makes clear that to deal successfully in affective education requires specific educator behavior including being nondirective, inductive, concerned with discovery learning, non-threatening, non-judgmental, and having a genuine concern for his own self concept building as well as that of the students'. This concern must be reflected at all levels of education if our secondary institutions are to realize its purported goals.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

Design of the Study

This study was designed to investigate the quantitative level of self concept for urban and suburban area secondary students. A statistical comparison was then computed and a theoretical analysis made as related to its implications and ramifications for student achievement and behavior. This study will contribute to improving conditions in the public schools with regard to how young people perceive themselves and subsequently perceive others of their external world.

The major consideration regarding the design of the study involved a decision to use a secondary student population. This decision was made primarily for two basic reasons: (1) It appeared to this writer that secondary institutions have received much negative criticism related to functioning outside the best interest of individual students. (2) Secondary students were seen as generally more capable of interpreting feelings of self and others and this is exhibited in their outspokenness in rebelling against institutional practices which seem to prohibit individual awareness and growth.

The following limitations were placed on the population included in the study. The sample for analysis was confined to 100

urban students and 100 suburban students in the Oklahoma City Metropolitan area as of the school year 1975-75. According to Minimum, a sample size of 200 is considered to be adequate or large enough to reduce the chances of errors.¹

The study was further limited to conform to the rules and regulations as established by the policies of the participating school districts.

The Population and Sample

Two secondary schools in the urban school district were included in the study. The high school was designated as A and the junior high school as B.

Four secondary schools from suburban school districts were involved in the study. The two high schools were designated as C and D while the junior high schools were labeled E and F.

School rosters were received from each building principal and the subjects were stratified by sex. A table of random digits, developed by Fisher and Yates, was utilized in the sample selection.² A total of 200 students comprised the random stratified sample selected for the study as follows: school A, 25 males and 25 females; school B, 25 males and 25 females; school C, 12 males and 13 females; school D, 13 males and 12 females; school E, 13 males and 12 females;

¹Edward Minimum, Statistical Reasoning in Psychology and Education, (New York: John Wiley, 1970), pp. 367-376.

²Ronald A. Fisher and Frank Yates, Statistical Tables for Biological, Agricultural and Medical Research, (New York: Hofner Publishing Company, Inc., 1953), pp. 114-119.

and school F, 12 males and 13 females. Of the 200 students included in the study, 50.0 percent were females and 50.0 percent were males. Table I illustrates the sample composition by site, school level and sex.

TABLE I
SAMPLE COMPOSITION - SITE, LEVEL, SEX

	Urban	Suburban
High School	25 Male 25 Female	25 Male 25 Female
Junior High School	25 Male 25 Female	25 Male 25 Female

The Instrument

The "Secondary Self-Esteem Inventory"¹ was utilized to determine the quantitative level of self concept of the urban and suburban subjects. (See Appendix A.) Modified from the "Cooper-Smith Elementary Self-Esteem Inventory," this instrument was standardized by the Department of Research and Statistics of one of the participating school districts.

Test-retest reliability was established at .88 over a five-week period using the Kuder-Richarson formula test. The KR_{20} equaled .75.

¹The Self-Esteem Inventory was developed by the Oklahoma City Public School's Department of Research and Statistics.

Construct validity was based upon Cooper-Smith's research on self-esteem. Concurrent validity was established at .875 correlation with mathematic concepts and at .479 correlation with the Otis-Lennon Mental Abilities Intelligent Quotient test.

The subjects were requested not to sign their names and were assured that their personal identities would be treated in a confidential manner.

For each of the 45 self descriptive items, the subjects were asked to choose one of two response options labeled like me or unlike me. Correct or incorrect responses were assigned to each item as it related to the subject's concept about self.

For the purpose of this study, each subject was assigned a raw score of correct responses from the total of 45 possible correct answers. Subscores in the three categories of the individual's perception of the general self, the individual's school perception, and the individual's perception of self with peer relations were not computed as they were not relevant to this study.

Procedure of the Study

A minimum of three visits to each of the six schools in the target area was made by the researcher. During the first visit, the researcher explained and answered questions in detail about the study to the building principal and received his personal permission to administer the "Secondary Self-Esteem Inventory" to the subjects selected.¹

¹Permission had been secured previously from the Superintendents of the participating school districts; however, each stipulated that permission should be secured from building principals and parents of the selected subjects.

Selected students were contacted during the second visit and following an explanation of the study, each was issued a letter to their parents requesting permission for his participation. (See Appendix C.)

On the third visit, the instrument was administered to the students. Including the conferences with the suburban superintendents and members of the urban system's research committee, a total of twenty visits were made in conjunction with the study.

Statistical Procedure

A multiple analysis of variance was used to compare the self concept scores of the groups involved. One criterion, self concept raw score, was used with three factors, site (urban and suburban), level (high school and junior high school), and sex (male and female), each having two levels.

Use of the multiple analysis of variance allowed comparison of each individual cell with each other cell, as well as showing any interaction between groups.

The Alpha level for all interpretations was at .05 level of significance.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

This study was designed to determine the self concept levels of urban and suburban, male and female, high school and junior high school students. The major purpose of this chapter was to present, analyze and interpret the data derived from the evaluative instrument.

Utilizing the procedures described in Chapters I and III, data on students' self concepts were derived from urban and suburban students in the Greater Oklahoma City Metropolitan Area. These data were tabulated to test the following hypotheses:

- H₀1: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban and suburban area students.
- H₀2: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male and female students.
- H₀3: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for junior high school and high school students.
- H₀4: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban or suburban males and females.
- H₀5: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban or suburban junior high school or high school students.

H₀6: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male or female junior high school or high school students.

H₀7: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male and female, urban or suburban, junior high school or high school students.

Statistical data and its analysis were reported in condensed form utilizing tables. Their primary purpose was to provide clarification of statistical evidence.

Multiple Analysis of Variance

A three-variable factorial analysis of variance in a 2x2x2 design was used to analyze the data. There were 25 subjects assigned to each cell for a total of 200. (N = 200). Variables were labeled as follows:

S₁ = Urban

S₂ = Suburban

G₁ = Male

G₂ = Female

L₁ = High School

L₂ = Junior High School

The mean scores and standard deviations for each cell are shown in Table 2.

The highest measure of central tendency was found in the suburban high school female cell, which was 33.320. The lowest derived mean score was in the suburban high school male cell, 29.640. The largest spread between scores occurred in the urban high school male cell, 5.960. The smallest measure of dispersion was found in the suburban high school male cell, 4.290.

TABLE 2
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR EACH CELL

	High School Male	High School Female	Junior High Male	Junior High Female
Urban	30.120 5.960	32.200 4.330	31.280 4.861	30.840 4.922
Suburban	29.640 4.290	33.320 5.807	30.640 4.600	30.720 5.021

Norms for the Secondary Self-Esteem Inventory show a mean of 29.8 and a standard deviation of 5.21. The mean score for all students in this study was 31.095; consequently, the distribution of all scores was negatively skewed as their distribution was to the right of, or above the previously established norm. (See Table 3.)

Independent Effects

The results of the multiple analysis of variance for the independent effects of site, gender and level on self concept scores are shown in Table 4.

The critical value of F was established at 3.89 at the .05 level of significance. Subsequently, it became necessary to make the following decisions in regard to the first three hypotheses.

There was no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban and suburban students. Failed to reject H₀₁.

There was no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male and female students. Failed to reject H₀₂.

There was no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for junior high school and high school students. Failed to reject H₀₃.

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES

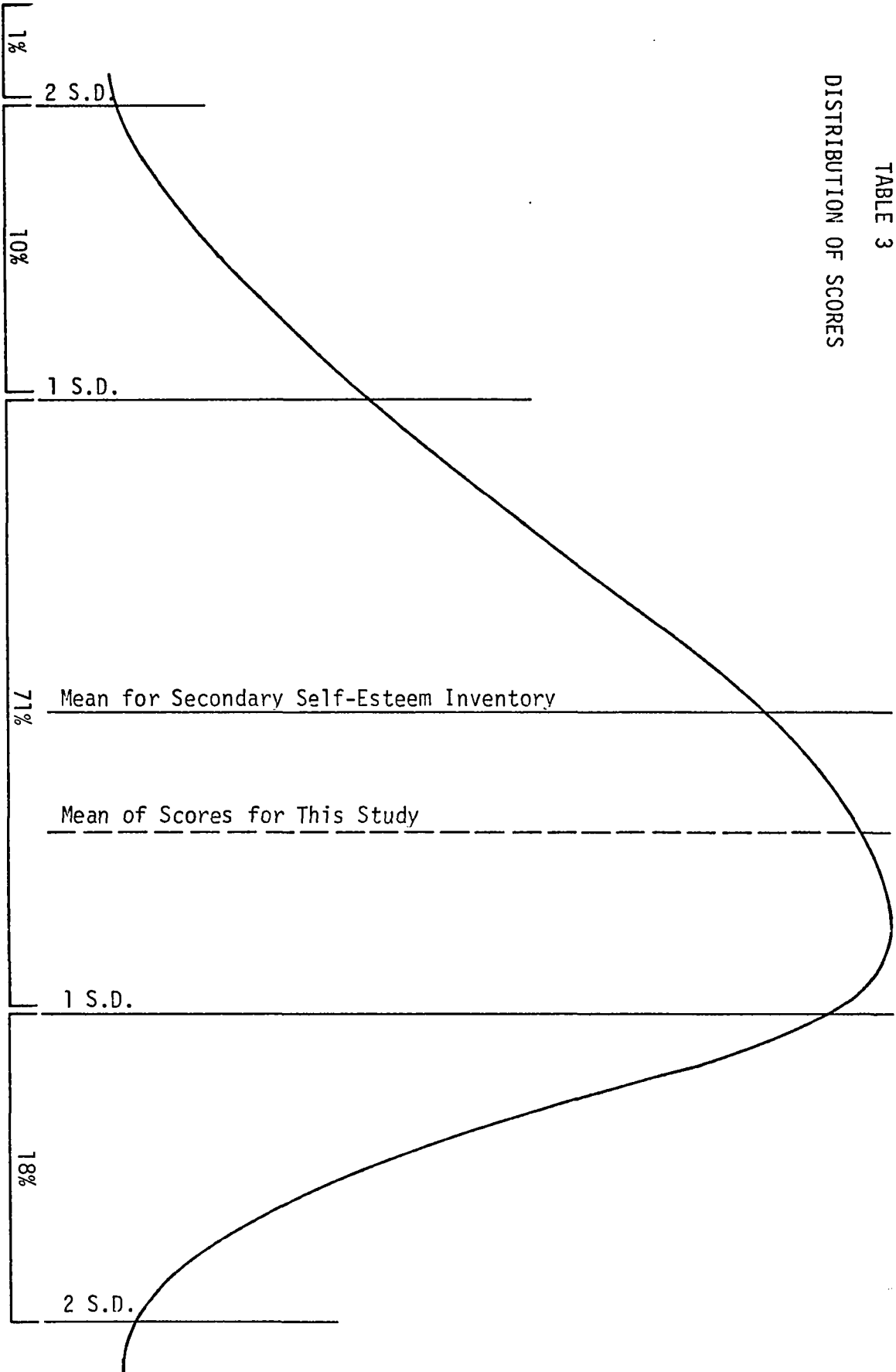


TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT EFFECTS OF SITE, GENDER, AND
LEVEL ON SELF CONCEPT SCORES

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P less than
Site	0.045	1	0.045	0.002	0.966
Gender	91.129	1	91.129	3.634	0.058
Level	10.124	1	10.124	0.404	0.529

$r = .05$ $F = 3.89$

First Order Interactions

First order interactions, looking at two variables simultaneously, showed no significance in the interactions of site and gender or site and level. However, a significant interaction was shown between gender and level. First order interactions are shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5
FIRST ORDER INTERACTIONS AFFECTING
SELF CONCEPT SCORES

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P less than
Site/Gender	14.044	1	14.044	0.560	0.455
Site/Level	6.126	1	6.126	0.244	0.622
Gender/Level	117.049	1	117.049	4.667	0.032

$\alpha = .05$ $F = 3.89$

Consequently, the following decisions were made with regard to the below hypotheses:

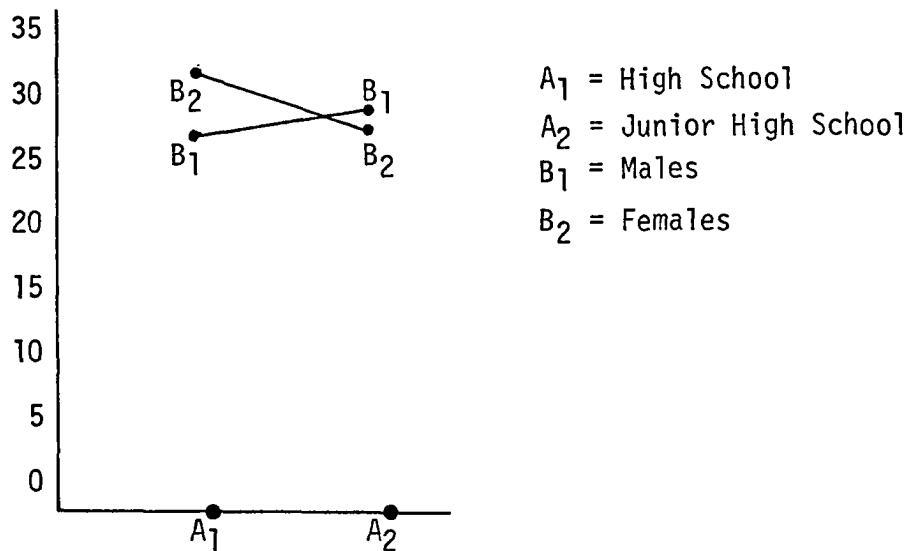
There was no significant interaction between the effects of site and gender on the self concept scores of students.
Failed to reject H₀₄.

There was no significant interaction between the effects of site and level on the student self concept scores.
Failed to reject H₀₅.

There was a significant interaction between the effects of gender and level on the student self concept scores.
Reject H₀₆.

A comparison of means of the two variables involved in the interaction, gender and level, showed the most weight attributed to high school females. A graph of this data is shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6
MEAN SCORES BY GENDER AND LEVEL



A Kirk Test¹ of simple main effects was used to identify cells responsible for the interaction. (See Table 7.)

TABLE 7
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE FOR SIMPLE MAIN EFFECTS

Source	SS	df	MS	F
S at L ₁ G ₁	2.88	1	2.88	.1148
S at L ₁ G ₂	15.68	1	15.68	.6252
S at L ₂ G ₁	5.12	1	5.12	.204
S at L ₂ G ₂	.18	1	.18	.007
L at S ₁ G ₁	16.82	1	16.82	.6707
L at S ₁ G ₂	23.12	1	23.12	.9219
L at S ₂ G ₁	12.50	1	12.50	.498
L at S ₂ G ₂	84.50	1	84.50	3.369
G at S ₁ L ₁	54.08	1	54.08	2.156
G at S ₁ L ₂	2.42	1	2.42	.096
G at S ₂ L ₁	169.28	1	169.28	6.75 *
G at S ₂ L ₂	.08	1	.08	.0032
Within Cells	25.078	192		

* P < .05 Critical value of F = 3.89 at .05.

S₁ = Urban

L₁ = High School

G₁ = Male

S₂ = Suburban

L₂ = Junior High School

G₂ = Female

¹Roger E. Kirk, Experimental Design: Procedures for the Behavioral Sciences, (Belmont, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co., 1968), pp. 263-269.

The only significant cell was that of suburban high school females whose self concept scores were significantly higher than suburban high school males.

Second Order Interactions

In analyzing three variables simultaneously, the second order interactions were not significant at the .05 level and an F ratio value of at least 3.89. The results are shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8

SECOND ORDER INTERACTION OF EFFECTS OF SITE,
GENDER, AND LEVEL ON STUDENT
SELF CONCEPT SCORES

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P less than
Site/Gender/Level	3.644	1	3.644	0.145	0.704

$\alpha = .05$ Critical value of F = 3.89

Therefore, the decision made related to the final hypothesis was as follows:

There was no significant interaction between the effects of site, gender and level on the student self concept scores. Failed to reject H_0 .

Effects of the Collected Data on the
Stated Hypotheses

On the basis of the information revealed in the statistical analysis, the following statements can be made:

- (1) There was no significant difference in the self concepts of urban and suburban students.
- (2) There was no significant difference in the self concepts of male and female students.
- (3) There was no significant difference in the self concepts of high school and junior high school students.
- (4) There was no significant interaction between the effects of site and gender on self concept scores of students.
- (5) There was no significant interaction between the effects of site and level on student self concept scores.
- (6) There was a significant interaction between the effects of gender and level on student self concept scores.
- (7) There was no significant interaction between the effects of site, gender and level on student self concept scores.

Pursuant to the findings, it was necessary to respond to the null hypotheses in the following manner:

- H₀1: There is no statistically significant difference between the raw score of self concept for urban and suburban area students. Failed to reject.
- H₀2: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male and female students. Failed to reject.
- H₀3: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for junior high school and high school students. Failed to reject.
- H₀4: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban or suburban males and females. Failed to reject.
- H₀5: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban or suburban junior high school or high school students. Failed to reject.

H₀6: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male or female junior high school or high school students. Rejected.

H₀7: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male and female, urban and suburban, junior high school or high school students. Failed to reject.

Summary of Tables

A summary of scores of the multiple analysis of variance is shown in Table 9.

TABLE 9

SUMMARY OF SCORES OF EFFECTS OF SITE, GENDER, AND LEVEL ON STUDENT SELF CONCEPT SCORES

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P less than
Within Cells	4815.035	192	25.078		
Site	0.045	1	0.045	0.002	0.966
Gender	91.129	1	91.129	3.634	0.058
Level	10.124	1	10.124	0.404	0.526
Site/Gender	14.044	1	14.044	0.560	0.455
Site/Level	6.126	1	6.126	0.244	0.622
Gender/Level	117.049	1	117.049	4.667	0.032
Site/Gender/Level	3.644	1	3.644	0.145	0.704

$\alpha = .05$

F = 3.89

In an analysis of scores by cell, the suburban high school female accounted for 27 percent of the scores falling higher than one standard deviation above the mean. The urban and suburban females

together accounted for 32 percent of scores falling above the mean. Table 10 shows the distribution of scores by cells and standard deviation.

TABLE 10
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF SELF CONCEPT
SCORES BY CELL

	Urban High School Male	Urban High School Female	Urban Junior High Male	Urban Junior High Female	Suburban High School Male	Suburban High School Female	Suburban Junior High Male	Suburban Junior High Female
43-45 2-3 S.D. Above Mean	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
36-42 1-2 S.D. Above Mean	4	3	5	4	2	10	3	6
30-35 0-1 S.D. Above Mean	11	16	11	10	12	8	12	10
25-29 0-1 S.D. Below Mean	5	5	7	9	7	5	8	5
20-24 1-2 S.D. Below Mean	4	1	2	2	4	2	1	4
0-19 2-3 S.D. Below Mean	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25

Thirty seven (37%) percent of all sample scores were calculated below the mean score of 29.8.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The problem for this study was to ascertain the quantitative level of self concept for urban and suburban area secondary students, compute a comparison and analyze its implications and ramifications for student achievement and behavior. More specifically, the study was designed to determine if there exists differences in the self concept levels of urban and suburban, male and female, high school and junior high school students.

The study was designed to test the following hypotheses:

- H₀1: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban and suburban area students.
- H₀2: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male and female students.
- H₀3: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for junior high school and high school students.
- H₀4: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban or suburban males and females.

H₀5: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban or suburban junior high school or high school students.

H₀6: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male or female junior high school or high school students.

H₀7: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male and female, urban or suburban, junior high school or high school students.

In order to test these propositions, the following procedures were used in the study.

An examination of the related literature described in Chapter II revealed the nature of the previous research done on self concept and answered the following specific questions as related to this study. (1) What is self concept and how is it formulated? (2) What is the relationship between the self concept and individual achievement-behavior? (3) What has been the prevailing mood of secondary institutions in relation to practices which have been identified as perpetuating or hindering the development of positive self concepts within student members? The review of literature further revealed the "Secondary Self-Esteem Inventory" as an acceptable instrument by which to collect the necessary data.

Test-retest reliability was established at .88 over a five-week period using the Kuder-Richarson formula test. The KR₂₀ equaled .75 for the "Secondary Self-Esteem Inventory," was adequate for this study.

Construct validity was based upon Cooper-Smith's research on self-esteem. Concurrent validity was established at .875 correlation with mathematical concepts and at .479 correlation with the Otis-Lennon Mental Abilities Intelligent Quotient test.

Two secondary schools in the urban area and four secondary schools in the suburban area of the Greater Oklahoma City Metropolitan Area were involved in the study. The urban high school was designated as school A while the junior high school was labeled school B. Two high schools of the suburban area were designated as schools C and D, respectively, while the two suburban junior high schools were labeled E and F.

After receiving school rosters from each building principal, the student subjects were stratified by sex. A total of 200 students comprised the random stratified sample selected for the study as follows:

School A - 25 males, 25 females

School B - 25 males, 25 females

School C - 12 males, 13 females

School D - 13 males, 12 females

School E - 13 males, 12 females

School F - 12 males, 13 females

Of the 200 students involved in the study, 50.0 percent were female students and 50.0 percent were male students. (See Table I.)

A minimum of three visits were made to each of the schools. The subjects were brought together on the third visit, asked to read

the instructions carefully, and to complete the Secondary Self-Esteem Inventory, which is shown in Appendix A of this study.

Findings

The multiple analysis of variance for the independent effects of urban or suburban site, male or female gender, and high school or junior high school level on the self concept scores indicated that there was not a significant difference at the .05 level. The independent effect of gender approached significance and subsequently appeared to have more effect upon the students' self concept than either the urban or suburban site or the level of the students. The independent effect of high school or junior high school level had the second most important effect among the three variables while the site had the least affect upon the students' feelings of self.

When looking at the effects of two variables simultaneously, no significance was found in the interactions of site and gender or site and level upon the students' self concept at the .05 level. There was a significant interaction at the .05 level between gender and level upon the self concept level of students.

A comparison of the means of the two variables involved in the significant interaction revealed the self concept scores of the high school females to be the most attributable factor. (See Table 6.) While suburban high school females accounted for 27 percent of the scores recorded higher than one standard deviation above the normal mean, the urban and suburban females jointly accounted for 32 percent of scores recorded above the normal mean. (See Table 9.)

A Kirk Test of simple main effects revealed the only significant cell to be that of suburban high school females.

First order interactions revealed the two variables, site and gender, to be next in importance as related to the students self concept while the variables of site and level were found to be of least significance.

As a result of second order interactions in the effects of site, gender and level upon the students' self concept scores, no significant differences were found to exist at the .05 level.

On the basis of the information revealed in the statistical analysis, the following hypothesis was rejected:

H₀6: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male or female junior high school or high school students.

It became necessary to fail to reject the below hypotheses:

H₀1: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban and suburban area students.

H₀2: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male and female students.

H₀3: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for junior high school and high school students.

H₀4: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban or suburban males and females.

H₀5: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for urban or suburban junior high school or high school students.

H₀7: There is no statistically significant difference between the mean raw score of self concept for male and female, urban or suburban, junior high school or high school students.

Other Findings

The mean scores for male students of both urban and suburban sites decreased as the students made the transition from the junior high to the high school level while scores for female students of both sites showed an increase from the junior to senior high school level. (See Table 2.)

Although total mean scores of the students' self concept were found to be above the normal mean, 37 percent of all sample scores were found to be below the previously established norm. (See Table 10.)

Suburban living seemed to have had a positive impact upon the self concept of female students. The suburban high school male students scored lowest among all groups followed by the urban high school male and the suburban junior high school male students.

Conclusions

Several conclusions were derived from findings of this study. These conclusions were formed within the limitations of this investigation.

It was concluded that differences which are generally assumed to be present in the self concept of urban and suburban students are not borne out by this study.

It was concluded that the self concept of female students of both junior and senior high school levels surpasses the self concept of the male students.

It was further concluded that as the male student makes the transition from junior high school to high school, there is a decrease in his level of self concept.

Correspondingly, it was concluded that there is an increase in the level of self concept of the female student as she moves from the junior high school to the high school level.

It was also concluded that gender and level have a significant impact upon the self concept of secondary students with suburban high school female possessing the highest level followed by urban high school female students.

Although significant differences were not reflected in the findings, it was concluded that emphasis should continue to be made in developing programs which will enhance self concept development.

Recommendations

While conclusions should evolve from the findings of a study, the recommendations are not similarly restricted. Consequently, the following recommendations are presented:

1. It is recommended that organized efforts be instituted to create more staff awareness within urban and suburban secondary schools

as related to the importance of the students' feeling of self being a major factor in learning.

2. It is recommended that affective education processes be integrally structured to complement the cognitive goals in all disciplines of secondary institutions toward meeting the needs of all students.
3. It is recommended that in preparing secondary teachers, teacher education institutions place more emphasis on the self concept as an important variable toward the readiness of students to learn.
4. It is recommended that intense efforts be made for the early identification of students with negative self concepts, and specific programs be developed which are designed to improve their self-confidence.
5. It is finally recommended that additional research be conducted to study the impact of Title IX regulations on the self concept of female students.

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A P P E N D I X E S

A P P E N D I X A

SECONDARY SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

SECONDARY SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

Score _____

Name _____ School _____

Grade _____ Date _____ Sex _____ Age _____

Race _____

INSTRUCTIONS: If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check (/) in the column "LIKE ME." If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check (/) in the column "UNLIKE ME." There are no right answers. Words or phrases in parentheses add meaning to the statement.

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
1. I can usually make up my mind about something without asking anyone first.	_____	_____
2. I don't give in easily when I think I'm right.	_____	_____
3. I would rather be myself than anyone else.	_____	_____
4. I really get upset when I fail at anything.	_____	_____
5. I enjoy talking in front of the class.	_____	_____
6. I recheck my school work to make sure that it is neat and correct.	_____	_____
7. I do the best work that I can in class.	_____	_____
8. I'm easy to like.	_____	_____
9. I like to be the leader in all activities.	_____	_____
10. Someone usually has to tell me what to do.	_____	_____
11. I have reasons for the things that I do.	_____	_____
12. I can take care of myself.	_____	_____
13. I don't make a big deal out of being right.	_____	_____

LIKE ME

UNLIKE ME

- | | | |
|--|-------|-------|
| 14. I don't like to be called on in class | _____ | _____ |
| 15. I'm proud of my school work. | _____ | _____ |
| 16. I'm not doing as well in school as I'd like. | _____ | _____ |
| 17. People like my ideas. | _____ | _____ |
| 18. Getting along with others is more important to me than always being first. | _____ | _____ |
| 19. I seldom do things that I am sorry for later. | _____ | _____ |
| 20. If I have something to say, I say it. | _____ | _____ |
| 21. There are many things about myself that I would change if I could. | _____ | _____ |
| 22. I learn from my mistakes. | _____ | _____ |
| 23. I'd be pleased to have examples of my classwork displayed during open house. | _____ | _____ |
| 24. My school work makes me feel discouraged. | _____ | _____ |
| 25. People often embarrass or hurt me. | _____ | _____ |
| 26. I like to share leadership responsibilities with others. | _____ | _____ |
| 27. I don't care what happens to me. | _____ | _____ |
| 28. I like to debate me ideas. | _____ | _____ |
| 29. I can be trusted. | _____ | _____ |
| 30. When I'm wrong, I like for people to tell me. | _____ | _____ |
| 31. Other people are liked better than I am. | _____ | _____ |
| 32. I would rather work with only my close friends in school activities. | _____ | _____ |
| 33. I can make up my mind and stick to it. | _____ | _____ |
| 34. I think I can help to change things. | _____ | _____ |
| 35. I wish I were younger (or older) | _____ | _____ |

LIKE ME

UNLIKE ME

36. When nice things happen to me, it is only good luck and nothing I did to deserve it.

37. My interests are shared by other students.

38. I can seldom make other people do things I want them to do.

39. There are many things that I would like to do, but I usually go along with what others want.

40. I think I'm doing O.K.

41. When bad things happen to me, it is usually someone else's fault.

42. I have many friends my own age.

43. I'm not ashamed of what I am.

44. I like being with other people.

45. I try to be friends with another person even if he isn't friendly to me.

A P P E N D I X B

CORRESPONDENCE RELATING TO STUDY

-118-

Oklahoma City Public Schools

900 North Klein

Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73106

December 15, 1975

Mr. Donald M. Edwards
6724 North Eastern
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

Dear Mr. Edwards:

I am happy to inform you that the Research Screening Committee has approved your request to conduct a study in the Oklahoma City Public Schools. Please contact Dr. James Robinson at John Marshall and Dr. Leonard Cayton at Harding to make further arrangements for your study. Please contact this office if you feel the need for further clarification of this matter. Good luck on your study.

Sincerely,

MAXIE WOOD
Senior Research Associate

MW:rp

Date

Dear Parent(s)

Please complete the permission form below:

_____ has my permission to participate in a
Student
study designed to compare the quantitative level of self concept for urban
and suburban area secondary students. I understand that only a few minutes
of the student's time will be required by completing the "Secondary Self-
Esteem Inventory."

The study is designed to re-emphasize the importance of self concept with
human growth/development and identify areas where specific instructional
methodologies and curricular designs might enhance the development of
positive concepts of self among all students.

Hopefully, the information gathered will be used by educators to enhance
our overall educational efforts.

Parent(s)