ELEMENTARY TEACHERS' PHILOSOPHIES OF HUMAN NATURE AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

By

BILLY DON CHILDRESS

Bachelor of Arts
Northeastern State College
Tahlequah, Oklahoma
1963

Master of Teaching
Northeastern State College
Tahlequah, Oklahoma
1968

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College
of the Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
July, 1972

ELEMENTARY TEACHERS' PHILOSOPHIES OF HUMAN NATURE AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

Thesis Approved:

Kenneth St. Clair
Thesis Adviser

Russell D. Olson

Ralph G. Brown

Larry M. Perkins

N. Durham
Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To Dr. Kenneth St. Clair, my committee chairman, and Dr. Russell Dobson, who collaborated jointly and cooperatively in a well-coordinated effort of directing this research, the author acknowledges his most sincere gratitude. Appreciation is also extended to Dr. Ralph Brann and Dr. Larry Perkins for their encouragement and valuable suggestions.

To Bill Hodges, fellow graduate assistant and colleague, thanks for perceptive criticism.

To the writer's family, Judy Beth, Candice, Jason and Bryan, appreciation is expressed for the many personal sacrifices made.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A major thrust in educational research has been an emphasis on the teaching-learning process. Basically, this research has included studies concerned with comparisons of various instrumental methodologies and pupil achievement (Russell and Fea, 1963), teacher characteristics and teaching effectiveness (Getzels and Jackson, 1963), and teacher behaviors as related to pupil achievement (Withall and Lewis, 1963). However, recent research and literature in the field of elementary education reveals a concern for the humanizing factor in the educational process.

This more recent inquiry centers around teacher expectancy studies (Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968; Davidson and Lang, 1960), interpersonal relationship studies (Rodgers, 1962; Combs, 1970), and learning climate studies (Anderson, 1967; Sinclair, 1968). It appears that elementary school systems are, in many ways, developed and maintained by teachers and principals. These are the personnel who set up and control in some manner the physical, the social, and the psychological environments which possibly effect in some manner the academic and emotional performance or growth of students (Davidson and Lang, 1960). Certainly, it is within the school and classroom social systems that teachers and pupils act, react, interact, and possibly transact. It is also here that effective teacher leadership along with environmental conditions become

of collective, interactive importance in developing a climate conducive to fostering desirable growth.

Essentially, all teachers have gone through teacher training curriculums which have great similarity, yet teaching behavior and learning climates from classroom to classroom seem to possess a high degree of variability (Rogan, 1953). What might affect these differences is a research question of great magnitude. Is one of the major factors influencing students' perceptions of the educational environment the teacher's basic philosophy about the nature of man?

Justification for the Study

This research study will be an attempt to ascertain or analyze the possible relationships existing between elementary school teacher's philosophy of human nature (PHN) and the perceived educational environment of elementary school students.

> The behavior of teachers, including the things they do with, to, or for children, is dependent upon their beliefs about the nature of children. The goals they seek, the judgments they make, and even the experiments they are willing to try are influenced by their beliefs about the very nature of man and his capacities. The beliefs they hold about people can restrict or enhance potentially great and new possibilities never dreamed of before. They mean the difference between teachers who believe that children "can", and will try to teach them, and those who believe children are "unable", and give up trying. No beliefs will be more important to education than those that teachers hold about the nature of man and the limits of his potentials (A.S.C.D., 1962).

A study by Davidson and Lang (1960) bears out the relation of children's perceptions of their teacher's feelings and the self-image possessed by the children.

> The children's perceptions of the teacher's feelings toward them correlated positively and significantly with self-perception. The child with the more favorable self-image is

> the one who more likely than not perceived his teacher's feelings toward him more favorably. Also the more positive the children's perceptions of the teacher's feelings, the better was their academic achievement and the more desirable their classroom behavior as rated by the teachers.

Thus it appears that teachers' beliefs and attitudes about the nature of children do indeed affect the child's perceptions of not only school environment but also of himself. Perceptions, and subsequently learning and behavior, are products of the environments of that individual, and how any person behaves at a given moment is a direct expression of the way his environment seems to him at that moment.

Research studies in the past decade indicate one variable most closely related to children's learning is the teacher. The kind of educational environment existing in our elementary schools is determined largely by teachers. Children's interactions with their environment, their behavior and all the things they do to learn are products of their perceptions of that environment. Behavior may be viewed as a function of the transactional relationship between the individual and his environment (A.S.C.D., 1962). The environment is recognized as a complex system of situational determinants (social, physical, and intellectual) that exert an influence upon participating individuals (Bloom, 1964). Kelley and Rasey (1952) in the book Education and the Nature of Man, make a similar point. Through his perceptions, man's experiences with his environment are continuously building him into what he is to become. "Man's surroundings then, become important in that they are the stuff out of which he is built" (Kelley and Rasey, 1952). The literature of Humanistic Psychology continually expresses the importance of the relationship between how people (teachers) feel about the nature of man and their interpersonal

behavior with him (the child). With learning viewed as a function of the student's perceptions of the educational environment, a study of some possible relationships between the way in which the teacher views man and students' perceptions of the educational environment seems vital.

Statement of the Problem

The central problem of this study is to determine if the philosophy of human nature possessed by elementary school teachers is related to elementary school student's perception of the educational environment.

This study proposes to establish a basis for the testing of the following null hypotheses:

Hypothesis I

There is no relationship between the philosophy of human nature possessed by elementary school teachers and elementary school students' perceptions of the education environment.

Hypothesis II

There is no significant relationship between the Trustworthiness scores of elementary school teachers on the Philosophy of Human Nature Scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variables of the Elementary School Environment Survey.

Hypothesis III

There is no significant relationship between the Strength of Will and Rationality scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES.

Hypothesis IV

There is no significant relationship between the Altruism scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES.

Hypothesis V

There is no significant relationship between the Independence scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES.

Hypothesis VI

There is no significant relationship between the Simplicity and Understandability scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variable of the ESES.

Hypothesis VII

There is no significant relationship between the Similarity

scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions of terms are used for this study.

Philosophy of Human Nature--Philosophy of human nature is operationally defined by Wrightsman's Philosophy of Human Nature Scale (1964). It is measure of a person's beliefs about human nature and, specifically, his beliefs about the interpersonal aspects of human nature.

The six dimensions* or subscales are:

(1) Trustworthiness vs. Untrustworthiness

(2) Altruism vs. Selfishness

(3) Strength of Will and Rationality vs. Lack of Will and Irrationality

(4) Independence vs. Conformity

(5) Simplicity vs. Complexity

(6) Similarity (between people) vs. Variability (between people)

The scores on the first four dimensions may be summed to give general favorability of Human Nature scores with which this study will be primarily concerned.

Educational Environment--is defined as the conditions, forces, and external stimuli or situational determinants which foster the development of individual characteristics. The environment can be described according to the participants' perceptions of these determinants or

---

*These dimensions are further defined in Chapter III.

probable stimuli.

Educational Environment Variables--are defined as five dimensions which describe some of the reality that exists in elementary schools. The dimensions are Practicality, Community, Awareness, Propriety, and Scholarship. These five dimensions as defined below are taken from Robert L. Sinclair's dissertation (Sinclair, 1968).

Practicality--The statements in this variable suggest a practical instrumental emphasis in the environment.

> Procedures, personal status, and practical benefits are important. Status is gained by knowing the right people, being in the right groups and doing what is expected. Order and supervision are characteristics of the administration and the classwork. Good fun, school spirit and student leadership in school social activities are evident (Sinclair, 1968).

Community--A friendly, cohesive, group-oriented school life is characterized by the combination of statements in this dimension.

> The environment is supportive and sympathetic. There is a feeling of group welfare and group loyalty which encompasses the school as a whole. The school is a community. It has a congenial atmosphere (Sinclair, 1968).

Awareness--The items in this variable seem to reflect a concern and emphasis upon three sorts of meaning--personal, poetic, and political.

> An emphasis upon self-understanding, reflectiveness, and identity suggest the search for personal meaning. A wide range of opportunities for creative and appreciate relationships to painting, music, drama, poetry, sculpture, and architecture suggests the search for poetic meaning. A concern about events around the world,the welfare of mankind, and the present and future condition of man suggests the search for political meaning and idealistic commitment. What seems to be evident in this sort of environment is a stress of awareness-an awareness of self, of society, and of esthetic stimuli (Sinclair, 1968).

Propriety--An environment that is polite and considerate is suggested by the statements in this dimension.

> Caution and thoughtfulness are evident. Group standards of decorum are important. On the negative side, one can describe propriety as the absence of demonstrative, assertive, rebellious, risk-taking, inconsiderate behavior (Sinclair, 1968).

Scholarship--The items in this variable describe an academic, scholarly environment.

> The emphasis is upon competitively high academic achievement and a serious interest in scholarship. The pursuit of knowledge and theories, scientific or philosophical, is carried on rigorously and vigorously. Intellectual speculation, and interest in ideas as ideas, knowledge for its own sake, and intellectual discipline--all these are characteristic of the environment (Sinclair, 1968).

Major Assumptions

The following assumptions will apply:

1) The Philosophy of Human Nature that one holds influences his behavior in interpersonal relations with other human beings.

2) Teachers' philosophies of Human Nature are measurable by the Philosophies of Human Nature Scale.

3) The perceptions of individuals living in an environment are a valid source of descriptions of that environment.

4) Perception and subsequently learning is a function of the transactional relationship between the individual and his environment.

5) Environment is assumed to be made up of perceived aspects which constitute probable stimuli for promoting particular individual feelings about the self.

6) School environments are measurable by the Elementary School Environment Survey.

7) If students agree, by a majority of two or more to one, that a statement is true about their school, then that statement is charac-

teristic of their school.

8) If a statement is considered to be characteristic of a school, then it is also characteristic of the self-contained classroom in which the student is a participant.

Limitations

The following limitations apply:

1) The sample was taken in a relative small geographical area of the state, including the Northeastern Oklahoma counties of Tulsa, Rogers, and Wagoner.

2) The generalizability of the study is limited to the elementary teachers and pupils participating in the study.

3) The classification of teachers' philosophies of human nature is limited to their PHN scale scores.

4) The analysis of pupils' perceptions of the school environment is limited to their performance on the Elementary School Environment Survey.

Methodology and Data Analysis

The following procedures were employed for collection and analysis of the data:

1) The sample consisted of 46 elementary teachers and 1,253 pupils of the fifth and sixth grades in schools within the Northeastern Oklahoma counties of Tulsa, Rogers, and Wagoner.

2) Permission was obtained from the Association of Tulsa County School Administrators to do the study.

3) Building principals, teachers, and pupils of selected schools

were notified of specific dates and times when instruments were administered.

4) The investigator personally administered the instruments to teachers and pupils.

5) The Philosophies of Human Nature Scale (Wrightsman, 1964) was employed to determine teachers' beliefs about the nature of man.

6) The Elementary School Environment Survey (ESES) was administered to assess the pupils' perceptions of the school environment.

7) The statistical technique used indetermining the significance of relationships was the point biserial and phi correlation coefficients.

Format for Succeeding Chapters

The organizational format for this study is as follows: Chapter I dealt with the theoretical foundations underlying and leading to the statement of the problem and hypotheses to be tested in the study. Chapter II is a review of selected related literature and research. Methodology, procedures and instruments used in the study are presented in Chapter III. Chapter IV contains the statistical treatment and analysis of the data. The summary, findings and implications for further research are set forth in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

STUDIES RELATED TO PHILOSOPHY OF HUMAN NATURE

Introduction

Human nature is discussed daily and is the source of much controversy. Almost everyone has very definite beliefs about the nature of man and frequently uses these basic assumptions to explain and describe the actions of others. The phrase, "it is only human nature to do this . . . or that," can be heard almost everywhere. Researchers have recently come to realize that beliefs about human nature can be studied. People's assumptions about the nature of man can be conceptualized and measured, and it can be determined if these beliefs influence behavior toward others.

The study of the Philosophy of Human Nature becomes important when one considers the tremendous implications of these beliefs for behavior toward others. Recently, social psychologists have abandoned their earlier reluctance to study about the nature of man. Lawrence S. Wrightsman, a professor at George Peabody College for Teachers, has contributed the bulk of the research. Psychologists such as Gordon Allport and Nevitt Stanford (1965) have stated their concern and conviction that psychologists ought to study basic concerns of human beings from a combination of both scientific and humanistic viewpoints.

Wrightsman (1964) developed an instrument for measuring people's philosophies of human nature. Since then, researchers have used the

PHN Scale for the gathering of normative data to determine if the instrument can differentiate between various groups of people with differing philosophical orientations. Much of the following is an attempt to review some of this basic research.

Ashcraft (1963) studied the relationship of general attitudes about human nature and behavior of subjects in making judgments of specific persons. He hypothesized that subjects possessing attitudes which indicated a belief in the variability of human nature would reveal this diversity in their ratings of actual people. He also hypothesized that subjects possessing attitudes reflecting a belief in the complexity of human nature would demonstrate this in the ways they rated specific people in actual situations. One hundred freshman girls from George Peabody College for Teachers were used to test the hypothesis. The results of this study indicated that "attitudes toward complexity in human nature may be part of the total concept of cognitive complexity which can be related to findings of studies in other areas of perception and discrimination."

Ligon (1963), in a study designed to examine the relationship between a person's religious background and training and his philosophy of human nature, studied 106 college students. Although the correlations were not strong, some significant relationships were found. It was concluded that participation in religious orientation did influence the expectations of students about others. Significant relationships were found between humanitarian religious attitudes and favorable views of man. Fundamentalistic religious backgrounds showed significant relationships with less favorable views of man. Among the conclusions drawn from the study was that "apparently religious education

techniques are not proving effective in helping young people integrate religious precepts into a functional philosophy of human nature."

Wrightsman (1964), in an attempt to discover some of the less obvious causes of variability in teacher evaluations given by students, confirms the results of the study by Ashcraft. In the study 97 education majors were asked to evaluate two of their instructors and answer attitude and personality measures. Female students tended to have more complex views of human nature and likewise differentiated more in their evaluations of the two instructors. Students with more simplified views of human nature operating under the assumptions that human nature is relatively simple, understandable, and constant from one person to the next failed to notice differences in instructors reflecting disorientation. He also concluded "the person who sees human nature as complicated and hard to understand is more sensitive to the nuances of inter-individual differences in behavior."

Differences in beliefs about human nature are also indicated by studies between occupational groups. Wrightsman (1967) in gathering normative data for the PHN Scale, gathered data at twenty colleges and from nine occupational groups. The schools, predominately Southern, did show some variability in the student ability level and type of environment. Human nature, in general, is seen by the average respondent in these studies as neither good nor bad, in fact they scored generally in the neutral range on all four substantive subscales. There were some exceptions to this neutrality, however, with colleges of fundamentalist religious orientation and Negro colleges demonstrating a more negative view of human nature.

Some sex differences also appeared. Females consistently show

more positive views on the dimensions of trustworthiness, strength of will, altruism, and independence present in human nature. Females also demonstrated belief in a more complex nature of human beings than did the males in the studies.

Of the occupational groups tested, guidance counselors have the most favorable views of human nature. Their mean scores on general favorability, trustworthiness, altruism and independence are all higher than the respective means of every undergraduate sample. Surprisingly though, despite their occupational concern with individual differences, the counselors did not see human nature as extremely complex or variable.

Nottingham (1968) found that family background was related to certain aspects of philosophy of human nature. In a sample consisting of 184 female college freshmen as subjects, there was a suggestion of a difference between the means scores of different background classifications on the dimension of Multiplexity. Mean Multiplexity scores for individuals reporting themselves as an only or inbetween child were higher than those listing themselves as an oldest or youngest child. When analyzed for the family dimension of total income a significant difference between the mean multiplexity scores was also found with individuals reporting low or high family incomes having the lowest multiplexity scores.

Some studies indicate that the philosophy of human nature held by parents helps to structure the relationships they have with their own children. Ashcraft (1967) found that students perceptions of parental traits differed with the closeness of the relationships. Seventy-three white undergraduate females were studied in their relation to birth

order, attitude toward others and trait descriptions of the persons they chose to disclose themselves to. Students who saw others as trustworthy and independent were found to reveal themselves significantly more to peers than do firstborn, who were found to not readily confide in either parents or friends. Results indicated that parents of students who were positively regarded on a number of traits were more likely to receive confidences than those perceived negatively.

Dertz (1968) found differences among various social work groups on attitudes about the nature of man. In the study an attempt was made to determine the basic value orientation of people involved in social work and to determine whether there were changes in this orientation during an eight-week period of exposure to extreme poverty. Wrightsman's philosophy of human nature scale was used (Wrightsman, 1964a).

In the study 52 social work students who participated in the Manpower for Social Services Head Start Program in the summer of 1958 were selected. The PHN scores for the other social work students were obtained from a sample of 25 students who had completed their first year of graduate study at the University of Tennessee School of Social Work in Nashville.

Statistically significant differences were found between the program participant group and the student social worker comparison group on two variables (Independence and Multiplicity) and between the program participant group and professional social worker group on three variables (Altruism, positive-negative, and multiplexity) indicating that the program participants had a much less favorable view of human nature than did the other two groups.

Statistically significant differences were found between the program participant group and the guidance counselor group on five variables (Trustworthiness, Altruism, Independence, Complexity, and Positive-negative) indicating that the counselors viewed human nature as being more positive than did the program participants.

Another study concerned with the views of man held by social workers was conducted by Miller (1968). In this study an attempt was made to determine if values held by social work graduate students differed from those of professional social workers and from those of undergraduate college students. Again the Philosophies of Human Nature scale (Wrightsman, 1964a) was used. The sample consisted of 90 entering graduate students at the University of Tennessee School of Social Work from the Knoxville and Nashville chapters. Norms previously established on the PHN variables for undergraduate students were utilized.

On the variables of Trustworthiness, Altruism, Independence, and Positive-Negative, statistically significant differences were found between the social work student group and the professional social work groups. Also within the social work student sample, intragroup comparisons reflected much homogeneity of values as measured by the PHN scale.

The findings of this study indicated that professional social workers viewed human nature as being more positive than did social work students; this was felt by the author to be strongly suggestive that professional social work education influenced value orientation.

Some of the research seems to indicate that a person's view about the nature of man is related to attitudes on social issues.

Carlson (1966) hypothesized and tested such a relationship through the use of a scale containing factors very similar to the theoretical dimensions built into the PHN. It was found that people with high faith in human nature generally had liberal social attitudes, but belief in high control (people's success is determined by their own efforts) was related to conservative attitudes.

Nottingham (1968) also investigated the relationships between the social attitudes of liberalism, conservativism and philosophy of human nature. The study was designed to demonstrate differences in groups generally thought to possess divergent "theories of people." "Liberal" and "conservative" groups were selected from two campus organizations taking extreme positions on civil rights, the Viet Nam war, and student activism. While there were no significant differences between means on the subscales of the PHN between the groups, there were significantly greater variances in the liberal sample than those among the conservative sample. The author suggested the possibility that this indicated a higher tolerance for deviancy within the liberal group. The proposition was also set forth by the author that analysis of the data indicated that, generally, the liberal and conservative subjects appeared to have substantially more negative beliefs about human nature than the general college student population at Vanderbilt.

The social attitude of authoritarianism and its relationship to the philosophies of human nature in seminary students and counselor trainees was examined by Mason (1966). In the study 72 ministerial students from five seminaries and 98 counseling students from five NDEA Institutes in Guidance and Counseling were administered the PHN,

a social maturity scale and a brief personal information questionnaire.

The author's examination of the data revealed that while there were no significant differences between seminary students and counselor trainees in their perception of human nature and tendencies to be authoritarian, counselor trainees did perceive man as significantly more altruistic on the PHN. Statistical significance again appeared in the relationship between negative views of human nature and the tendency to be authoritarian. Thus it would appear that the views one holds about the nature of man are related to the ways in which people relate to each other.

In a study attempting to assess the relationship between attitude change and philosophy of human nature, Wrightsman and Cook (1965) engaged 25 white females in a part-time work experience with Negroes. Each subject worked with a Negro in a three-person group for a month. Eleven of the subjects became more favorable in their attitudes toward Negroes, but the fourteen others did not. In an attempt to determine what factors were related to favorable change, scores on a battery of 73 measures (given to the subjects prior to their participation in the study) were factor analyzed. (N for the analysis was 177 females.) Of the 11 factors, three distinguished between changers and non-changers. The most striking was a factor entitled "positive attitudes toward people," as measured by Christie's Machiavellianism scale, Rosenberg's Faith in People scale and Wrightsman's Behavior Insite test, which is described as an open-ended measure of philosophies of human nature. In examination of a summated factor score for this factor, the author reports that while all of the non-changers were below the mean only one of the changers was. Thus it was concluded by

the author that subjects entering a contact experience with cynical, distrusting attitudes toward human nature have a poor prognosis for benefit from it.

In an attempt to determine the effects of a traumatic experience on a person's philosophy of human nature, Wrightsman and Noble (1965) studied student reaction to the assassination of President Kennedy. Two instruments were administered: The PHN Scale, and a questionnaire to assess one's agreements with the President's policies and the extent of one's reaction to his assassination. Thirty college students who had answered the PHN Scale 14 months earlier retook the scale along with the questionnaire. In the results of this study Wrightsman and Noble concluded that while the traumatic experience of the President's assassination did affect students' philosophies of human nature, these effects were apparently temporary. They found that those students who agreed with Kennedy's policies and who felt a "great personal loss" showed less favorable views of human nature at the time of the post-assassination testing. Those less in agreement and less concerned showed no such change. In the follow-up testing three months after the first retesting the students that had previously showed less favorable attitude toward human nature came back to their original position on the scale.

In a longitudinal study designed to assess the changeability of one's basic ideas about the nature of man, Claxton (1971) examined the pre-and post-training PHN's of 273 educationally and economically disadvantaged trainees enrolled in a Manpower Development job training program. The six-month period of training consisted of occupational instruction, basic education, and counseling.

Results of the study indicated that the PHN levels of all the entering trainees were negative in Trust and Altruism, below other groups in Complexity and Variability, and very positive in Strength of Will. However, significant gains were reported to have ~~been~~ found in Trust and Altruism as a result of the six months training while significant decreases were noted in Strength of Will. The author also reported that black trainees did not differ from whites on initial PHN but they gained less than whites in Altruism.

Contemporary writers such as Rogers, Combs, Marlow and Kelley have all expressed the significance of one's basic views about the nature of man in structuring the kind and quality of human interactions that will develop. Placed into an educational context, this proposition has important implications for the teacher-pupil relationship. Kelley and Rasey (1952) point out that the teacher's basic beliefs about the nature of man help to define the relationship with his students.

Rogers (1962) stresses the importance of such basic attitudes and characteristics of teachers as trust, realness, acceptance and empathy. On trust, Rogers comments that "it is clear from the experience of Aichoen, Neill, or the many individuals who have tried a student centered approach to teaching, that one of the requisites for the teacher who would facilitate this type of learning is a profound trust in the human organism. If we distrust the human being, then we must cram him with information of our own choosing, lest he go his own mistaken way. But if we trust the capacity of the human individual for developing his own potentiality, then we can permit him the opportunity to choose his own way in this learning."

It seems that to trust pupils teachers must also possess expectations that students will choose the right alternative when given a choice. Teachers must believe that it is their nature to choose to learn rather than to not learn, and that generally people are able to live up to the expectations set for them by others. Merton (1948) wrote on the real consequences of defining situations as real. Rosenthal (1970), in an empirical study of this phenomenon, administered to the children of some eighteen classrooms in a lower socioeconomic status school a test disguised as one that would predict intellectual "blooming." Within each grade level there were three classes composed of children with above average ability, average ability and below average ability. Approximately 20 percent of these children were chosen at random from each classroom to compose the experimental group. The teachers of the experimental group were told that these were the students who scored significantly higher on the "test for intellectual blooming" and that they could expect remarkable gains in intellectual competence during the following eight months of school. Now, these children had been redefined for the teacher and the difference being the experimental and the control groups in the minds of the teachers.

At the end of the school year, eight months later, all of the students were again administered the same IQ test. There were significant differences in the gain score for two groups in two of the three sub-categories. While the experimental group showed only slightly higher gains in verbal IQ (two points), they scored an average of four points higher in total IQ and seven points higher in raising IQ than did the control group children.

It was also interesting to note that even at the end of the school

year these children of the experimental group were still enjoying the benefits of the redefinition they had been given in the beginning as evidenced by the teachers' complimentary description of their classroom behavior. The children from whom intellectual growth was expected were described by their teachers as happy, curious, significantly more interesting and as having a significantly better chance of becoming successful in the future.

The author also reported a tendency for the control group children to be seen by their teachers as more appealing, affectionate, and better adjusted with a lower need for social approval. "In short, the children from whom intellectual growth was expected became more intellectually alive and autonomous or at least were so perceived by their teachers" (Rosenthal, 1970).

In studying the effects of teacher personality traits on pupil growth, Washurne and Heil (1960, p. 425) reported:

> One striking positive result of the experiment has been clear evidence that the teacher's personality has a clear and measurable effect on the progress of her pupils academically and socially--academically in terms of progress on the Stanford Achievement test, socially in terms of growth and friendliness and recipiency of friendliness as measured on the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale. There appears also to be a relationship between the type of teacher and her children's emotional adjustment as shown in the children's feelings test.

Even with all the empirical studies that have yielded data accentuating the importance of the teacher with her basic beliefs and characteristics, in the academic and social growth of children, Combs (1970), postulates that teachers do not see themselves as occupying this same role of significance. Combs also takes the position that children learn who and what they are from the nature of their interactions with the significant people in their lives and that teachers who deal with

children all day long throughout the year are in an excellent position to occupy a role of great significance. However, the author reports, teachers seem to believe that the children in their classes have already been shaped by the people who had them before (parents, community, etc.) and there is little or nothing left which they can hope to do. Teachers on the whole simply do not feel that they are significant people in the lives of children.

In summary, with the studies of Wrightsman and others who have attempted to identify and measure certain basic beliefs men hold about the nature of man, the research has contributed a considerable amount of normative data to the problem of interpersonal aspects of human interaction. It seems evident from this review of the literature that the basic beliefs one holds about the nature of man comprise a viable force in the structuring of the reciprocal interactions among people.

Studies Relating to Classroom Environments

There is considerable research evidence that individual differences in particular characteristics or behavior are a result, in part, of differences in the environments in which individuals have lived. This evidence points out the need for research to measure differences in environments with which individuals interact rather than continuing to research the sources of variation among individuals.

Measurement of selected variables in educational environments should be of utmost importance to researchers. Environment is identified by Bloom (1964) as "the conditions, forces, and external stimuli which impinge upon the individual. These may be physical, social, as well as intellectual forces and conditions," originating from the most

immediate social interactions as well as more remote cultural and institutional stimuli. Bloom regards one's environment as a force that is continual massaging and shaping the individual.

In identifying some of the variables most responsible for individual differences in general intelligence and school achievement, Bloom identified the following:

> Differences in general intelligence are likely to be related to:
> 1. Stimulation provided in the environment for verbal development.
> 2. Extent to which affection and reward are related to verbal reasoning accomplishments.
> 3. Encouragement of active interaction with problems, exploration of the environment, and the learning of new skills.
>
> Differences in school achievement arelikely related to:
> 1. Meaning which education comes to have for one's personal advancement and role in society.
> 2. Level of education of and value placed on education by the significant adults in the individual's life.
> 3. Extent to which school achievement is reinforced and motivated by parents or significant adults in the individual's life.

Ragan (1953) has written with considerable depth about both the importance of the school environment and the teacher's role in fostering the kinds of environments that are conducive to learning. He defines environment as "those physical, intellectual, emotional and social factors which directly affect living and learning in the classroom." Ragan further states that individual classrooms under the direction of different teachers have distinctly different intellectual, emotional and social climates. He states it as follows:

> Most of us are familiar with different classroom climates, for we have visited rooms so lacking in friendliness that we call them cold and chilly. We have seen stormy rooms too, where the air was electric and we felt that a storm was about to break; and foggy rooms, where the teacher and the children were anxious, jittery, and uncertain. You feel, after a visit to such rooms, that you have been in a foggy, misty, damp atmosphere and you are glad to get out into the fresh air again. Then there are rooms where you feel that you have just walked into a patch of warm spring sunshine, where the children are happy, good-humored,

> and secure as they work. These are rooms in which the children find sunny warmth of being appreciated for their own special abilities and skills; where the teacher is serene, patient, and happy. These rooms have a temporate climate which is right for the optimum growth of the child--a climate in which the learning process flourishes.

Considered by many to be among the most influential experiments on classroom group climate or atmosphere were those by Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939). Investigated were the various effects of the different types of classroom organization. Democratic, authoritarian, and laissez-faire climates were artificially created in different children's groups. Results of the investigation were reported by the authors to indicate that higher levels of satisfaction and "group-mindedness" along with lower levels of aggression and hostility were representative of the democratic groups.

White and Lippitt (1962), in a study which again examined the effects of different types of classroom organizational climates, reported that the quantity of work produced (the classes were in soap carving, model making and other craft activities) was greater in the autocratic setting. However, it was also noted that the activity in this setting seemed to require the presence of a leader. When the leader left the room output tended to drop off indicating that most of the motivation was external in origin. Also interesting was the report of finding that productivity in the laissez-faire setting, with little formal structure and members were free to do as they pleased, tended to go up in the absence of the leader. This finding was attributed by the authors to an observed tendency for one of the boys to assume the leadership role when the adult leader was not present. In summary the authors suggested that students may be happier and feel more positive toward the teacher and the other members of the group

in a setting in which the adult acts simply as one of the group, and in which decisions are made via group discussion, but productivity may be greater in the group where the teachers tell them what to do and how to do it. It was also concluded, however, that certain learning tasks may be handled most effectively by giving students very little direction, forcing them to organize the situation themselves.

Rather similar implications to the above reported studies may be drawn from Deutsch's work on the use of artificially created climates characterized as competitive or cooperative (Deutsch, 1949). In his investigation, Deutsch divided two introductory psychology classes at M.I.T. into two kinds of groupings. Each group was given an assignment involving mental puzzles, discussions and reports on some human relations case studies. Evaluation of the project in the cooperative group was done by group with each member of a given group receiving the same grade as all other members of that group and all members of the best group being excused from a term paper. In the competitive groups, individuals were ranked according to their individual contribution, grading was on a curve within groups, and the highest ranking individual of each group was excused from the term paper.

Results of the experiment, as in the Lewin studies, were that the cooperation groups showed consistently higher coordination in effort, attentiveness and friendliness toward each other, along with a more favorable evaluation of the group and its products. There was also reported by the author no evidence of superior output--in this case learning of the content of the course--nor was there any greater interest or involvement in the course subject matter by the cooperative group. The benefits seem to be in attitudes, interpersonal relations

and coordination.

Sommer (1968), in a study of the effects of classroom environment on student learning, studied one hundred and forty-four students who enrolled in an experimental psychology class. The author found that less discussion participation took place in the rooms where the environment was poor because of the students' endeavors to escape the poor classroom environments where possible.

Anderson (1967) investigated the relationship between the emotional climate of the classroom and learning. A random sample of students in forty-nine twelfth-grade physics classes from all parts of the country were given a classroom climate questionnaire which was correlated with the test on understanding science, a physics achievement test, and the Semantic Differential for Science Students. A 25% random sample of each class took the classroom climate questionnaire while a 50% random sample took the other three tests. The author reported that classes with high gains in science understanding were perceived by the students as containing more friction, strict control, personal intimacy, goal direction and subservience than classes having low gains. Learning situations were seen as those having intense interaction between teacher and students with the class being well organized and controlled by the teacher but where students were free to question and learn in a relatively informal atmosphere.

In an investigation of elementary student attitudes toward school and interpersonal conditions in the classroom, Plick (1970) gathered data from fourteen Midwestern metropolitan sixth grade classrooms. The students were administered a sixty-item Likert type attitude scale and a "Naming Your Friends" sociometric instrument. The

following hypotheses were tested:

1. The higher the involvement of a pupil in the classroom the more favorable will be his attitude toward school.
2. The more "popular" a pupil is in the classroom the more favorable will be his attitudes toward school.
3. Members of friendship pairs within classrooms will be more similar in attitudes toward school than the members of non-friendship pairs.

An analysis of the data showed that attitudes toward school were not related to the extent of friendship involvement but were affected in unexpected ways by sex and socioeconomic status. The author also reported a positive relationship between "popularity" and school attitudes. Interpersonal attraction and similarity of attitudes were found to be generally positively related, particularly for high socioeconomic status girls.

Different grade level groupings for instruction have been studied to determine the varying environmental on students. Shoulin (1967) designed a study to assess the effects of the middle school environment as opposed to the elementary school environment on sixth grade pupils. The researcher assigned at random 245 sixth graders to middle and elementary schools (and to which teachers had also been randomly assigned). The Sequential Test of Educational progress was used to determine academic achievement, while Lippitt's Self Concept scale was used to measure self concept.

The author concluded that no significant differences were found between academic achievement in the different environments. Secondly, that sex interaction was significant for math and science,

Also, while no significant differences were found on the self concept scale as a result of the environment, there were significant environmental effects on dating, independence and conformity on the Social Behavior Scale.

Webb (1967) in a study of the perceived environmental press of sixth grade pupils, reported that the particular school and race more than sex or ability level affect perceptions. He found that pupils felt a positive press in areas such as intellectual improvement, health and physical fitness, and civic responsibility while feeling no press toward moral and spiritual values and a negative press away from independence. Press also appeared to be higher in schools where pupils were taught by teachers of their own race.

In a study of personality characteristics and classroom climate, Walberg (1967a) came up with some interesting findings. In the study thirty-six male physics teachers voluntarily attended a briefing session for a new high school physics course and took a battery of personality tests before teaching 2,000 high school students enrolled in the course. The author reports these findings:

> (1) teachers with needs for dependence, power order and change had formal subservient classes with little animosity between class members; (2) teachers with needs for interaction (aggressive and affiliative) had controlled, goal directed classes. (Students may feel less personal intimacy with each other because the teacher may monopolize affective group interaction); and (3) the self-centered teacher had a class that was disorganized, constrained, loose in student supervision and lower in group status.

Another research study lending support to the rationale that classroom climate affects students' perceptions was completed by Walberg (1967b), who investigated the relationship between the structural and affective dimensions of group climate. Using the classroom as the unit

of analysis, a 25% random sample of students in seventy-two classes from all parts of the country took the classroom climate questionnaire. A Chi-square test of relationships between structural and affective dimensions was significant at the .001 level. Students who perceived the classes as disorganized and stratified also saw themselves as alienated, dissatisfied and in conflict with one another. Significant and complex relationships existed between climate measures and learning criteria. Stratification and friction climate variables predicted science understanding while others predicted physics achievement and attitudes toward laboratory work. Groups of climate variables predicted learning better than others. For example, structural variables such as isomorphism (the tendency for class members to be treated equally) and organization were better predictors than coaction (compulsive restraint or coercion).

Walberg (1967a) also investigated the relationship between individual satisfaction with classroom climate and learning. In this study two-thousand one-hundred high school juniors and seniors were asked to evaluate the Harvard project physics and experimental course. The findings indicated significant and complex relationships existed between climate measures and learning criteria.

In a study of classroom environment and pupil welfare, Kephort (1954) looked for a possible relationship between the color of classroom furnishings and students' achievement. In a study spanning one year, pre and post measures of achievement were taken in two traditionally furnished and colored classrooms and were compared with two classrooms which had been repainted and refurnished to the design of the "coordinated classroom." It was found that students in the

experimental rpoms were superior in achievement and exhibited less extraneous body movement.

In support of the belief that environmental perceptions influence behavior is a study by Madsen (1968) in which he investigated the effect of praise, statement of classroom rules, and the ignoring of inappropriate behavior on the interval of inappropriate behavior in the classroom. Madsen found that rules alone exert little effect on classroom behavior. Ignoring inappropriate behavior and showing approval for appropriate behavior reduced the incidence of inappropriate behavior. Approval of appropriate behavior was seen as the key to effective classroom management.

In a study of the relationship between organizational climate and teacher morale, Koplyay (1967) studied about three hundred elementary school teachers in suburban Chicago schools. The results of this study suggest that an "open" climate is associated with schools having high morale.

Sinclair (1968) employed his Elementary School Environment Survey to describe the diversity and similarity of educational environments in selected elementary schools. Attempted in the study was the identification of the educational environment of each of several schools and the analysis of particular differences and patterns of communality existing among schools in the sample.

According to Sinclair,

> One description of the environment is found in the collective perceptions of students participating in the life of the school. What the students perceive with a high degree of consensus is considered characteristic of the environment, and this perceived environment constitutes a stimulus that influences student behavior. In this study, not all dimensions of school environment are included when describing the perceived atmosphere of elementary schools. Rather,

> the environmental variables selected and measured are those thought to have a potential impact on a school's educational atmosphere.

Sinclair defined educational environment as "the conditions, forces and external stimuli which foster the development of individual characteristics." Environment is recognized as a "complex system of situational determinants that exert an influence upon participating individuals." These determinants include the factors of social, physical and intellectual significance.

Another important assumption of this conceptualization of environment is that behavior is a function of the transactional relationship between the individual and his environment. This study then considers individual characteristics as a product of perceived stimuli in the environment.

The collective perceptions of fifth and sixth grade students toward selected environmental variables were compiled on the basis of their contrasting demographic features. Sixteen elementary schools were selected to participate in the study.

Among the findings of the study were: 1) school environments are different when measured along the selected variables, 2) elementary schools may be grouped into environmental patterns. For example, Sinclair found sets of schools concerned with practicality, somewhat scholarly, and more rebellious than proper. Another group, high on practicality, differed from the first pattern in that they were typically very warm and accepting and having a higher score on propriety.

Summary

In summary, this review of the literature on the basic beliefs about human nature that people hold reveals the important role they play in the day-to-day interactions of people. It is these beliefs that influence behavior and set the guidelines for personal interaction between human beings. This human interaction is a major contributor to the shaping of the perceivable environmental climate, and it is the function of the ESES to measure this climate.

The review of the literature on classroom environment points very plainly to not only the conclusion that classrooms do indeed differ in their perceived climates, but that this difference has a very profound effect on the degree to which students profit from it both cognitively and affectively.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Kerlinger (1964) states that, "a research design is the plan, structure and strategies of investigation conceived so as to obtain answers to research questions and control variance." This chapter contains the plan or overall scheme for the execution of this research project from the selection of the sample to the analysis of the data.

Population and Sample Selection

The population was originally defined as the fifth and sixth grade students and teachers of the elementary schools in Tulsa County; however, when one of the school systems declined to participate, the researcher was forced to go outside the County. The final population and sample consisted of forty six teachers and one thousand two hundred and fifty-three fifth and sixth grade students from selected elementary schools within the Northeastern Oklahoma counties of Tulsa, Rogers and Wagoner.

Although the research sample contained several elementary schools comparable to urban schools in numbers of students, teachers, special personnel and organizational structure, it is not known what possible effect the exclusion of the urban school sample may have had on the

character of the data. The final sample contained elementary schools with a variety of characteristics. They range from smaller schools (under two hundred students) to schools with over six hundred pupils. The communities vary from predominately rural settings to suburban in close proximity to a large urban center. Also included are schools from a wide range of socioeconomic settings.

Only selected were those schools which had an organizational design of self contained or homeroom classroom situations. It was the opinion of the researcher that only in organizational designs where one teacher had the class for a considerable portion of the school day could there develop relationships between the teacher's basic views on the nature of man and students' perceptions of the school environment.

Data Collection

Upon selection of the schools to be included in the sample, permission was gained from the superintendent of each school district to conduct the study. Where necessary, copies of the instrument were sent to the superintendent for examination and approval.

After securing permission from the superintendent, each building principal was contacted whereupon the date, time, and specific details for the administering of the questionnaires were agreed upon. The researcher and one assistant administered the instruments to each teacher and classroom in the sample. The time period of data collection in the fourteen participating schools was between March 16 and April 7, 1972.

In the process of administering the instruments, each teacher and

student group was first of all assured of the anonymity of their responses. It was expressed very strongly that no individual teacher, pupil or school district would be identified in the final report of the study. The instructions to students included the following:

(1) This instrument is not a test, it is a questionnaire or opinionnaire.

(2) There are no right or wrong answers.

(3) We are interested in your ideas about the type of school this is.

(4) You have spent a lot of time in your school. You have played on its playgrounds and studied in its classrooms and you know a lot about your school.

(5) We are asking you to be a reporter and tell your thoughts about your school.

(6) Some of the statements you read may be "true" part of the time and "false" part of the time but we want you to decide which way it is most of the time and mark the answer sheet accordingly.

(7) There may also be a few statements that do not apply directly to your particular school situation, for example, item number seventeen says that many students like to stay around after school gets out, and you may be a bus student as most all of the students may ride busses and have to leave as soon as school is out. If this should be the case, we want you to answer as to what you think most children would do if they had the opportunity.

(8) When you have completed your answer sheet, please place it upside down in front of you and sit quietly until everyone finishes and we take them up.

Responses were obtained from all teachers and with only few exceptions all children within each classroom group. There was one occasion where two children were called from the group to take part in special classes.

Analysis of Data

Responses on the answer sheets to the questionnaires were punched on IBM cards and were scored by computer using the scoring programs adopted from the scoring instructions that were provided by the authors of the instruments used.

With the assumption that one of the two variables (PHN) was a genuine diachotomy (final score yields total positive of negative views of human nature), a point biserial correlation coefficient was the statistical technique employed to test the hypotheses. The following formula for computation of the correlation coefficient was employed (Guilford, 1965):

$$r_{pbi} = \frac{M_p - M_q}{+} \qquad p9$$

where: r_{pbi} = point biserial

M_p = mean of X values for the higher group of the dichotomized variable, the one having more of the ability or attitude on which the sample is divided into two subgroups.

M_q = mean of X value for the lower group.

p = proportion of the cases in the higher group.

q = proportion of the cases in thelower group.

$+$ = standard deviation of the total sample in the continuously measured variable,X.

In the final report of this study, the conclusions drawn are based

on the significance of correlations between teachers' scores on the PHN and pupils' scores on the ESES. Analyses were concerned with the relationships between (1) teachers' scores on the substantive scales of the first four dimensions of the PHN and pupils' scores on each variable of the ESES; (2) teachers' scores on each subscale of the PHN and students' scores on each variable of the ESES; (3) teachers' scores on the Multiplexity dimension of the PHN and student scores on each variable of the ESES.

Because of the difficulty in determining the exact nature of the variables on the ESES (whether they were continuous or genuinely dichotomous), a phi coefficient for measuring correlations between two dichotomous distributions was also computed (Gilford, 1965). The results of this statistical treatment are presented in the supplemental analysis.

Instrumentation

Philosophies of Human Nature Scale

The PHN Scale attempts to measure a person's beliefs about the interpersonal aspects of human nature. Conceptualization of the six dimensions of human nature followed a survey of writings in philosophy, religion and the social sciences. The dimensions are:

(A) Trustworthiness vs. Untrustworthiness. This subscale measures the extent to which people are seen as trustworthy, moral and ethical.

(b) Strength of Will and Rationality vs. Lack of Will and Irrationality. This subscale measures the extent to which

people are viewed as being able to understand themselves and able to change their outcomes by their own will power.

(C) Altruism vs. Selfishness. This subscale measures the extent to which people are seen as being unselfish and sincerely interested in helping other people.

(D) Independence vs. Conformity. This subscale measures the extent to which individuals are viewed as being able to withstand pressures to conform.

(E) Simplicity and Understandable vs. Complexity and Non-understandable. This subscale cuts across the first four dimensions and measures the extent to which people are seen as complex and hard to understand or simple and easy to understand.

(F) Similarity (between people) vs. Variability (between people). This subscale also cuts across the first four dimensions and measures the extent to which basic nature is seen as different in individuals and the basic changeability of human nature.

The scale consists of eighty-four items with fourteen related to each dimension or subscale. Responses to each statement are made on a five-point Likert-type scale. A sample of the instrument is included in the appendix under instruments.

Reliability

Split-half reliability was determined by testing groups of one hundred graduate and one hundred undergraduate students.

Reliability was calculated for each subscale by dividing the scale

into halves, determining the subjects' scores for each half and correlating the half-scores applying the Spearman-Brown Prophecy Formula.

The split-half reliability coefficients for male and female undergraduates were all above .60 with nine of the twelve above .70.

Test-retest reliabilities of the subscales were determined by two testings, with a three-month time interval, of a group of thirty freshman girls. The test-retest reliability coefficients for each of the six dimensions were: Trustworthiness, .74; Altruism, .83; Independence, .75; Strength of Will and Rationality, .05; Complexity, .52; and Variability, .84. A general favorability toward human nature was determined by summation of the scores on the first four subscales and yielded a reliability of .90 (Wrightsman, 1964).

Validity

Correlation with other attitude scales in the same conceptual area was the procedure used for validating the PHN Scale. Wrightsman found negative correlations ranging from .39 to .75 between the PHN and "Faith-in-People" Scale, which measures a positive view of human nature.

In other studies designed to test the validity and reliability of the instrument, Wrightsman found that:

> The relationships among the first four subscales indicate that there is something common to the first four dimensions, as each of these six correlations is positive, above .30 and significantly different from zero. The highest correlations are among Trustworthiness, Altruism and Independence; these range from .61 to .69, close in degree to the reliability coefficients for these subscales. Correlations between these variables and Strength of Will are appreciably lower, in the 30's. This seems to indicate that there is a common thread running through these four dimensions, a general belief that man is good or evil, which reflects itself in some degree in performance on each subscale. It is possible that a particular item on one of these subscales might show equally high correlation with another subscale. The use of a summary score for

these four subscales seems defensible as a measure of general evaluative orientation toward human nature, which may see man as good, as evil or neither (Walberg, 1967).

The Elementary School Environment Survey

The Elementary School Environment Survey was created by Dr. Robert Sinclair from the College and University Environment Scales (CUES) developed by Pace (1965).

There are two forms of the ESES instrument, each composed of forty statements about the instruction, curricula, rules and regulations, teachers, students and other features of elementary school life. These statements are used to describe the environment as the students perceive it. There are statements for each of five variables. The variables are:

(a) Practicality. This variable suggests a practical, instrumental emphasis in the school environment; procedures, personal status, and practical benefits are important. Status is gained by knowing the right people, being in the right groups and doing what is expected. Order and supervision are characteristic of the administration and the classwork. Good fun, school spirit and student leadership in school social activities are evident.

(b) Community. This variable reflects a friendly, cohesive, group oriented school life. The environment is seen as supportive and sympathetic. A feeling of group welfare and group loyalty encompasses the school as a whole, and the school is a community with a congenial atmosphere.

(c) Awareness. A concern for an emphasis upon three sorts of meaning--personal, poetic and political--is emphasized in this dimension. Self-understanding, reflectiveness, and identity suggests the search for personal meaning. The quest for poetic meaning is reflected by a wide range of opportunities for creative and appreciative relationships to painting, music, drama, poetry, sculpture and architecture. Concern about events around the world, the welfare of mankind and the present and future condition of man suggests the search for political meaning and idealistic commitment. A stress on awareness of self, of society and of esthetic stimuli was most evident in this environment.

(d) Propriety. This variable suggests an environment that is polite and considerate. Caution and thoughtfulness are evident while group standards of decorum are important. Conversely, this environment may be described as the absence of demonstrative, assertive, rebellious, risk-taking, inconsiderate behavior.

(e) Scholarship. An academic, scholarly environment is described by this variable. The emphasis is placed on competitively high academic achievement with serious interest in scholarship. Intellectual speculation, interest in ideas as ideas, knowledge for its own sake and intellectual discipline may all be considered as characteristic of the environment.

The instrument consists of forty items with eight related to each

dimension or variable. A sample of the instrument is included in the appendix under instruments.

Reliability

To determine reliability, the variance of the distribution of different schools was computed. Kuder-Richardson reliability estimates for the subscale were: practicality, .53; community, .81; awareness, .85; propriety, .86; and scholarship, .54.

Validity

In an analysis by Pace of the psychometric properties of the College and University Environment Scales, it was found that the content of the measure is representative of the environment being considered. The ESES is an adaptation of the instrument used by Pace (1965).

The findings of early testing with the ESES also support the relevance of the relationship between the statements and the measured environmental variables. In view of this and the above criteria the instrument is judged to have adequate content validity.

In determining construct validity data correlations between the ESES and Halpin-Croft Organizational Climate scores were run using the Pearson Product-moment formula to test for significance. Correlations significant at or beyond the .05 level were obtained in five of the subscale dimensions.

Summary

Chapter III has outlined the strategies and procedures used in the sample selection, data collection and analysis. Also reported is the instrumentation along with validity and reliability data.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND TREATMENT OF DATA

This chapter presents tabulated results of data obtained from investigational procedures described in Chapter III. The format will include the stating of each hypothesis, the presentation of statistical treatment, and the results obtained.

Hypothesis I: There is no significant relationship between the philosophy of human nature possessed by elementary school teachers and elementary school students' perceptions of the education environment.

The data in Table I represents the analysis of the relationship between the PHN scores for teacher groups and students' responses to each of the five subscales of the Elementary School Environment Survey. Reported are the point biserial correlation coefficients, corresponding to values and degrees of freedom for each relationship. Although none of the relationships was significant, the students' scores on the perceived environmental variable were consistently higher for the teacher group expressing positive views of human nature. A t score of 2.01 or greater was needed for significance at the .05 level. The highest t value found was 1.55 ($p > .05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis of no relationship between teachers' scores on the PHN and students' scores on the environment variables of the ESES was supported.

TABLE I

RELATIONSHIPS OF POSITIVE-NEGATIVE TEACHER ATTITUDES OF HUMAN NATURE AND STUDENTS' SCORES ON ENVIRONMENT VARIABLES

Source	Point Biserial	df	t values
Positive PHN and Practicality	.038	46	0.255
Positive PHN and Community	0.227	46	1.546
Positive PHN and Awareness	0.141	46	0.943
Positive PHN and Propriety	0.223	46	1.516
Positive PHN and Scholarship	0.016	46	0.106

*$p < .05$ when $t \geq 2.014$

Hypothesis II: There is no significant relationship between the Trustworthiness scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES.

The data in Table II represents the analysis of the relationships between the PHN scores for the teacher groups as to positive or negative views of the trustworthiness of the basic nature of man and students' responses on each of the five subscales of the Elementary School Environment Survey. Reported are the point biserial correlation coefficients, corresponding t values and degrees of freedom for each relationship. A t of 2.01 or greater was needed for significance at the .05 level. The highest t value found was 1.228 ($p > .05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis of no relationship between teachers' scores

on the trustworthiness dimension of the PHN and students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES was supported.

TABLE II

RELATIONSHIPS OF POSITIVE-NEGATIVE TEACHER ATTITUDES OF TRUSTWORTHINESS IN HUMAN NATURE AND STUDENTS' SCORES ON ENVIRONMENT VARIABLES

Source	Point Biserial	df	t values
Trustworthiness and Practicality	-0.158	46	1.063
Trustworthiness and Community	0.182	46	1.228
Trustworthiness and Awareness	-0.043	46	0.282
Trustworthiness and Propriety	0.078	46	0.522
Trustworthiness and Scholarship	0.121	46	0.809

*$p < .05$ when $t \geq 2.014$

Hypothesis III: There is no significant relationship between the Strength of Will and Rationality scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES.

The data in Table III represents the analysis of the relationships between the PHN scores for the teacher groups on the extent to which the basic nature of man is characterized by strength of will and rationality and students' responses on each of the five subscales of the Elementary School Environment Survey. Reported are the point

biserial correlation coefficients, corresponding t values and degrees of freedom for each relationship. A t of 2.01 or greater was needed for significance at the .05 level. The higher t value found was 1.829 ($p > .05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis of no relationship between the teachers' scores on the strength of will and rationality dimension of the PHN and students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES was supported.

TABLE III

RELATIONSHIPS OF POSITIVE TEACHER ATTITUDES ON STRENGTH OF WILL AND RATIONALITY IN HUMAN NATURE AND STUDENTS' SCORES ON ENVIRONMENT VARIABLES

Source	Point Biserial	df	t values
Strength of Will & Practicality	0.266	46	1.829
Strength of Will & Community	-0.016	46	0.109
Strength of Will & Awareness	0.137	46	0.914
Strength of Will & Propriety	0.077	46	0.512
Strength of Will & Scholarship	0.055	46	0.363

*$p < .05$ when $t \geq 2.014$

Hypothesis IV: There is no significant relationship between the Altruism scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school pupils' scores on the environmental variables

of the ESES.

The data in Table IV represents the analysis of the relationships between the PHN scores for the teacher groups on the extent to which the basic nature of man is viewed as altruistic and students' responses on each of the five subscales of the Elementary School Environment Survey. Reported are the point biserial correlation coefficients, corresponding t values and degrees of freedom for each relationship.

TABLE IV

RELATIONSHIPS OF POSITIVE TEACHER ATTITUDES ON ALTRUISM IN HUMAN NATURE AND STUDENTS' SCORES ON ENVIRONMENT VARIABLES

Source	Point Biserial	df	t values
Altruism and Practicality	-0.158	46	1.064
Altruism and Community	-0.092	46	0.614
Altruism and Awareness	0.106	46	0.709
Altruism and Propriety	0.015	46	0.097
Altruism and Scholarship	0.091	46	0.609

*$p < .05$ when $t \geq 2.014$

A t of 2.01 or greater was needed for significance at the .05 level. The highest t value found was 1.064 ($p > .05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis of no relationship between the teachers' scores on the

altruism dimension of the PHN and students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES was supported.

Hypothesis V: There is no significant relationship between the Independence scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES.

Table V represents the analysis of the relationships between the PHN scores for the total teacher groups as to the positive or negative views of the independence of the basic nature of man and student responses on each of the five subscales of the Elementary School Environment Survey. Reported are the point biserial correlation coefficients, corresponding t values and degrees of freedom for each relationship.

TABLE V

RELATIONSHIPS OF POSITIVE-NEGATIVE TEACHER ATTITUDES OF THE INDEPENDENCE OF HUMAN NATURE AND STUDENTS' SCORES ON ENVIRONMENT VARIABLES

Source	Point Biserial	df	t values
Independence and Practicality	0.099	46	0.661
Independence and Community	0.042	46	0.282
Independence and Awareness	0.061	46	0.403
Independence and Propriety	0.258	46	1.768
Independence and Scholarship	0.013	46	0.085

*$p < .05$ when $t \geq 2.014$

A t of 2.01 or greater was needed for significance at the .05 level. The highest t value found was 1.768 ($p > .05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis of no relationship between the teachers' scores on the Independence dimension of the PHN and students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES was supported.

Hypothesis VI: There is no significant relationship between the simplicity and understandability scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES.

The data in Table VI represents the analysis of the relationships between the PHN scores for the total teacher groups on the simplicity of the basic nature of man and students' responses on each of the five subscales of the Elementary School Environment Survey. Reported are the point biserial correlation coefficients, corresponding t values and degrees of freedom for each relationship. A t of 2.01 or greater was needed for significance at the .05 level. The relationship between simplicity and community was significant with a t score of 2.145 ($p < .05$). The relationship was negative indicating that as the teachers' view of human nature moves toward simplicity and understandability the less likely the class is to view the environment as supportive and sympathetic. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no relationship between the teachers' scores on the simplicity dimension of the PHN and students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES was substantially supported.

Hypothesis VII: There is no significant relationship between the similarity scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variables of

the ESES.

The data in Table VII represents the analysis of the relationships between the PHN scores of the total teacher group on the similarity of the basic nature of man and students' responses on each of the five subscales of the Elementary School Environment Survey. Reported are the point biserial correlation coefficients, corresponding t values and degrees of freedom for each relationship. A t of 2.01 or greater was needed for significance at the .05 level. The highest t value found was 1.021 ($p > .05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis of no significant relationship between the teachers' scores on the similarity dimension of the PHN and students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES was supported.

TABLE VI

RELATIONSHIPS OF TEACHER ATTITUDES OF THE SIMPLICITY OF HUMAN NATURE AND STUDENTS' SCORES ON ENVIRONMENT VARIABLES

Source	Point Biserial	df	t values
Simplicity and Practicality	0.097	46	0.645
Simplicity and Community	-0.308	46	*2.145
Simplicity and Awareness	-0.252	46	1.732
Simplicity and Propriety	-0.018	46	0.120
Simplicity and Scholarship	0.025	46	0.163

*$p < .05$ when $t \geq 2.014$

TABLE VII

RELATIONSHIPS OF TEACHER ATTITUDES OF THE SIMILARITY OF HUMAN NATURE AND STUDENTS' SCORES ON ENVIRONMENT VARIABLES

Source	Point Biserial	df	t values
Similarity and Practicality	-0.041	46	0.271
Similarity and Community	-0.152	46	1.021
Similarity and Awareness	0.013	46	0.084
Similarity and Propriety	-0.119	46	0.793
Similarity and Scholarship	-0.061	46	0.404

*$p < .05$ when $t \geq 2.014$

Supplemental Analysis

Any statistical analysis of total scores on a multi-scale instrument involves the risk of masking some possible relationships. Thus, an analysis of the individual subscales with consideration of the organismic variable of sex was done.

The two PHN subscale dimensions of simplicity and similarity may be combined for a measure of what Wrightsman (1964a) terms the "Multiplexity" or one's beliefs about the individual differences in human nature. Point biserial correlations between teachers' scores on this multiplexity dimension of the PHN scale and the students' scores on each subscale of the ESES were computed.

The data in Table VIII contains the statistically significant findings for boys in the supplemental analysis. Listed are the rela-

tionships between the total teacher group scores on the subscales of the PHN and students' responses on the ESES variables. Reported are the point biserial correlation coefficients, corresponding t values and degrees of freedom for each relationship. With a t of 2.01 or greater needed for significance at the .05 level, four of the thirty-five possible relationships would be considered significant.

TABLE VIII

RELATIONSHIPS OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDES ON HUMAN NATURE AND BOYS' SCORES ON ENVIRONMENTAL VARIABLES

Source	Point Biserial	df	t values
Strength of Will & Community	-0.302	46	*2.103
Independence & Propriety	0.305	46	*2.128
Simplicity & Propriety	0.310	46	*2.160
Multiplexity & Community	-0.324	46	*2.271

*$p < .05$ when $t \geq 2.014$

Table IX contains the significant findings for girls in the supplemental analysis. Listed are the relationships between the total teacher group scores on variables of the PHN scale and students' responses on the ESES variables. Reported are the point biserial correlation coefficients, corresponding t values and degrees of freedom for each relationship. With a t of 2.01 or greater needed for significance

at the .05 level, two of the thirty-five possible relationships would be considered significant.

Considering the possibility that both the variables of the PHN and ESES were genuinely dichotomous, a statistical technique for the analysis of natural dichotomies (the phi coefficient) was applied. The subsequent analysis yielded two significant relationships not detected by the point biserial technique.

TABLE IX

RELATIONSHIPS OF TEACHER ATTITUDES ON HUMAN NATURE AND GIRLS' SCORES ON ENVIRONMENTAL VARIABLES

Source	Point Biserial	df	t values
Strength of Will and Propriety	0.299	46	*2.077
Positive PHN and Propriety	0.356	46	*2.524

*$p < .05$ when $t \geq 2.014$

The data in Table X represents the significant findings (one for boys and one for girls) as a result of the phi coefficient analysis. It was noted that both relationships were between teacher attitudes and the ESES variable of scholarship, indicating that the scholarship variable may meet the phi coefficient assumption of a genuine dichotomy. Reported are the phi correlation coefficients, corresponding chi square values and degrees of freedom for each relationship. With a chi square

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study was a descriptive correlation of elementary school teachers' philosophies of human nature and elementary school students' perceptions of the school environment. The relationships of these variables were studied on a sample consisting of forty six teachers and twelve hundred fifty three fifth and sixth grade students from fourteen selected elementary schools in the Northeastern Oklahoma counties of Tulsa, Rogers and Wagoner.

The data collection took place during the spring semester of 1972 between the period of March 16 and April 7. The instruments used were the Philosophy of Human Nature Scale as developed by Wrightsman and the Elementary School Environment Survey, Form A developed by Sinclair. To examine for relationships, the point biserial correlation coefficient was the major statistical technique used; however, a phi coefficient was also run, the results of which are reported in the supplemental analysis section of Chapter IV. On all statistical analyses, the .05 or above level of confidence was demanded for significance.

The investigation examined the relationships between the total teacher group scores on the PHN and pupils' scores (total and boys vs.

girls) on the ESES Correlations were run between (1) teachers' scores on the substantive scales of the first four dimensions of the PHN (this assesses teachers' total positive or negative views of human nature) and pupils' scores on each variable of the ESES; (2) teachers' scores on each subscale of the PHN and students' scores of each variable of the ESES; (3) teachers' scores on the multiplexity dimensions of the PHN and students' scores on each variable of the ESES.

Findings

Findings resulting from the statistical analyses of the data were:

1) Null hypothesis I of no relationship between the philosophy of human nature possessed by elementary school teachers and elementary school students' perception of the education environment was supported.

2) Null hypothesis II of no relationship between the Trustworthiness scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES was supported.

3) Null hypothesis III of no relationship between the Strength of Will and Rationality scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES was supported.

4) Null hypothesis IV of no relationship between the Altruism scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary school students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES was supported.

5) Null hypothesis V of no relationship between the Independence scores of elementary school teachers on the PHN scale and elementary

school students' scores on the environment variables of the ESES was supported.

6) Null hypothesis VI of no relationship between the Simplicity and Understandability scores of elementary school teachers and elementary students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES was rejected.

7) Null hypothesis VII of no relationship between the Similarity scores of elementary school teachers and elementary students' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES was supported.

Significant findings not stated in the formal hypotheses but appearing in the supplemental analysis of the individual subscales with consideration of the organismic variable of sex include the following:

Statistically significant relationships between teachers' scores on the PHN and boys' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES were:

1) A negative correlation between teachers' views of Strength of Will and Rationality and boys perceptions of Community in the school environment.

2) The teacher group's scores on the Independence subscale of the PHN correlated significantly with boys perceptions of Propriety in the school environment.

3) The teacher group's scores on the Simplicity subscale of the PHN correlated significantly with boys' perceptions of Propriety in the school environment.

4) The teacher group's scores on the Similarity subscale of the PHN correlated significantly with boys' perceptions of Scholarship in

the school environment.

5) The teacher group's scores on the Multiplexity subscale of the PHN correlated negatively with boys' perceptions of Community in the school environment.

Statistically significant relationships between teachers' scores on the PHN and girls' scores on the environmental variables of the ESES were:

1) The teacher group's scores on the strength of will and rationality subscale of the PHN correlated significantly with girls' perceptions of propriety in the school environment.

2) The teacher group's scores on the independence subscale of the PHN correlated significantly with girls' perceptions of scholarship in the school environment.

3) Positive total PHN scores for the teacher group correlated significantly with girls' perceptions of propriety in the school environment.

Conclusions

The following conclusions have been drawn from the findings of this study:

1) The finding of no relationship between the overall positive or negative philosophy of human nature possessed by the teacher and students' perceptions of the school environment suggests several plausible conclusions. At first glance the most obvious would be that there simply is no relationship. Others would include the possibility of intervening variables between the teachers' basic beliefs and students perceived classroom climates. In the opinion of the author, the most

plausible conclusion, however, would be that of maskings. Any instrument containing a number of subscales increases the potential for masking and significance was found on eight of the subscales.

2) Teachers' basic beliefs about the Trustworthiness of human nature bear no relationship to the students' perceptions of the school environment as measured in this study.

3) Teachers' attitudes on the Strength of Will and Rationality of human nature bear no relationship to students' (total group) perceptions of the school environment as measured by this study.

4) Teachers' attitudes on the Altruism of human nature bear no relationship to students' perceptions of the school environment as measured by this study.

5) Teachers' attitudes on the Independence of human nature bear no relationship to students' perceptions of the school environment as measured by this study.

6) Teachers' attitudes on the Simplicity and Understandability of human nature are significantly related to students' perceptions of the school environment. The correlation was negative indicating that as the teachers' views of human nature moved toward that of simplicity and understandability the less likely were students to view the classroom environment as supportive and sympathetic.

7) Teachers' attitudes on the Similarity of human nature bear no relationship to students' perceptions of the school environment as measured by this study.

Several relationships appeared significant when boys and girls' scores were analyzed separately. This would appear to lend support to recent research which supplies evidence that boys of the intermediate

elementary grades are treated somewhat differently and therefore perceived their educational experiences differently than do girls.

8) Teachers' attitudes on the Strength of Will and Rationality of human nature are significantly related to boys' perceptions of the school environment. A negative correlation appeared between this teacher attitude and boys' perceptions of community in the class environment, indicating that as the teachers' views of human nature moved toward that of people being able to understand themselves and change their outcomes by their own will power the less likely were male students to view the classroom environment as supportive and sympathetic.

9) Teachers' attitudes on the Independence of human nature are significantly related to boys' perceptions of propriety in the school environment. The correlation indicated that teachers who viewed human nature as being able to withstand group pressures to conformity were more likely to have classroom climates perceived by boys as polite and considerate with an emphasis on group decorum. This climate may also be described as one with an absence of demonstrative, risk taking behavior.

10) Teachers' attitudes on the Simplicity of human nature are significantly related to boys' perceptions of propriety in the school environment. The correlation indicated that as teachers' views of human nature moved toward complexity the more likely were male students to perceive the classroom environment as polite and considerate with an emphasis on group decorum. This climate is also described as one with an absence of demonstrative, risk taking behavior.

11) Teachers' attitudes on the Similarity of human nature are

significantly related to boys' perceptions of scholarship in the school environment. The correlation indicated that as teachers' attitudes move toward basic differences and variability of human nature the more likely were male students to perceive the classroom environment as scholarly.

12) Teachers' attitudes on the Multiplexity of human nature are significantly related to boys' perceptions of community in the school environment. This correlation was negative indicating that teachers who view human nature as more complex are more likely to have classrooms perceived by boys as less friendly, supportive and sympathetic. This correlation seems to contradict the other relationships dealing with the complexity of human nature.

13) Teachers' attitudes on the Strength of Will and Rationality of human nature are significantly related to girls' perceptions of propriety in the school environment. This correlation indicates that teachers who view people as being able to understand themselves and change their outcomes by their own will power are more likely to have class environments perceived by girls as polite and considerate with an emphasis on group decorum. This climate is also described as one with an absence of demonstrative, risk taking behavior.

14) Teachers' attitudes on the Independence of human nature are significantly related to girls' perceptions of scholarship in the school environment. It was concluded from this correlation that teachers who view human nature as being able to withstand group pressures to conformity are more likely to have classroom climates perceived by girls as scholarly.

15) Teachers' total positive-negative attitudes about the nature

of man are significantly related to girls' perceptions of propriety in the school environment. It was concluded from this correlation that as the teacher group moved toward a positive view of human nature the more likely were girls to perceive the classroom environment as polite and considerate with an emphasis on group decorum. This climate is also described as one with an absence of demonstrative, risk taking behavior.

Further Considerations

A major premise of the study was that the basic beliefs and attitudes held by teachers about the nature of man would influence their interactions with students to the extent that it would be reflected in the ways in which students perceived classroom climates. It was expected that there would emerge strong relationships between these teacher beliefs and students' perceptions. Surprisingly these relationships did not appear as expected. There are many possible explanations other than that these relationships simply do not exist, some of which are as follows.

All through the data gathering it was evident to the researcher that different classrooms differed substantially in their climates. Each classroom group seemed unique unto itself with the students differing in their response to the researcher, to the teacher and to each other. Although the results of this study did not substantiate this observation, one plausible explanation may be that teachers are threatened when outsiders make attempts to probe the climate and relationships that exist in their classrooms. It was noted by the author that many of the teachers' responses reflected central tendencies.

With a possible range from +3 to -3 on the response sheet, many were grouped around the -1 or +1. The total teacher group range in scores was reflective of this tendency with a range of only 165 points while the possible range was 336 points. It was suspected that although the teachers were assured of the anonymity of their responses, they were taking no chances. In many cases they seemed to be answering as though the administration were going to read and make judgments on the basis of their responses.

Students exemplified some of the same kinds of apprehensive behaviors about their responses. Many seemed threatened as evidenced by such questions as "who will read this?" even though they had been previously assured of the confidentiality of their responses. They, as their teachers, seemed reluctant to "trust," thus, probably distorting the authenticity of their responses.

Among other explanations worthy of consideration is that teachers are able to keep their basic beliefs about the nature of man from influencing their interactions with and expectations for students in the classroom. It may be possible that as a result of the thrust of modern teacher training programs and the educational literature of recent years with an emphasis on the humanization of education, in practice, the kinds of behaviors teachers exhibit and feel that they are expected to exhibit are not very different.

Another consideration might be that the teacher is simply not the dominate factor in settling classroom climate for students. Students of this age group may be insensitive to teacher beliefs, attitudes and expectations. The peer group at ages 10 through 12 may be an overriding force in determining classroom climate.

And finally worthy of consideration is the prospect that in this very complex, intangible area of teacher beliefs and students' perceptions, we may not at this point in time have instruments and techniques sufficiently sophisticated to assess accurately the variable under consideration.

Recommendations

The relationships that appeared between the different teacher beliefs about the basic nature of man and students' perceptions of the school environments have possible implications for teacher training programs, teacher selection processes, pre and post inservice and supervisory personnel who may be in positions to influence teacher attitudes. Those in positions charged with the responsibility of selecting teachers for various teaching positions may want to consider and make some attempt at assessing the prospective teachers' beliefs and attitudes in the area of human nature. The beliefs held by the prospective teacher in this area could serve as one more valuable piece of information in determining the probable individual-role congruency and subsequent satisfaction and effectiveness of that person in the new position.

Those responsible for the development of programs and the preparation of personnel may want to consider growth experiences dealing with ideas about the basic nature of man designed to foster teacher beliefs consistent with the desired types of classroom climates.

Based on the finding of this study, the following recommendations are extended:

1) programs or personnel strategies with the goal of creating

classroom climates characterized as supportive and sympathetic (community) would emphasize in their approach the complexity of human nature.

2) programs or personnel strategies with the goal of creating classroom climates perceived by students as polite and considerate (propriety) with an emphasis on group decorum would emphasize in their approach the independence, complexity, strength of will and rationality and general tendency of human nature toward goodness.

3) programs or personnel strategies with the goal of creating classroom climates perceived by students as scholarly would emphasize in their approach the Independence and variability of the basic nature of man.

Recommendations for Further Research

The following recommendations are extended for further investigation:

1) Any attempt at replication of this research should consider methods of securing more orientation time with subjects (teachers and pupils) to increase the authenticity of their responses and subsequently the sensitivity of the instruments.

2) Future research attempts directed at measuring teachers' philosophies of human nature and classroom climates might want to investigate the possibility of finding or developing more sensitive instruments for measurement.

3) This study suggests that more research is needed to delineate the variables that are related to students' perceptions of the classroom and school environments.

4) Future research in the area might center on the identification of possible intervening variables (such as teacher behavior) and test for relationships.

5) Teacher peer relationships and perceived classrooms climate might prove to be a fertile area of classroom climate investigation.

6) The investigation of the relationships of the overall school environment as perceived by teachers and students' perceptions of class environments might prove salient.

7) Another fertile area for future investigation would be the relationships of the philosophies of human nature possessed by the school administration (including supervisory personnel) and students' perceptions of the school environment.

One relationship found in the supplemental analysis (between the teachers' beliefs about the multiplexity of human nature and boys' perceptions of community in the school environment) leaves the author with no apparent explanation unless possibly it was due to chance. Further investigation surely seems warranted.

The very complex area of teacher beliefs and students' perceptions of their classroom environments surely holds many close relationships that help to structure the kinds of learning experiences that take place daily in schools. Much work is needed to identify these variables and their relationships to each other. No one research effort can (nor should it be expected to) answer all the questions. One primary objective of this research has been to raise new questions salient to this crucial area of importance.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Anderson, G., and Walberg, H. "Classroom Climate and Group Learning," (1967) ERIC Number ED 015 156.

Ashcraft, C. W. "Some Factors Related to Self-Disclosure in College Students." Paper presented a symposium on PHN, Southeastern Psychological Convention, Atlanta, April, 1967.

Ashcraft, C. W. The relationship between conceptions of human nature and judgments of specific persons. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1963.

Bloom, Benjamin. Stability and Change in Human Characteristics. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964, p. 187.

Carlson, E. R. Concepts of man and attitudes on social issues. Paper presented at Western Psychological Association Convention, Long Beach, Calif., April, 1966.

Claxton, R. PHN and attitude change in disadvantaged trainees. Unpublished manuscript, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1971.

Combs, Arthur W. "An Educational Imperative: The Human Dimension." To Nurture Humaneness. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1970, pp. 173-188.

Combs, Arthur W., ed. Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming: A New Focus. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1962.

Davidson, Helen H. and Gerald Lang. "Children's Perceptions of Their Teacher's Feelings Toward Them Related to Self-Perception, School Achievement and Behavior," Journal of Experimental Education, IXXX (December, 1960), p. 116.

Deutsch, Morton. "The Effects of Cooperation and Competition upon Group Process." Human Relations, 2 (1949), 129-152 and 199-231.

Dretz, C. J., and Dretz, J. P. Attitudes and attitude changes among social work student participants in the Manpower for Social Services Head Start Program in 1968. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of Tennessee, 1969.

Getzels, J. H. and P. W. Jackson. "The Teacher's Personality and Characteristics," in N. L. Gage, Handbook of Research on Teaching (Chicago, 1963), p. 506.

Glick, Oren. "Sixth Graders' Attitudes Toward School and Interpersonal Conditions in the Classroom." The Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. 38, No. 4 (Summer, 1970), pp. 17-22.

Guilford, J. P. Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education, 4th Ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965.

Kelley, Earl C. and Marie I. Rasey. Education and The Nature of Man. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952, p. 42.

Kephort, N. and F. William. "Classroom Environment and Pupil Welfare," Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 45 (1954), pp. 52-59.

Kerlinger, Fred N. Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964), p. 275.

Koplyay, T. and B. Mathis. "The Relationship Between Teacher Morale and Organizational Climate," (February, 1967), ERIC Number 012 266.

Lewin, K., R. Lippitt, and R. K. White. "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created Social Climates." Journal of Psychology, 10 (1939), 271-299.

Ligon, C. L. Religious backgrounds and philosophies of human nature. Unpublished Ed.S. Study, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1963.

Madsen, C., W. Becker and C. Thomas. "Rules, Praise and Ignoring Elements of Elementary Classroom Controls," Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, Vol. 1 (2), (1968), pp. 1399-150.

Mason, R., Jr. A comparative study of the relationships between seminary students and counselor trainees in their perceptions of human nature and tendencies toward authoritarianism. Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Georgia, 1966.

Merton, Robert K. "The Self Fulfilling Prophecy." The Antioch Review, Vol. 8 (June, 1948), 193-210.

Miller, P. A comparative study of values of graduate social work students, professional social workers, and undergraduate college students as measured by the philosophies of Human Nature Scale. Unpublished master's thesis, School of Social Work, University of Tennessee, 1968.

Nottingham, J. The relationship between family background and philosophies of human nature. Paper presented at the meeting of the Southeastern Psychological Association, Roanoke, April, 1968.

Nottingham, J. The relationship between philosophies of human nature and liberalism-conservatism. Unpublished paper, Dept. of Psychology, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1968.

Pace, Robert C. College and University Environmental Scales: Technical Manual. Princeton: Educational Testing Services, 1965.

Ragan, William B. Modern Elementary Curriculum. New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1953, p. 193.

Rodgers, Carl. Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming: A New Focus. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1962.

Rogers, Carl R. "Learning To Be Free." Pastoral Psychology. Vol. 13 (December, 1962), 45-51.

Rosenthal, Robert and Lenore Jacobson. Pygmalion in the Classroom: Teacher Expectation and Pupils' Intellectual Development. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.

Rosenthal, Robert. "Teacher Expectation and Pupil Learning." The Unstudied Curriculum: Its Impact on Children. ed. Norman V. Overly. Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1970.

Russell, David H. and Henry R. Fea. "Research on Teaching Reading," in N. L. Gage, Handbook of Research on Teaching (Chicago, 1963), p. 865.

Shoulin, D. "The Effects of the Middle School Environment and the Elementary School Environment Upon Sixth-Grade Students," Dissertation Abstracts, University of Massachusetts, Vol. 28 (1967), p. 3441.

Sinclair, Robert L. "Elementary School Educational Environments: Measurement of Selected Variables of Environmental Press. (Unpublished Doctors Thesis, Los Angeles, University of California, 1968).

Sommer, R. "Effects of Classroom Environment on Student Learning" (1968) ERIC Number ED 010 252.

Walberg, H. "Structural and Affective Aspects of Classroom Climate," (1967a) ERIC Number ED 015 154.

Walberg, H. "Teacher Personality and Classroom Climate," (1967b) ERIC Number ED 014 471.

Washburne, Carlton and Louis M. Heil. "What Characteristics of Teachers Affect Children's Growth?" School Review, Vol. 68 (Winter, 1960), 420-428.

Webb, D. "An Analysis of Environmental Press as Perceived by Sixth Grade Pupils," Dissertation Abstracts, University of Massachusetts, Vol. 28 (1967), p. 2105.

White, Rolf and Ronald Lippitt. "Leader Behavior and Member Reaction in Three 'Social Climates.'" In D. Cartwright and A. Zander (eds.) Group Dynamics. Evanston, Ill.: Row Peterson, 1962, 527-553.

Withall, John and W. W. Lewis. "Social Interaction in the Classroom," in N. L. Gage, Handbook of Research on Teaching (Chicago, 1963), p. 683.

Wrightsman, L. S. "Measurement of Philosophies of Human Nature," Psychological Reports, Vol. 14 (1964a), pp. 743-751.

Wrightsman, L. S. "Some Subtle Factors Affecting Student Evaluations of Teachers," S.P.A.T.E. Journal, 1964b, 3, 42-51.

Wrightsman, L. S. and Cook, Stewart W. Factor analysis and attitude change. Paper presented at Southeastern Psychological Association Convention, Atlanta, April, 1965.

Wrightsman, L. S. and F. C. Noble. "Reactions to the President's Assassination and Changes in Philosophies of Human Nature." Psychological Reports, 1965, 16, 159-162.

Wrightsman, L. S. and Christine Saterfield. "Additional Norms and Standardization of the PHN Scale - 1967 Revision," George Peabody College for Teachers: Nashville, Tennessee, 1967.

PHN Scale*

This questionnaire is a series of attitude statements. Each represents a commonly held opinion and there are no right or wrong answers. You will probably disagree with some items and agree with others. We are interested in the extent to which you agree or disagree with matters of opinion.

Read each statement carefully. Then, on the separate answer sheet, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by circling a number by the number for each statement. The numbers and their meanings are indicated below:

If you agree strongly	- circle +3
If you agree somewhat	- circle +2
If you agree slightly	- circle +1
If you disagree slightly	- circle -1
If you disagree somewhat	- circle -2
If you disagree strongly	- circle -3

First impressions are usually best in such matters. Read each statement, decide if you agree or disagree and the strength of your opinion, and then circle the appropriate number on the answer sheet. Be sure to answer every statement.

If you find that the numbers to be used in answering do not adequately indicate your own opinion, use the one which is closest to the way you feel.

*Permission for the use of this instrument was obtained from the author.

PHN Scale

1. Great successes in life, like great artists and inventors, are usually motivated by forces they are unaware of.

2. Most students will tell the instructor when he has made a mistake in adding up their score, even if he had given them more points than they deserved.

3. Most people will change the opinion they express as a result of an onslaught of criticism, even though they really don't change the way they feel.

4. Most people try to apply the Golden Rule even in today's complex society.

5. A person's reaction to things differs from one situation to another.

6. I find that my first impression of a person is usually correct.

7. Our success in life is pretty much determined by forces outside our own control.

8. If you give the average person a job to do and leave him to do it, he will finish it successfully.

9. Nowadays many people won't make a move until they find out what other people think.

10. Most people do not hesitate to go out of their way to help someone in trouble.

11. Different people react to the same situation in different ways.

12. People can be described accurately by one term, such as "introverted," or "moral," or "sociable."

13. Attempts to understand ourselves are usually futile.

14. People usually tell the truth, even when they know they would be better off by lying.

15. The important thing in being successful nowadays is not how hard you work, but how well you fit in with the crowd.

16. Most people will act as "Good Samaritans" if given the opportunity.

17. Each person's personality is different from the personality of every other person.

18. It's not hard to understand what really is important to a person.

19. There's little one can do to alter his fate in life.

20. Most students do not cheat when taking an exam.

21. The typical student will cheat on a test when everybody else does, even though he has a set of ethical standards.

Make sure that you are on the right place on your answer sheet. You should be starting the top of the 2nd column now.

22. "Do unto others as you would have them do unto you" is a motto most people follow.

23. People are quite different in their basic interests.

24. I think I get a good idea of a person's basic nature after a brief conversation with him.

25. Most people have little influence over the things that happen to them.

26. Most people are basically honest.

27. It's a rare person who will go against the crowd.

28. The typical person is sincerely concerned about the problems of others.

29. People are pretty different from one another in what "makes them tick."

30. If I could ask a person three questions about himself (and assuming he would answer them honestly), I would know a great deal about him.

31. Most people have an unrealistically favorable view of their own capabilities.

32. If you act in good faith with people, almost all of them will reciprocate with fairness towards you.

33. Most people have to rely on someone else to make their important decisions for them.

34. Most people with a fallout shelter would let their neighbors stay in it during a nuclear attack.

35. Often a person's basic personality is altered by such things as a religious conversation, psychotherapy, or a charm course.

36. When I meet a person, I look for one basic characteristic through which I try to understand him.

37. Most people vote for a political candidate on the basis of unimportant characteristics such as his appearance or name, rather than because of his stand on the issues.

38. Most people lead clean, decent lives.

39. The average person will rarely express his opinion in a group when he sees the others disagree with him.

40. Most people would stop and help a person who car is disabled.

41. People are unpredictable in how they'll act from one situation to another.

42. Give me a few facts about a person and I'll have a good idea of whether I'll like him or not.

Be sure you are at the right place on your answer sheet. You should be at the top of the 3rd column now.

43. If a person tries hard enough, he will usually reach his goals in life.

44. People claim they have ethical standards regarding honesty and morality, but few people stick to them when the chips are down.

45. Most people have the courage of their convictions.

46. The average person is conceited.

47. People are pretty much alike in their basic interests.

48. I find that my first impressions of people are frequently wrong.

49. The average person has an accurate understanding of the reasons for his behavior.

50. If you want people to do a job right, you should explain things to them in great detail and supervise them closely.

51. Most people can make their own decisions, uninfluenced by public opinion.

52. It's only a rare person who would risk his own life and limb to help someone else.

53. People are basically similar in their personalities.

54. Some people are too complicated for me to figure out.

55. If people try hard enough, wars can be prevented in the future.

56. If most people could get into a movie without paying and be sure they were not seen, they would do it.

57. It is achievement, rather than popularity with others, that gets you ahead nowadays.

58. It's pathetic to see an unselfish person in today's world because so many people take advantage of him.

59. If you have a good idea about how several people will react to a certain situation, you can expect most people to react the same way.

60. I think you can never really understand the feelings of other people.

61. The average person is largely the master of his own fate.

62. Most people are not really honest for a desirable reason; they're afraid of getting caught.

63. The average person will stick to his opinion if he thinks he's right, even if others disagree.

Check to see that you are on the right place on your answer sheet. You should be starting the top of the 4th column now.

64. People pretend to care more about one another than they really do.

65. Most people are consistent from situation to situation in the way they react to things.

66. You can't accurately describe a person in just a few words.

67. In a local or national election, most people select a candidate rationally and logically.

68. Most people would tell a lie if they could gain by it.

69. If a student does not believe in cheating, he will avoid it even if he sees many others doing it.

70. Most people inwardly dislike putting themselves out to help other people.

71. A child who is popular will be popular as an adult, too.

72. You can't classify everyone as good or bad.

73. Most persons have a lot of control over what happens to them in life.

74. Most people would cheat on their income tax if they had a chance.

75. The person with novel ideas is respected in our society.

76. Most people exaggerate their troubles in order to get sympathy.

77. If I can see how a person reacts to one situation, I have a good idea of how he will react to other situations.

78. People are too complex to ever be understood fully.

79. Most people have a good idea of what their strengths and weaknesses are.

80. Nowadays people commit a lot of crimes and sins that no one else ever hears about.

81. Most people will speak out for what they believe in.

82. People are usually out for their own good.

83. When you get right down to it, people are quite alike in their emotional makeup.

84. People are so complex, it is hard to know what "Makes them tick."

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT SURVEY (ESES)*

This Survey is reprinted by permission of the author

Instructions To Students

We are interested in your ideas about the type of school you go to. You know a lot about the school because as a student you have played on its playground and studied in its classrooms. We are asking you to be a reporter and tell your thoughts about your school.

Please understand that this is not a test, and there are no right or wrong answers. In fact, we do not even ask your name. We simply want your honest ideas about your school.

There are 40 sentences about elementary schools in this booklet. You are to mark each sentence TRUE or FALSE.

How To Mark Sentences

When you think a sentence tells about your school mark that sentence TRUE by filling in the first space on the answer sheet. In other words, blacken the first space if you think the sentence tells the way things usually are in your school, what happens or might happen there, or the way people usually act or feel.

Fill in the last space on the answer sheet if the sentence is FALSE or is not the way things usually are in your school, is not what happens or might happen there, or is not the way people usually act or feel. Each item should be marked true or false. Do not mark the spaces between.

The following examples show how to mark a sentence:

If you agree, blacken the space closest to the number of the statement.

5 ▬ ::::: ::::: ::::: :::::

If you disagree, blacken the space farthest from the number of the statement.

7 ::::: ::::: ::::: ::::: ▬

Please mark the following sample:

S. Homework in this school is very easy.

S. ::::: ::::: ::::: ::::: :::::

Now you are ready to mark each of the 40 sentences in the booklet. *It is important to remember that the sentences are about the total school.* Think about each sentence carefully and answer as honestly as you can. Take your time and mark only one space for each sentence. Make sure all sentences are marked. Erase completely any answers you wish to change.

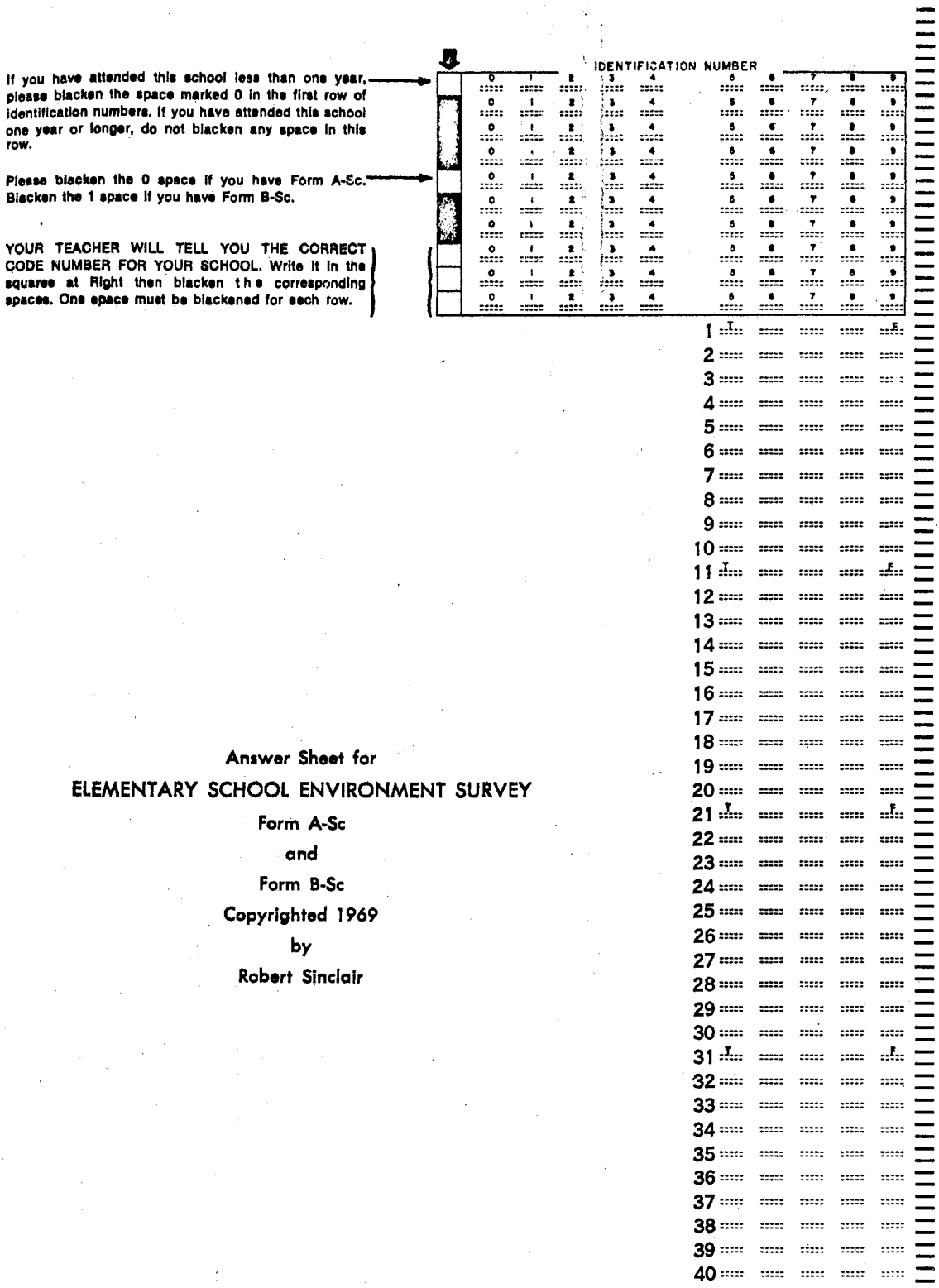
Turn to sentence 1. and find the space on the answer sheet for marking this sentence. Now you may begin.

*Permission for the use of this instrument was obtained from the author.

Form A-Sc

1. Teachers watch the students closely when they work to make sure there are no mistakes.
2. The attendance roll is called every day in class.
3. Students often work in small groups of about three or four students without the teacher.
4. Students try to get special favors from the teachers.
5. Bells ring during the day to tell students what classwork to do next.
6. In this school students usually have to line up before going into the classroom or leaving the classroom.
7. The subjects taught here do not help students learn how to solve real problems.
8. In this school students quickly learn what to do and what not to do.
9. Most students finish the projects and assignments that they start.
10. Most students here have homework many times during the week.
11. Science is probably the most important subject in this school.
12. In this school it is easy to pass most subjects without working hard.
13. Most students are happy if they do average work.
14. When school work gets difficult students study harder.
15. Most of the students in this school study a lot so that they can get high grades.
16. Most students here do not care much about their school work.
17. Many students like to stay around after school gets out.
18. Most of the teachers do not care about problems that students are having.
19. Students have many chances to help other students.
20. In this school students have parties in class to celebrate birthdays or other important days.
21. Teachers are kind and friendly when they work with students.
22. The students in this school feel like they are one big family.
23. Many of the students here are unhappy about the school.
24. Students here are often reminded to be careful about getting sick.
25. Many interesting people visit the school to play music or to talk about their experiences.
26. Students often talk about their own personal problems.
27. Most teachers do not try to get students interested in what's going on in the United States.
28. Many students often talk about what they think is right or wrong.
29. Quite a few of the teachers talk to students about concerts, plays and museums.
30. Many students talk about traveling to different parts of the United States.
31. In many classes students talk about what they do outside of school.
32. Social studies is not a very important subject in this school.
33. Students here are very quick to tell teachers about things that should be changed.
34. Students do not pay much attention to school rules and regulations.
35. Things like paper throwing or water fights are not likely to happen in this school.
36. Most students here do not like to get into any kind of argument.
37. Students almost always wait to be called on before speaking in class.
38. This school has a big program of sports or physical education activities.
39. Students sometimes make plans to do something bad to the school.
40. Students do not get any special favors in this school.

Thank you for marking these sentences.



Answer Sheet for

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT SURVEY

Form A-Sc

and

Form B-Sc

by

Robert Sinclair

RAW DATA

TEACHER'S SCORES ON PHN SCALES

Class ID 1.1

S=10	C=10
T=3	P=24
I=6	M=21
A=5	
V=11	

Class ID 1.2

S=17	C=33
T=9	P=23
I-27	M=48
A=4	
V=15	

Class ID 2.1

S=4	C=15
T=21	P=59
I=12	M=6
A=22	
V=9	

Class ID 2.2

S=14	C=10
T=22	P=65
I=17	M=27
A=12	
V=17	

Class ID 2.3

S=16	C=9
T=9	P=29
I=8	M=20
A=4	
V=29	

Class ID 2.4

S=7	C=7
T=20	P=47
I=6	M=22
A=14	
V=15	

STUDENTS' SCORES ON ESES VARIABLES

	Total	Boys	Girls
	Sample Size 31		
P=25	24		26
C=20	21		22
A=24	23		25
PP=20	23		20
S=23	23		23
	Sample Size 32		
P=27	26		26
C=21	21		22
A=25	24		24
PP=21	20		24
A=24	23		24
	Sample Size 24		
P=25	25		25
C=23	23		24
A=26	27		25
PP=26	24		25
S=26	24		26
	Sample Size 29		
P=25	25		25
C=24	24		22
A=26	26		27
PP=26	25		26
S=26	26		25
	Sample Size 28		
P=24	24		24
C=23	22		23
A=25	25		24
PP=25	25		25
S=25	26		25
	Sample Size 27		
P=24	23		25
C=23	22		23
A=24	24		23
PP=23	22		23
S=23	24		22

TEACHERS' SCORES ON PHN SCALES		STUDENTS' SCORES ON ESES VARIABLES		
		Total	Boys	Girls
Class ID 2.5		Sample Size 27		
S=7	C=7	P=24	23	25
T=20	P=47	C=23	22	23
I=6	M=22	A=24	24	23
A=14		PP=23	22	23
V=15		S=23	24	22
Class ID 2.5		Sample Size 21		
S=12	C=9	P=25	25	26
T=0	P=42	C=22	21	24
I=9	M=22	A=24	23	25
A=21		PP=26	25	25
V=13		S=24	25	25
Class ID 3.1		Sample Size 27		
S=1	C=0	P=23	23	22
T=3	P=19	C=24	24	24
I=7	M=15	A=26	26	26
A=10		PP=23	23	24
V=15		S=24	22	23
Class ID 3.2		Sample Size 31		
S=13	C=20	P=24	24	25
T=21	P=61	C=22	22	25
I=7	M=56	A=27	27	26
A=20		PP=24	24	24
V=36		S=26	26	26
Class ID 3.3		Sample Size 30		
S=7	C=25	P=23	22	22
T=99	P=10	C=24	24	24
I=11	M=50	A=26	25	26
A=5		PP=23	22	23
V=25		S=25	23	25
Class ID 3.4		Sample Size 29		
S=16	C=14	P=25	25	26
T=15	P=48	C=23	22	24
I=12	M=30	A=26	26	27
A=5		PP=24	26	23
V=16		S=25	25	25

TEACHERS' SCORES ON PHN SCALE		STUDENTS' SCORES ON ESES VARIABLES		
		Total	Boys	Girls
Class ID 3.5		Sample Size 27		
S=30	C=15	P=25	25	25
T=34	P=126	C=23	24	23
I=22	M=32	A=26	25	26
A=40		PP=23	25	24
V=17		S=25	26	24
Class ID 4.1		Sample Size 27		
C=28	C=22	P=24	23	24
T=8	P=51	C=24	24	23
I=3	M=43	A=24	25	25
A=12		PP=26	25	23
V=21		S=26	23	26
Class ID 4.2		Sample Size 28		
C=6	C=20	P=23	23	24
T=9	P=5	C=24	24	24
I=13	M=4	A=25	25	24
A=3		PP=25	22	27
V=16		S=25	25	24
Class ID 4.3		Sample Size 36		
S=7	C=13	P=23	24	23
T=1	P=8	C=23	26	23
I=7	M=24	A=24	24	25
A=9		PP=23	25	22
V=11		S=26	24	26
Class ID 4.4		Sample Size 48		
S=16	C=5	P=22	23	23
T=13	P=26	C=21	21	23
I=9	M=21	A=24	22	25
A=6		PP=21	22	23
V=16		S=22	22	23
Class ID 4.5		Sample Size 34		
S=4	C=12	P=24	24	25
T=5	P=39	C=22	22	24
I=17	M=31	A=25	24	25
A=21		PP=21	21	23
V=19		S=23	24	23
Class ID 5.1		Sample Size 30		
S=29	C=10	P=23	23	22
T=27	P=115	C=23	23	24
I=25	M=28	A=24	24	24
A=34		PP=24	24	24
V=18		S=24	22	24

TEACHERS' SCORES ON PHN SCALE		STUDENTS' SCORES ON ESES VARIABLES		
		Total	Boys	Girls
Class ID 5.2		Sample Size 29		
S=22	C=17	P=23	23	23
T=20	P=58	C=22	22	23
I=12	M=40	A=25	24	25
A=4		PP=21	22	21
V=23		S=23	22	22
Class ID 6.1		Sample Size 27		
S=19	C=5	P=25	26	24
T=22	P=62	C=24	24	23
I=6	M=20	A=25	25	24
A=15		PP=25	23	23
V=15		S=26	26	25
Class ID 6.2		Sample Size 20		
S=23	C=8	P=26	24	26
T=16	P=30	C=24	24	26
I=4	M=14	A=26	25	27
A=5		PP=21	20	24
V=22		S=25	24	25
Class ID 7.1		Sample Size 21		
S=16	C=17	P=25	24	24
T=18	P=67	C=21	21	21
I=14	M=29	A=24	23	24
A=19		PP=22	21	22
V=12		S=25	24	24
Class ID 8.1		Sample Size 15		
S=8	C=5	P=26	24	24
T=8	P=15	C=26	26	25
I=3	M=0	A=25	27	24
A=2		PP=25	24	25
V=5		S=26	24	24
Class ID 8.2		Sample Size 17		
C=14	C=17	P=24	25	25
T=14	P=32	C=25	25	26
I=6	M=47	A=21	21	24
A=2		PP=22	24	21
V=30		S=24	24	26

TEACHERS' SCORES ON PHN SCALE		STUDENTS' SCORES ON ESES VARIABLES		
		Total	Boys	Girls
Class ID 9.1		Sample Size 23		
C=0	C=10	P=24	25	25
T=20	P=25	C=24	26	24
I=9	M=5	A=24	24	24
A=14		PP=22	22	22
V=5		S=24	24	24
Class ID 9.2		Sample Size 32		
S=23	C=10	P=25	26	25
T=4	P=40	C=23	23	24
I=4	M=6	A=24	25	24
A=9		PP=22	22	22
V=16		S=24	25	25
Class ID 10.1		Sample Size 25		
S=24	C=6	P=23	23	22
T=12	P=49	C=24	25	25
I=3	M=32	A=25	25	26
A=10		PP=25	25	25
V=26		S=25	26	24
Class ID 10.2		Sample Size 26		
S=14	C=7	P=23	23	23
T=20	P=70	C=25	25	25
I=13	M=3	A=25	25	24
A=23		PP=21	21	22
V=4		S=23	22	22
Class ID 10.3		Sample Size 19		
S=10	C=17	P=22	21	23
T=29	P=45	C=22	23	21
I=2	M=2	A=24	25	25
A=8		PP=22	20	22
V=19		S=25	24	24
Class ID 10.4		Sample Size 33		
S=36	C=3	P=23	24	23
T=25	P=123	C=24	24	25
I=29	M=23	A=26	26	26
A=33		PP=23	21	23
V=26		S=25	24	25

TEACHERS' SCORES ON PHN SCALE		STUDENTS' SCORES ON ESES VARIABLES		
		Total	Boys	Girls
Class ID 11.1		Sample Size 34		
S=17	C=4	P=24	24	24
T=17	P=70	C=25	23	28
I=16	M=26	A=24	22	25
A=20		PP=25	26	26
V=22		S=26	25	26
Class ID 11.2		Sample Size 30		
S=2	C=15	P=24	24	24
T=6	P=8	C=24	25	23
I=2	M=34	A=25	25	24
A=14		PP=26	26	21
V=19		S=25	23	25
Class ID 11.3		Sample Size 33		
S=16	C=2	P=23	23	23
T=0	P=15	C=24	24	23
I=4	M=0	A=25	24	25
A=5		PP=24	24	22
V=2		S=25	25	26
Class ID 11.4		Sample Size 30		
S=3	C=14	P=24	24	25
T=7	P=5	C=23	25	24
I=11	M=23	A=25	25	25
A=2		PP=23	23	24
V=9		S=25	25	25
Class ID 12.1		Sample Size 33		
S=16	C=18	P=25	23	25
T=2	P=38	C=23	23	23
I=26	M=29	A=25	25	24
A=26		PP=22	22	21
V=11		S=25	24	23
Class ID 12.2		Sample Size 30		
S=26	C=11	P=23	24	23
T=32	P=108	C=22	23	22
I=26	M=18	A=25	25	23
A=24		PP=22	21	23
V=7		S=26	23	26

TEACHERS' SCORES ON PHN SCALE		STUDENTS' SCORES ON ESES VARIABLES		
		Total	Boys	Girls
Class ID 12.3		Sample Size 26		
S=11	C=3	P=22	20	23
T=25	P=57	C=22	22	23
I=9	M=14	A=25	24	25
A=12		P=21	21	24
V=17		S=23	23	25
Class ID 12.4		Sample Size 23		
S=12	C=9	P=21	22	22
T=4	P=13	C=21	24	21
I=7	M=24	A=22	25	22
A=2		PP=20	24	20
V=15		S=25	25	23
Class ID 12.5		Sample Size 28		
S=5	C=20	P=23	22	22
T=1	P=7	C=21	21	20
I=3	M=24	A=23	23	23
A=2		PP=22	20	22
V=4		S=21	21	22
Class ID 13.1		Sample Size 26		
S=22	C=7	P=25	24	28
T=20	P=61	C=24	25	24
I=4	M=13	A=25	25	25
A=15		PP=24	24	27
V=6		S=24	24	26
Class ID 13.2		Sample Size 28		
S=11	C=19	P=25	25	25
T=24	P=57	C=26	25	27
I=9	M=30	A=25	25	24
A=13		PP=23	26	24
V=11		S=26	26	26
Class ID 13.3		Sample Size 21		
S=23	C=30	P=25	25	25
T=5	P=17	C=25	24	27
I=0	M=28	A=25	24	25
A=11		PP=26	25	26
V=2		S=26	25	26

TEACHERS' SCORES ON PHN SCALE

Class ID 13.4	
S=4	C=15
T=9	P=27
I=1	M=30
A=13	
V=15	
Class ID 14.1	
S=15	C=8
T=20	P=76
I=19	M=16
A=22	
V=8	
Class ID 14.2	
S=7	C=10
T=5	P=31
I=7	M=31
A=12	
V=21	
Class ID 14.3	
S=14	C=0
T=17	P=29
I=1	M=23
A=3	
V=23	

STUDENTS' SCORES ON ESES VARIABLES

	Total	Boys	Girls
	Sample Size 20		
P=27		26	27
C=23		21	23
A=24		24	24
PP=25		26	25
S=27		26	25
	Sample Size 17		
P=24		22	28
C=21		21	25
A=25		26	23
PP=21		21	23
S=25		24	26
	Sample Size 32		
P=26		27	24
C=23		24	22
A=24		24	24
PP=23		24	23
S=26		26	24
	Sample Size 15		
P=26		23	25
C=26		23	25
A=25		23	25
PP=25		23	24
S=25		21	26

VITA

Billy Don Childress

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: ELEMENTARY TEACHERS' PHILOSOPHIES OF HUMAN NATURE AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

Major Field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Biglow, Arkansas, July 10, 1941, the son of Mr. and Mrs. Donald D. Childress.

Education: Attended elementary and graduated from Porter High School, Porter, Oklahoma in 1959; received the Bachelor of Arts degree in education with a major in secondary social studies from Northeastern State College, Tahlequah, Oklahoma, in May, 1963; received the Master of Teaching degree from Northeastern State College, Tahlequah, Oklahoma with a major in elementary education, in July, 1968; completed requirements for certification in school administration at the University of Tulsa, in July of 1969; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree in July, 1972.

Professional Experience: Teacher-principal in Bryant Elementary School, District D-12, Okmulgee County, Oklahoma, 1963-64; Teacher-principal in Central Elementary School District D-1, Wagoner County, Oklahoma, 1964-68; principal at Oak Crest Elementary School in the Broken Arrow School District I-3, Tulsa County, Oklahoma, 1968-71; Graduate Teaching Assistant in the College of Education, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1971-72.