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OTIS KENT LOVETTE

A CORRELATIONAL INVESTIGATION OF THE  
SELF-CONCEPTS OF FIFTH AND  
SIXTH GRADE TEACHERS  
AND THEIR STUDENTS

By

OTIS KENT LOVETTE

Bachelor of Science  
Kansas State Teachers College  
Emporia, Kansas  
1963

Master of Science  
Kansas State Teachers College  
Emporia, Kansas  
1963

Specialist in Education  
Kansas State Teachers College  
Emporia, Kansas  
1967

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  
May, 1973

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Thesis Approved:

*Kenneth H. Clark*

Thesis Adviser

*James B. Appleberry*

*Kenneth H. Clark*

*Larry M. Perkins*

*N. N. Burton*

Dean of the Graduate College

873320

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Introduction to the Problem

Incentive for this study arose from a recent report issued by the Kansas State Department of Education (May 15, 1970) (83). This Summary Report culminated a comprehensive investigation to determine the critical educational needs of students in the State of Kansas from early childhood through adulthood and was the result of editing and reducing a six volume Report of Project SEEK, State Educational Evaluation of Kansas. It was prepared by the staff of the Research and Grants Center, Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, Kansas for the Kansas State Department of Education, ESEA, Title III office.

After final compilation of the data from the study, a jury of twenty-five people met to study the data and identify the crucial educational needs for Kansas. Number one on the list of the "Ten Most Critical Needs of Education in Kansas as Determined by the Jury Technique" was "Development of positive self-image" (in students). In its statement regarding the need, the jury reported:

Many of the students need assistance in developing positive self-images; that is, help in seeing themselves as important individuals rather than as persons about whom no one cares. The counselor may be able to work with those students who have negative self-images, but this must be a concerted effort. The 'critical intervention teacher' may be the person to best help the student (83, p. 32).

Can education be called upon to make a deliberate attempt to enhance each student's identity and feeling of self-worth? This question is posed in the light of increasing evidence as to the importance of a positive concept or attitude toward the self and effective personality functioning. As VanKoughnett and Smith (81, p. 253) state:

The attitudes that one holds toward himself are significantly associated with personal satisfaction and mental health. Clinical psychologists are fully aware of the fact that many people who seek psychological help often view themselves as being unworthy, inadequate, and unable. Moreover, it is known that self acceptance precedes acceptance of others. Persons who view themselves in a negative manner are the ones who are not likely to achieve in either the academic or social sense.

Beniskos (4) feels that, although it may appear to be contradictory in view of the events of these times, what characterizes today's society and the world in general today is the rediscovery of the infinite value of the individual. As a result of this rediscovery, he says that educators can no longer think exclusively in terms of the pupil, the teacher, and the curriculum; instead one must accept the challenge of what he terms "person education".

Contributions of psychological research to the understanding of the learner and the learning process have identified the possession of an adequate self-concept as a prerequisite to learning. Each learner must perceive himself as an organism that is capable of performing adequately in the learning process (34).

In recent years, a number of studies have concluded that academic success or failure is deeply rooted in self-attitudes (61). It is generally acknowledged that for effective functioning a person must have positive attitudes toward himself; it is also assumed that school behavior is determined, at least in part, by the child's view of himself.

The learning problems of students press heavily on educators today. Many panaceas have been proposed which purport to improve the learning environment for children, but little appears to have been done. Many educators assert that little can be done to modify the behavior of educators in the classroom. Others have postulated that teacher behavior can be modified through appropriate educational programs (36).

VanKoughnett and Smith (81, p. 254) in an article entitled "Enhancing the Self-Concept in School" state:

American society, including educational institutions, has acted in a manner to induce negative self-feelings on the part of large segments of our population. Schools as part of society must now act to correct this error. There is no question as to the necessity for such action: there is question as to what concrete things a school can do to enhance the self-concept of its students.

Too often the essential role of the teacher has been considered to be that of transmitting or communicating particular skills or information to a group of, "hopefully", passive individuals (4). Beniskos (4, p. 34) says:

This might have been the role of the teacher 15, 20, or more years ago, because the sources of information were quite restricted. Today students are exposed to television, radio, and a great many other communication devices, and if there is one thing the machine can do much better than people can, it is to transmit information, and even help the individual develop specific or particular skills. The child today is no longer coming to school to be informed (he is so informed he doesn't know what to do with himself) but to be transformed. The role of the teacher must be that of a transformer. But the teacher cannot transform someone else unless he himself has been transformed.

The revolution in education has nothing to do with introducing hardware into the classroom. The revolution in education involves introducing the teacher into the classroom (4, p. 34).

For generations, wise teachers have sensed the relationship between a pupil's concept of himself and his performance in school. They have

known that pupils who feel good about themselves are most likely to succeed, and that pupils who see themselves in a negative fashion usually fail to achieve (61). But a concept must be self-achieved by the student. The teacher cannot "give" the student a feeling of adequacy; his role is that of providing situations which are conducive to concept growth. The teacher must provide experiences for each child which will provide opportunities for the child to succeed (34).

#### Statement of the Problem

Today's society has demanded and continues to demand (note the recent cries for accountability) that schools produce a superior product, or at least a product that they feel is commensurate with their expenditures for education. Society is concerned with student unrest, with the dropout rate, and with the lack of motivation for academic pursuits which is embodied in student underachievement. Testimony of the concern over achievement is evidenced by various legislative proposals (Oklahoma, 1972) for required state-wide testing programs. If it is the school's challenge to raise present levels of academic achievement, ways of promoting higher levels of achievement than are now evidenced in the schools must be considered.

It has been shown by various studies that there is a positive relationship between feelings of self-worth and academic success. Relationships between attitudes toward self and achievement have been demonstrated but causal situations have not been verified by experimental study. This study has not been designed to investigate causes and will only be concerned with relationships between teacher and student self-concept.

If today's educational problem is to raise the achievement level of students, and if one can posit validly that there is a relationship between the way a student feels about himself and his academic performance, then various aspects of the school environment must be investigated to determine factors which may relate to the student's concept of self.

#### Purpose of the Study

If it is validly posited that self-concept is a variable that may serve to limit or support academic success, then it is essential that schools develop means, activities, approaches, or whatever is necessary to enhance the self-concepts of students. The purpose of this study was to investigate the teacher as one aspect of the child's environment when he is in the school situation, for it is upon the child's interaction with this part of his school environment that his academic success or failure may largely depend.

The study was designed to investigate correlations between teachers' self-concepts and their students' self-concepts. If in this study it is found that there are significant relationships between the self-concepts of teachers and the self-concepts of their students, further studies of experimental design may be undertaken to determine the causes of such relationships. Findings may indicate a need for restructuring today's educational systems in an attempt to enhance the feelings of self-worth in teachers and in persons at all levels of educational endeavor as a means of raising the academic benefits of the school environment.

If it is the school's challenge to send each child home from school

feeling better about himself than when he arrived in the morning, educators must become aware of how a child develops a positive self-concept. If a child improves his self-concept through experiencing success, love, acceptance, and understanding, then there must be provided a setting where these can be experienced. If significant correlations between positive self-concept in teachers and their students can be established, then one must engage in activities to improve teacher self-concept or to identify and select teachers who have positive concepts of self. In order to arrive at a type of education in today's society which has a positive influence upon the feelings which each student has about himself, classroom educators must become increasingly aware of the "self-needs" of their students as well as themselves as individuals.

#### Rationale

The self-concept is the organization of all that an individual refers to as "I" or "me" (63). It is the individual from his own particular point of view. It develops as the individual interacts with his physical and social environment. A positive self-concept results from an individual's interactions with his environment which cause him to "feel good" about himself. His relations with parents, peers, and others have caused him to feel secure, accepted, valued, loved, that he belonged, and was recognized as a worthy individual. He feels adequate and self-confident. Combs (18) says that the person who has a positive self-concept behaves in a manner that allows him to be successful, he is able to trust himself and his impulses, he is able to identify with and accept others.

Psychological research has identified the possession of an adequate

self-concept as a prerequisite for learning (34), and various investigations have reported that academic success in schools is deeply rooted in positive self-attitudes (61). Traditionally, the schools have been very much concerned with promoting greater levels of academic achievement. It appears that one way schools may hope to increase academic achievement is to raise student self-concept. Of the various resources the school has at its disposal that may be used to promote positive self-concept in students, the teacher appears to have the greatest effect on academic success or failure (51).

The student comes into the interaction situation of the classroom with a concept of self that is the product of his experiences. The teacher is just one more dominant factor in his environment as are his family and his peers. The teacher, who is the product of his past experiences, reflects these experiences in his interactions with people; he manipulates, regulates, and provides stimuli for students. These stimuli, which may be in the form of words, actions, or nuisances that the student perceives in these words and actions, cause some type of reaction or behavior on the part of the student. These reactions may be either covert and implicit or overt and explicit (35). The interaction between teacher and student, stimulus and response, may be internalized by the student and may result in modified patterns of behavior or thinking; they may also result in changes in concept of self.

If this rationale is correct then the following hypothesis should be supported by statistical testing.

### Hypothesis

There is a significant correlation between the self-concepts of teachers and their students.

For testing purposes, the hypothesis was restated in the null form:

There is no significant correlation between the self-concept of teachers and their students. (Tests will be made to determine whether correlations derived are significantly different than zero.)

### Research Questions

A number of specific questions were developed to investigate various aspects of self-concept in the group sampled. This was done to gain information regarding various aspects of self-concept which may be helpful to the schools involved, as well as serving to corroborate previous studies and to generate areas for future research. Questions which were investigated were as follows:

- (1) What relationships exist between Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) scores and grade of students?
- (2) What relationships exist between SEI scores and sex of students?
- (3) What relationships exist between SEI scores and student age?
- (4) What relationships exist between the SEI scores of students who have male teachers as compared with students who have female teachers?
- (5) What relationships exist in the SEI scores of students who have teachers of various ages?
- (6) What relationships exist in the SEI scores of students



who have teachers with variations in the number of years of experience?

- (7) What relationships exist in the SEI scores of students who have teachers with variations in educational attainment?
- (8) What relationships exist between teacher age and Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) scores?
- (9) What relationships exist between teacher experience (number of years of teaching) and TSCS scores?
- (10) What relationships exist between teacher educational attainment and TSCS scores?
- (11) What relationships exist between teacher sex (male or female) and TSCS scores?

#### Assumptions

The inference is made in the study that the school, acting through the medium of the teacher, which has the student only about seven hours out of a twenty-four hour day, can influence the self-concept. Even though other influences during the remaining seventeen hours may all be negative, it is assumed that the teacher does play a vital part in developing the self-attitudes of children, whether negative or positive.

It is assumed that the subjects' responses to the instrument items were accurate and scores on the instruments were indicative of the subjects' concept of self.

### Limitations

This study was limited by the inherent weakness of the instrumentation. Inventory type instruments do not require the subjects to perform at their maximum levels and a subject may give false or dishonest responses if he feels coerced or wishes to make a desired impression or if he lacks sufficient insight to make objective responses concerning his behavior.

All conclusions or inferences to be drawn are approximations, as are all inferences, based on empirical data which, by their very nature, are characterized by some degree of unreliability, and are probably estimates rather than statements of inviolate relationships.

No attempt was made to control or determine the variables imposed by such factors as home environment, influences from other teachers, or physical environment. Only when one understands or knows the subject, his relations to his family, his subculture, his general style for adjusting to life's problems, his hopes for the future, his frustrations, his conflicts, and his ideals can one understand or interpret the psychological meanings for self-esteem of specific bits of behavior (performance on an inventory).

It was recognized that information gathered and correlations determined were "case specific" and the findings could not be generalized to other populations under different circumstances.

The study was limited to six elementary schools in Wichita, Kansas. The population studied included only students in the fifth and sixth grade and their teachers. Only self-contained classrooms were used in the investigation.

### Definition of Terms

For purposes of clarity and understanding, the following terms have been defined.

Self-concept: The self-concept is the organization of all that an individual refers to as "I" or "me". It is himself from his own point of view. The self-concept is not just a conglomeration or addition of isolated concepts of self, but is a patterned interrelationship or "gestalt" of all of these. It has a degree of stability and consistency which gives predictability to the individual and his behavior (19). It is formed through the individual's physical and social interaction with his environment.

Positive self-concept: A positive self-concept is a good feeling about self that results from an individual's interaction with his environment. This conception allows a person to be more accepting of himself as an individual and to reflect an attitude of acceptance toward others. The person who possesses a positive self-concept respects himself, has confidence in himself, and feels adequate in his interactions with his environment. He is considered by others to be self-accepting and well-adjusted; he behaves in a manner which allows him to be successful.

For the purposes of this study, the four Scale scores of the teachers on the TSCS were divided into approximate thirds, with the top one-third identified as having a positive self-concept. Those students who scored in the upper quartile on the SEI were considered as possessing a positive self-concept. Positive self-concept is used synonymously with "self-esteem" in this investigation.

Negative self-concept: A negative self-concept is characterized by a person who does not feel good about himself. He lacks respect and confidence in himself and feels inadequate in his interactions with his environment. He is considered by others to be defensive, poorly adjusted, and exhibits behavior patterns which generally do not allow him to be successful.

For the purposes of this study, the teachers scoring in the bottom one-third on the TSCS were considered as possessing a negative self-concept. Students scoring in the bottom quartile on the SEI were considered as possessing a negative self-concept.

Self-report: The self-report is the individual's description of himself, what he says he is.

For the purposes of this study, the student's score on the SEI and the teacher's score on the TSCS were considered as the self-report and were considered to be indicative of the feelings of self-esteem or self-concept.

Self-contained classroom: For the purpose of this study, only classes in which students were under the direct supervision of one specific teacher for a minimum of four hours (average) per day were considered to be self-contained.

#### Organization of the Study

Chapter I contains a general introduction to the problem, a statement of the problem, the purposes of the study, the hypothesis to be tested, specific research questions, assumptions underlying the study, the limitations, and the definition of terms used in the study.

Chapter II is a review of the literature related to self-concept.

The first section includes general information regarding the theoretical development of the self-concept with major concentration on terminology and other selected information. The second section concentrates on the influences of culture, society, and the school in the development of self-concept. The third section investigates the role of the teacher in the development of concepts about self. The fourth section reviews some of the research which has been conducted investigating selected aspects of self-concept. The fifth section briefly summarizes the chapter and relates the material to the development of the rationale and hypothesis.

Chapter III contains a description of the methods and procedures employed in conducting the study. It includes information regarding the subjects investigated, a description of the two instruments used (including their development, reliability, and validity), the methods employed in collecting the data, the methods of analysis used in the investigation, and the hypothesis and various questions posed for research.

Chapter IV is an analysis of the results of the statistical treatment. The format of the chapter follows the sequence of the research questions originally posed.

Chapter V contains a summary of the study, conclusions and inferences derived from the study, and recommendations for further study.

Also contained in the paper is a Selected Bibliography and an Appendix.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### Introduction

This chapter has been developed to provide information specific to what some may consider a nebulous entity, the self-concept. It is necessary that certain terminologies and theories be examined which are basic to an investigation of an individual's perceptual organization. Five sections have been developed, each of which concentrates on a specific aspect relative to the self-concept.

The first section develops a theoretical background for the concept of self. It presents the terminology of the field and relates some of the knowledge, philosophies, and theory of noted authorities and researchers who have become involved in speculating about and investigating the self-concept.

The second section presents aspects of the development of self-concept relative to the socialization process in general and the school environment in particular. It investigates the culturally-determined influences of society and the home and examines the importance of the school situation.

The third section considers the teacher as an influence in the development of the child's self-concept. The attitude of the teacher toward himself, as well as toward his students, is investigated as a

possible determining factor in developing behavior patterns and concepts of self in students.

In the fourth section, a number of selected studies which have relationship to various aspects of self-concept are discussed and summarized in an attempt to identify major points of agreement and divergence.

The fifth section draws from the information presented in the four preceding sections. It continues the identification of major areas of agreement and the summarization of materials in developing a rationale for the study undertaken.

### Theoretical Background

#### Terminology

As an introduction to some of the terminologies commonly used in discussing the self-concept, a brief review of Maslow's theory of human motivation is presented. Maslow (17) recognizes five levels of need in the psychological development of a child: physiological needs, safety needs, belonging and love needs, esteem needs, and the need for self-actualization. According to Maslow, the appearance of these needs depends on the satisfaction of the needs at the lower end of the hierarchy (physiological needs). He classifies esteem needs into two types: (1) the desire to be competent in dealing with the world, and (2) the desire for recognition, status, and importance in the eyes of others.

Adequate self-esteem promotes a sense of personal worth, self-respect, and confidence. Lack of self-esteem induces a feeling of helplessness and inferiority that can create an excessive need to compensate for these inadequacies (17, p. 36).

The person who lacks adequate self-esteem can be identified by his defensiveness in respect to his performances. He is frightened by competition or by activities involving challenge. He would rather not perform than risk revealing his inadequacies. Some school children who feel little self-esteem and are unsure of others' evaluations of them prefer to do little school work in an attempt to avoid exhibiting their inadequacies to others (17).

This brief look at some of Maslow's interpretations of self-esteem, esteem needs, self-respect, and other terms which are relative to self-concept, has been used as an introduction to theory concerning the self as well as to emphasize the need for an analysis of some of the terminology associated with self-concept. Combs and Soper (19) in an article entitled "The Self, Its Derivative Terms, and Research" develop the terminology extensively. They indicate that literature dealing with "self" terms has become more and more confused. They attempt to examine conceptual bases and arrive at terms which they feel are consistent with a "self" framework of reference and will provide a more adequate base for research (aid researchers in communicating in common terminology). The following portion is basically a review of Combs and Soper's work regarding terminology and has been included to provide clarity and continuity to the literature reviewed and to illustrate the complexity of the identification of concepts to which terms must be applied.

Self and Real Self: If one wishes to describe the characteristics and attributes of any "given" self, the task becomes difficult. It may be described from the point of view of any number of observers, including the individual "self". No one can observe a "real" self directly. It can only be described through the perceptions of an observer or by



inference. An individual who attempts to describe his own self can only provide an approximation of his "real" self, because at any given time only a part of the "real" self is visible to the individual (19). This study will not focus on the "real" self, for its existence is generally considered to be a philosophical question.

Concepts of Self: The ways in which the self may be perceived are nearly limitless. Each person, within a short period of time after his birth, has developed a number of perceptions about himself. These separate perceptions might be termed "concepts of self". They are perceptions which the individual regards as part or characteristic of himself. They include all self-perceptions which the individual feels are descriptive of the self he calls "I" or "me" (63). These concepts are not of equal importance to the human being and vary in at least two important aspects:

1. Some are more central, such as conceiving of self as man or woman, and are more resistant to change. Other concepts of self are less strongly defined because they do not seem quite so important in a particular organization . . .

2. Concepts of self will also vary in sharpness or clarity. At any moment we observe a human being we will find the concepts of self which he holds to vary from those in clear, sharp figure to those so vague and fuzzy as to be inexpressible even by the person himself (62, p. 155).

The Self-Concept: Whereas the "concepts of self" describe isolated, separate aspects of the person, the "self-concept" is the organization of all that the individual refers to as "I" or "me" (63). It is himself from his own particular point of view. As defined earlier, the "self-concept" is not merely a conglomeration of or addition of isolated concepts of self, but is a patterned interrelationship or "gestalt" of all these (64) (67) (69). Like the concepts of which it is composed,

the "self-concept" has a certain degree of stability and consistency which gives predictability to an individual and his behavior (72) (84).

Combs and Soper (19, p. 136) say:

The perceptual field of an individual includes much more than his perceptions of self. It includes, for example, perceptions of the objects and events in the world about him, perceptions of his physical being, the goals and values he has differentiated as means of achieving need satisfaction, the techniques which have come to seem appropriate ways of reaching his goals, and perceptions of abstract ideas and concepts. These perceptions, in the same fashion as perceptions of self, will also vary in importance and clarity.

The perceptual field, which includes all of the individual's perceptions, may be represented by a large circle, A. Within this perceptual field one may think of a second, smaller circle, B, which will include all those perceptions which the person has about himself, regardless of their importance or clarity to him at any particular moment. Snygg and Combs (63) call this the "phenomenal self". Within this phenomenal field one may think of a third, smaller circle, C, which includes only those aspects which are important to the self; this is the "self-concept". It is a stable, important and characteristic organization of the perceptions which seem to the individual to compose himself (61) (63).

Inferential Nature of Self: Both the "self concept" and "concepts of self" are only inferences about the self. They are abstractions or interpretations which may be useful in understanding oneself and to aid communication. The self as a discrete entity is nonexistent, but inferences allow one to deal with complex functions which are not directly observable (19).

Combs and Soper (19, p. 137) continue by saying:

The self concept is created by the individual's inferences from his unique experiences. It is derived from observation about his own behavior and the behavior of other people

toward him. The child who perceives adults push him away, may come to perceive himself as unliked or unwanted. The adult observing himself to be badly winded while playing with his young son, may revise his self concept with the perception that he no longer has the old pep. Whatever self concept the individual holds, has been acquired from the data of his own observations of behavior.

The outsider hoping to understand the self concept of another individual also attempts to assess it through inference. If each individual behaves in terms of his self concept, then it should be possible for an outsider, by observing the behavior of an individual, to infer the nature of the self concept. This is what each of us does quite automatically in dealing with other people. We infer, from the behavior we see, what other people are thinking and feeling, and adjust our own behavior accordingly. What the layman does as a matter of 'common sense', the behavioral scientist seeks to do more exactly and precisely. The data used by the psychologist in studying the self concept are exactly the same as those used in studying any other human characteristic, namely, the observed behavior of the subject (19, p. 137).

The Self Report: The "self report" is the person's self-description; it represents what the person says he is. The "self report" is a behavior which reveals in a larger or smaller degree what is "going on" within the individual. The "self report" and "self-concept" are not synonymous. One is a behavior and the other is a perception or inference made from behavior (19).

The "self report" is valuable in exploring the "self-concept", but Gordon (28) indicated that empirical evidence demonstrating direct connections between "self-concept" measured by "self report" (or testing techniques) and behavior (as judged by outsiders) was limited and somewhat conflicting. Some experimenters have attempted to circumvent the difficulties of the "self report" by using various methods designed to force choices or of requiring subjects to categorize statements about themselves. One of these methods is the Stephenson Q Technique which has been used extensively in investigating the "self-concept" (73) (75)

(67) (74) (72). This technique involves sorting statements about self into a series of "more or less so" piles. This type procedure forces the subject to consider a number of self descriptions he might have tended to avoid. This type of technique determines a "self report" which Combs and Soper (19) say is not "self concept", but has been treated by various studies as being such. They say this is unfortunate because these studies run the risk of being rejected because they are mislabeled, even though they may contain valuable information.

The Self Ideal: It is generally accepted that an individual's perception of himself as an adequate or an inadequate person, his confidence in his own ability to satisfy his basic needs, is very important in determining his reactions to people and situations. The fact that an individual may see himself as inadequate would seem to require that he have certain goals for himself which he defines as "adequate" and "satisfactory". The aggregate of these characteristics of self which the person feels are necessary to be adequate has been termed the "self ideal" (77) (82) (78) (67), and it has been assumed that the discrepancy between a person's "self concept" and his "self ideal" would provide an objective measure of "adequacy" or "inadequacy" (82) (78).

Description of the "self ideal" encounters many of the same difficulties as the "self report". Researchers have based estimates of the "self ideal" on responses by the subject to questions of the same general type as are used in paper and pencil inventories. Acceptance of these responses at face value can lead to misinformation and ambiguous research findings when the subject's description of the "person I would like to be" is accepted as the "self ideal" (19).

Another difficulty encountered is that the subject may never have

formulated a clear "self ideal". When he is asked to report his "self ideal", one may be asking him to invent a concept which really does not exist. Also, an individual's perception of himself as adequate or inadequate, and his differentiation of the qualities which would be ideal for him, involves more than static or cross-sectional descriptions (19).

The use of the term "self ideal", and the objective measurement of this concept, are subject to a number of limitations. The term should be recognized as referring to a highly abstract construct, and may or may not have its counterpart in the individual's perceptual field (19).

The Self and Adjustment: A number of terms have been developed to indicate "good" adjustment from various points of view. "Self-acceptance", "self-adequacy", and the "nonthreatened personality" are probably the most representative terms used (81) (62) (67) (63).

"Self-acceptance" as used by Rogers (67), Maslow (53), and Snygg and Combs (63) refers to the ability of the individual to accept into his own awareness facts about himself with a minimum of defense or distortion. It is related to the accuracy of observation and self-awareness, but does not imply self-approval or disapproval. It allows a well-adjusted, self-accepting person to say of himself, "I have a bad habit of interrupting people sometimes". Combs and Soper (19) say that some experimenters have equated "self-acceptance" with self-approval or liking (77) (75) (80) which may lead to the ridiculous conclusion that a person who says of himself accurately, "I am a very cruel person most of the time, and I like myself this way very much", is well-adjusted. The well-adjusted person may confess to a general feeling of satisfaction, but probably does not have great feelings of like or dislike of self.

"Self-adequacy" is another characteristic of the individual self concept. It implies an over-all evaluation of self at all levels of awareness. It is an individual's judgment of his ability to achieve basic need satisfaction. Combs and Soper (19, p. 142) say:

An individual always has as a goal a greater degree of adequacy-- this is part of the dynamic process of living. To the degree that he sees himself as adequate, however, he can select among the goals he perceives, or reject them, or try and fail, without disorganization and self-defeating reactions. He feels adequate to achieve enhancement through goals which are realistically available in terms of immediate or predicted situations. His feeling of adequacy, then, does not depend on the restrictions of his immediate environment.

Objective appraisal of an individual's success as culturally defined, or his brilliance in contributing to art, science, or literature, does not provide in itself satisfactory evidence of an individual's self-adequacy. Adequacy is an attribute of his own perception of himself. Two people may be equally convinced that they are unable to deal with mathematical problems; for one, this is a realistic and matter-of-fact situation which he can use effectively in decision-making, and has relatively little relevance to his feeling of worth-whileness; to the other, it may be further evidence of personal inadequacy, a weakness which is not acceptable to him. Adequacy or inadequacy are personal perceptions of events (14, p. 143).

"Non-threatened personality" generally refers to the "adequate" person. There appears to be a reciprocal relationship between a person's self-adequacy and perceived threat. In other words, a person feels threatened when he sees himself as basically inadequate in satisfying a need. This results in a narrowing and distortion of perception so that he is not able to accept those aspects of self and environment which contribute to the threat, nor can he relate these meaningfully and realistically to other perceptions of self and environment. The threat produces defense and the self-concept is then defended more vigorously and is less capable of change and growth. This indicates that the

non-threatened person is one who is self-acceptant and perceives himself as basically an adequate person (19).

The Self System: Gordon (28, p. 18) describes the "self system" as:

. . . the individual's organized experience, both with himself and his world. It includes all that is organized at any given moment.

This self-system attempts to maintain a steady-state, has direction toward increased complexity, possesses some degree of internal consistency, and is in continuous transaction with the environment (28, p. 18).

While, from moment to moment, its atomistic ingredients change -- cells die and are replaced, behaviors, too, die and are replaced -- the system goes on, and has a recognizable identity (28, p. 18).

The identity of the individual is recognized in terms of the patterns of his behavior, and as a function of the "self system". A person's behavior is functional and serves to preserve a "steady-state" for the "self system". He develops his "self system" out of his own individual needs for maintenance of organization and his interaction with maturational and interpersonal forces (28).

The individual differentiates out a part of the self-system, which he perceives as 'him'. This self-concept, which actually consists of several concepts of self, is unique and personal. A person's choice of behavior is greatly influenced by his self-concept, and he develops and behaves to maintain this, just as, at an earlier level of development, he attempted to enhance and maintain his body (28, p. 20).

This "self system" is a function of organism-environment transaction; therefore, the self a person develops is his "real" self and there can be no concept of what "might have been" although future experiences may modify the "self system".

. . . this self is not a mystical thing with which a person was born, and which just has to be left to unfold. Neither is it a little man located somewhere up in the brain directing action. It is a construct invented by the psychologist

to make behavior understandable. Only in this sense is it real at all (28, p. 20).

The "self system" is constantly developing toward enhancing itself, but not all parts of the system are equally differentiated and integrated; some aspects are more clearly defined. It is the total system that governs the behavior of the person even though some parts seem to exercise a higher degree of influence on the perceptual and interpretational processes and upon the choice of situations in which a person places himself (28).

#### Development of Self-Concept

Each individual has a psychological identity by which he experiences himself as "me". This identity consists of the integrated self-picture of "what" and "who" one is. As an adult, one believes in his own unique personality. One "knows" that he is either fearful or brave, that he is well-coordinated or poorly-coordinated, that he has much or little self-confidence, that he is usually depressed or usually content, and so on. The perception of what one is has not only a uniqueness but also a continuity. One remains the same person he was an hour ago, a year ago, or several years ago, even though things about him do change. One expects others to recognize this continuity and basic integrity in his self-identity and expect others to anticipate that he will behave in a certain characteristic way. Without such a characteristic, self-identity, one would feel lost, fragmented, and helpless (39). But how does this psychological identity develop? How does the sense of self develop in infancy and childhood? The purpose of this section is to examine some of the processes by which the sense of self develops in the



early parts of a person's life. How is a good or a bad self-picture formed early in life?

Some authorities feel that one can only speculate about the beginnings and development of the initial concept of self. Hutt and Gibby (39) say that the development of "self" begins when the infant has his first awareness of himself as being different from the rest of the world. At first this sense is vague and diffuse, but as the biological needs fail to be gratified promptly or adequately the infant begins to become conscious of a "me" that has tensions and some "not-me" that usually reduces these tensions and occasionally does not. This is probably the first glimmerings of a self-identity which is formed on the basis of frustrations which help the infant distinguish between his body and "something out there" which is not a part of his body. It is known that until the nervous system becomes matured more completely and until the sensory processes have developed, little self-perception or perception of others is possible.

Very gradually the young child becomes aware of his body in a gross, undifferentiated sense, and things that are not a part of his body. Later he becomes aware of differentiated feelings within the body and this is when the localization of the self within the body begins to emerge. He continues to recognize and evaluate the things and people apart from himself and eventually starts to experience appraisals of his own self by others. It is only after one forms this preliminary sense of self out of such appraisals that he can later learn to evaluate himself accurately on the basis of his own actions (39).

Blackham (8, p. 4) discusses the emergence of ego as a person develops a self-concept and concurs with Hutt and Gibby (39) as he says:

The self first begins to emerge from one's feelings and sensations, which give a sense of 'being'. Then, as the organism matures, perceptions and images are formed that help the developing person differentiate the 'me' from the 'not me'. The concept of self is further crystallized as the child is responded to as an entity, is called by name, and is related to, either positively or negatively, by those in his immediate environment.

As the child develops, he begins to adopt a "truly socialized role," as Hutt and Gibby (39) call it, as he identifies with the appropriate role for which he is suited socially and biologically. The boy, for example, internalizes the social roles which his father, brother, uncle, and others portray. The more clearly defined and acceptable these roles are the more stable the sense of self-identity. The child needs experience in portraying these roles so that he may learn to discriminate them more accurately and use them consistently.

Blackham (8) says that the ego, and the self system of which it is a part, results through the individual's maturation and interaction with his environment. Until the person has a concept of himself, a system of feelings, attitudes, desires, and images that he recognizes as himself; he has no particular need to perpetuate a self system.

With one's awareness of being a self or a person, the task of maintaining, regulating, and inhibiting the self in order to survive become clearly established. It is then that the executive functions of the self system -- the ego functions -- are established (8, p. 4).

After the oedipal period has ended (about age thirteen), the process of developing a self-identity will have caused a substantial degree of superego development. This means that the normal youngster will have acquired sufficient internalized, inhibitory controls to be able to function in a fairly responsible social role. He will generally have a certain respect for authority and will have acquired techniques for cooperating with others. His judgment about reality factors will be far

from adequate and he will need to be given definite limits with respect to what he can do, but in most ordinary situations he will be able to manage himself. He will experience occasional doubts about the adequacy of his self-identity as he meets situations for which he is still ill-prepared and with which he cannot cope adequately (39).

This material provides a general overview of the gross development of a self-concept. Whether the concept which develops is good or bad depends on all the experiences which the child has as he progresses through various stages of maturation and interrelates with his social and psychological environment.

#### Manifestations of Self

The perceptions which seem to be most important to the individual, and seem to be "he" at all times and in all places are his self-concept. These perceptions are highly differentiated, integral, and fairly persistent aspects of one's self, but are not necessarily clear in the awareness of the person. As mentioned previously, a person's self-concept, and its nature, cannot be seen directly; its existence is inferred from patterns of behavior (18).

The self-concept has been defined operationally in several different fashions. One widely used technique is to equate self-concept with the stated view of a person about himself. With this definition, the self-concept is what an individual says he is, on some sort of scale (as used in this investigation), in an interview, or in response to some type of open-ended question. Other techniques involve examining the organized behavior of the individual, his language, his roles, his cognitive style, his expressive behavior, and his approach-avoidance

techniques. In Watson's book, Psychology of the Child (82), the self-concept (self-image) is said to include a child's (1) real characteristics; (2) description by adults; (3) comparisons with others; and (4) inner pressures.

"Real characteristics" refer to characteristics which are more or less objective; his physique, his manner, his intelligence, and his emotionality (82).

The "description by adults" is probably nearly as important and is the characteristics which he knows have been attributed to him by adults and his assimilation of what they think of him. Maccoby (48, pp. 249-250) indicates:

This brings up a central point, having to do with the development of attitudes toward the self. If a child learns the adult-role behavior characteristic of his parents, he may be expected to manifest the behavior in two sets of circumstances: when another person performs child-like actions toward him (e.g., when another child is hurt and needs solace, or when another child breaks a rule and needs discipline), or when he himself performs these child-like actions or has the impulse to do so. Suppose a child has parents who characteristically react by withdrawing their love from him when he does something they disapprove of. If he learns their characteristic mode of response to the deviation of another person, we would expect him to react to another child who breaks a rule by refusing to play with the other child. But, in addition, when he himself deviates, he will respond to his own impulse by withdrawing love from himself-- a phenomenon we more commonly refer to as a loss of self-esteem. Thus, the parents' attitudes toward the child, and the parents' techniques of dealing with the child, will be reflected in the child's self-attitudes as well as in his attitudes and behavior toward others.

Watson (82) says that parental attitudes contribute to the child's evaluation of self. He indicates that the presence of positive fostering attitudes helps to establish self-evaluations in children which are of a healthful nature. But, whatever their outcomes, parental attitudes that are experienced by the child affect his self-evaluation.

Martin (52) indicates that earlier studies by Ausubel (1949) hypothesized that a child's feelings about himself were directly related to parental attitudes. The child who is accepted and valued by his parents accepts a dependent position in his family, and is motivated to learn what the parents have to teach because he is guaranteed security and feelings of adequacy in return. When this child comes to school, he regards the teacher as a substitute parent, and if he receives the same acceptance from the teacher as he does from his parents, he will readily accept the teacher's teachings.

His "comparisons with others" help to shape his self-concept. As he compares himself with others of his group, he develops a certain more or less consistent perception of what he is like. The importance for self-esteem of the influence of the group is put forcefully by White (84, pp. 144-145):

. . . it is fair to say that the crucial arena for self-esteem is the arena of one's age-mates. At home there is an age hierarchy. Even the siblings are bigger or smaller, so that differences of competence are expected. The home, moreover, continues to be the source of love and provision of basic wants, even when the child ventures forth to playground and school. At home he must be love-worthy; this may include being competent, but is heavily weighted on the side of being good, obedient, and affectionate. On the playground the values are different: he must be respect-worthy, able to command respect because he shows competence and handles himself with ease. It is a sharp strain for many children when they pass from the atmosphere of a child-centered home into the competitive realities of even a friendly play group. They must show what they have in the way of physical prowess, courage, manipulative skill, outgoing friendliness, all in direct comparison with other children of their age. The penalties for failure are humiliation, ridicule, rejection from the group.

The fourth inclusion, "inner pressures", acts through the aspirations or ambitions of the child.

A girl with operatic ambitions may distort her inner evaluations to fit more in line with these ambitions. A boy who conceives himself as an athlete may be under self-pressure to try to fit this conception. These inner pressures also act through his interpretation of the situation. The view he holds may or may not correspond to the situation as others view it. A child may feel that a parent favors a brother or sister or is unduly harsh toward him when from the parent's point of view such is not the case. But the child's inner pressures will influence him whether they really reflect reality or not (82, pp. 404-405).

Blackham (8) continues along these lines by indicating that a child's self-concept is primarily a product of social learning and is the end result of all of one's experiences. He says that the child's concept of self begins to develop from his conception of his body image.

As he experiences feelings and sensations from his body, he begins to mark off his self boundaries. His concept of 'I' or 'me' is learned first from his own actions and reactions and later, from the actions and reaction of others toward him (8, p. 25).

The identifications the child makes with others, the standards, attitudes, and values that he incorporates as a result of this process, and others' attitudes toward and appraisals of him are all assimilated as part of the self-concept. All of this learning helps the child evaluate himself. Therefore, the esteem the child holds for himself is determined by the degree to which he meets internalized expectations and the ever changing external requirements of his environment. If the child is unsuccessful in meeting the goals his parents set for him, or if the goals are beyond his capacity to reach, he will not develop self-esteem or an adequate self-concept (8, p. 25).

Blackham (8) concurs with Watson (82) when he says that the child's concept of himself is a result of interactions with those in his immediate family (group), but indicates that the role of his peer group is often not given deserved emphasis.

With children of his own age he has an equal standing and thus finds his peers' judgements about himself most fair and just. The more he interacts with his peers to evaluate himself, the more he uses them as measuring rods to determine the adequacy of his accomplishments. Particularly in adolescence the standards of his peers may become the primary

mirror that he uses to catch reflections of his developing self. Unfortunate indeed is the adolescent who does not measure up to this comparison (8, p. 25).

Murphy (57, p. 498) says:

Whatever the self is, it becomes a center, an anchorage point, a standard of comparison, an ultimate real. Inevitably, it takes its place as a supreme value. . . . In a fundamental sense, the self is right.

Gordon (28, p. 90) continues:

The child's sense of himself, his 'I', the picture he holds of who he is, affects the way he organizes and assigns meanings to all his future experiences. His perceptions will be oriented toward enhancing and maintaining the self he has already developed. At birth he possessed potentialities to become many different kinds of persons; now he is more or less embarked upon a particular course. His 'I' will now weigh and evaluate, choose and discard, interpret and integrate his experience to preserve, protect, and defend this ultimate value, this self that has emerged.

The 'I' thus assumes the key role in further development and behavior. Although the evaluations of others will continue to influence the child, these will now be perceived and screened by his own evaluational agency, his self-image (28, p. 90).

How the child sees himself - in spite of its crudities, its lack of sophistication, its gaps and distortions - becomes, by this third year of life, a potent factor in influencing what he will become as a person (28, p. 90).

Watson discusses the importance of self-evaluation or self-criticism in understanding self-organization. He says that self-criticism develops in early childhood and is shown through guilt feelings. The presence of these guilt feelings indicate that the person considers himself to be an active agent responsible for his actions. If he does not do what he considers worthy and right, he develops self-reproof in the form of guilt. Also the self tries to protect against criticism in order to reduce guilt. In trying to keep a good opinion of oneself, he often is capable of self-delusion. Self-respect is very important to each individual, he strives but does not always succeed

in keeping a sense of self-worth. Man values his opinion of himself and goes to great lengths to protect his favorable views of self (82).

As can be seen, the nature of self-identity influences greatly not only what one is, but also what he anticipates doing and what he actually does. One acts in terms of his sense of identity and attempts to maintain a consistent self-image.

### Positive and Negative Self-Concept

The importance of an adequate self-concept and feelings of self-esteem cannot be over emphasized. Blackman (8) says these are a child's greatest developmental achievements. Once the self-concept has been substantially defined, the individual is able to screen and evaluate all his experiences. He says: "As a matter of fact, the degree to which a person finds life pleasant, happy, and successful is largely determined by the adequacy of his self-concept (8, p. 26)."

Blackham (8) refers to Combs (18) who discusses the attributes and behavior of the person who has a positive view of self. Combs suggests that the person who feels adequate behaves in a manner that allows him to be successful. He is able to trust himself and his impulses, and is able to identify with and accept others. This person is more at home with himself and is freer to respond to events outside himself. Since he is open to experience and not preoccupied with inner conflicts, he can see issues more clearly.

The person who has a positive view of self can make the utmost of his experiences, since there is little or no need to distort, deny, or repress them. With more data available, the individual is able to deal more accurately and realistically with his environment. And, being relatively free from threat (internally and externally), the adequate self is able to grow and develop unique talents without excessive concern for conformity (8, p. 26).



Hamacheck (30, p. 19) says an individual with positive, self-accepting attitudes and a healthy self-concept can be generally characterized as follows:

1. He is able to act on his own best judgment without feeling guilt or regretting his actions when others do not approve of what he's done.
2. He maintains confidence in his capacity to deal with problems even when setbacks and failures occur.
3. He feels equal, rather than superior or inferior, to others as a person.
4. He assumes that he is a person of interest and value to others.
5. He can accept praise and compliments without embarrassment and with genuine appreciation.
6. He tends to resist the efforts of others, particularly peers, to dominate him.
7. He accepts and can admit that he has, on different occasions, a wide range of impulses, feelings and desires, some of which are socially approved and some of which are not.
8. When he finds some aspect of behavior in himself he does not like because it is contrary to his self-concept, he sets out to change it.

Rogers (66) describes the fully functioning person as a person who is open, without the need for defense, to his experience. This person trusts himself and his organism and finds that his own self-system, in open transaction with the environment, is trustworthy. Since he is so self-accepting, he need not distort the perceptual world and this trust usually leads to good social and personal decisions.

Conversely, the person with an inadequate self-concept screens his experiences in order to avoid personal threat, he approaches life cautiously. He constantly struggles with feelings of low self-esteem and questions his capacities. He is ready prey for anxiety and depression (8).

From available evidence, it seems clear that negative self-concept or low self-esteem is developmental rather than innate. Feelings of inferiority are the consequence of many negative experiences over a long

period of time. Hamacheck (30) discusses some of the more prominent symptoms which are characteristic of a person with low self-esteem. The person is sensitive to criticism and reacts defensively no matter what the form or intent, because he interprets it as further proof of his inferiority. He overresponds to praise and is quick to grasp at any straw that may rescue him from his feelings of uncertainty and insecurity that grow out of feeling less able than others. He has a hypercritical attitude which is usually diversionary strategy to direct attention away from his own limitations. He has a "nobody likes me" feeling, he does not like himself and can't see how anyone else could. He has negative feelings about competition and generally avoids situations in which he cannot be successful. There is also a general tendency toward seclusiveness, shyness, and timidity; a sense of fear in situations involving other people.

All people in modern society have a need for a stable, firmly based, usually high evaluation of themselves, for self-respect, self-esteem, and for the esteem of others. Maslow (53) classifies these needs into two subsidiary sets. First, the desire for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for mastery and competence, for confidence in the face of the world, and for freedom and independence. Second, is the desire for reputation or prestige (he defines it as respect or esteem from other people), status, dominance, recognition, attention, importance, or appreciation. Maslow says that satisfaction of these needs leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability, adequacy, and being useful and necessary in the world. Thwarting of these needs will produce feelings of inferiority, weakness, and helplessness.

An inadequate or low self-concept is relatively easy to identify says Blackham (8). The most obvious sign is one's excessive need to be continuously reassured that what he produces is of acceptable quality and that he is valued and worthwhile. Some persons with low self-esteem may express unreasonable concern about their appearance, even though they are physically attractive, they may frequently verbalize that they feel ugly or repulsive. Other persons express a low self-concept by an inability to accept genuine and deserved praise, instead they may become upset or convince themselves that any praise is insincere.

A low self-concept may be expressed in other ways. Children may be so uncertain of themselves that they refuse to participate in competitive activities, or they may qualify excessively every act they make, every statement, or every opinion. Some may refuse to do school work. This refusal may be interpreted as laziness or negativism when in reality the child would rather not perform than face another sign of his inadequacy (8).

There are also behavior reactions of people with "disturbed" self-evaluations that are extremely defiant and maladapted. These persons may regard themselves as totally worthless, may be greatly depressed, and often unconsciously launch upon a course of self-punishment and self-destruction (8).

Many psychologists believe that the way in which an individual perceives himself is the most important factor in his personality structure. The degree of self-esteem, or positive type feelings about self, goes far in determining how an individual will behave under various circumstances, what his level of aspirations will be, and what happiness and contentment he will enjoy in the course of his life (56).

## Culture, Society, the School and Self-Concept

### Culture and Society

A person's conception of himself develops from his relationships with others, and somewhat from his experiences in meeting cultural demands (8). There is sufficient anthropological evidence to indicate that fundamental desires of human beings are somewhat static although "everyday" desires are more variable. Culture is the main reason for these differences. What provides self-esteem may vary from one society to another. "In one society, one obtains self-esteem by being a good hunter; in another society by being a great medicine man or a bold warrior, or a very unemotional person and so on (53, p. 67)."

Maslow (53, p. 67) continues by saying:

It may be that, if we think of ultimates, the one individual's desire to be a good hunter has the same dynamics and the same fundamental aim as the desire of the other individual to be a good medicine man. We may then assert that it would be more useful for psychologists to combine these two seemingly disparate conscious desires into the same category rather than to put them into different categories on purely behavioral grounds. Apparently ends in themselves are far more universal than the roads taken to achieve those ends, for these roads are determined locally in the specific culture.

Maslow (53) recognizes certain levels of needs wherein the needs of one level must be satisfied before a person becomes concerned with higher level needs. A person's culture or society plays an important part in the evolution of these needs. The lowest level of needs recognized are those which are more tangible and limited than the higher needs.

Hunger and thirst are much more obviously bodily than is love, which in turn is more so than respect. In addition, lower need satisfiers are much more tangible or observable than are higher need satisfactions. Furthermore, they are

more limited in the sense that a smaller quantity of gratifiers is needed to still the need. Only so much good can be eaten, but love, respect, and cognitive satisfactions are almost unlimited (53, p. 150).

The gratification of basic needs leads to the satisfying of higher level needs and has desirable civic and social consequences. The higher the need the less selfish it must be.

The search for love and respect necessarily involves other people. Moreover, it involves satisfaction for these other people. People who have enough basic satisfaction to look for love and respect (rather than just food and safety) tend to develop such qualities as loyalty, friendliness, and civic consciousness, and to become better parents, husbands, teachers, public servants, etc. (53, p. 149).

The highest need level is "self-actualization". At this level the "individual" is the most developed idiosyncratically, loves mankind most, and respects the spontaneity and individualization of others. Maslow (53) indicates that as one's basic emotional needs for belongingness, for love, for respect, and for self-esteem are met, one finds the appearance of such characteristics as affectionateness, self-respect, self-confidence, and security.

One step removed from these immediate characterological consequences of need gratification are such general traits as kindness, generosity, unselfishness, bigness (as opposed to pettiness), equanimity, serenity, happiness, contentment, and the like. These seem to be consequences of the consequences, by-products of general need gratification, i.e., of generally improving psychological life conditions (53, p. 114).

It is obvious that culture and learning play an important role in the genesis of these and other character traits.

The relationships between culture and personality are very profound and too complex to be developed in this paper, but it should be pointed out that in general the paths by which the main goals in one's life are accomplished are often determined by the nature of culture. The ways in

which self-esteem may be expressed and achieved are in large part culturally determined (53).

"Who one is" is determined by the institutions, organizations, and persons from which a person gets his directions on how to live. The self is inextricably linked with memberships in a particular family, religion, nation, community, and occupation. The view of self one has is contingent upon belief in something outside himself. But identity is more than the sum total of identifications because persons who belong to the same organizations and families are unique entities. Each person makes his own interpretation as to his role in the scheme of things (87).

It has been seen that the child's concept of himself is the result of the process of experience, may be positive or negative, and involves both physical and environmental factors. Morse and Wingo (56) say that some of these factors are inherited, and are probably outside the possibility of manipulation. But they say that many of the environmental factors are capable of being changed.

The way that an individual conceives of himself is a highly complicated thing; conceptions grow within a complex social framework. Hamacheck (30, p. 18) says that "Every general personality characteristic is influenced in some way by social interaction." Some characteristics, like popularity or shyness, are social by definition, that is, one is only popular or shy in relation to others. Other characteristics, like creativeness or autonomy, are less social by definition. Although one could be creative or autonomous in solitude, it is difficult to see how one could acquire such traits apart from some type of social interaction. To a large extent, a child's concept of self grows

as he incorporates how others feel about him and what they expect from him.

In the process of relating to others (socializing), the child experiences various degrees of satisfaction in having his needs met, and his self-concept is an outgrowth of these experiences. Blackham (8) says that the nature of these relationships is crucial in understanding dynamic personality trends in the developing child and it is thus essential that one examine the child's feelings toward his parents, siblings, peers, and teachers. These are the persons with whom the child lives and becomes most involved emotionally.

Studies have illustrated the importance of the behavior of others in shaping and modifying the self of the child. As the situation changes, the behavior changes of others reflect the child's perception of what is permissible and what is possible. Even though preadolescence is basically a time of peer orientation, the role of adults is still vital and important. Gordon (28, p. 222) says:

When adults operate in ways that enable the child to perceive that the adults are seeking to understand him, to know him, to aid him, the child responds by becoming more integrated and differentiated. By clarifying his view of himself, his behavior becomes more positive.

It is not the situation per se that modifies the child's behavior, it is his perception of it. This perception is influenced by the present situation and also by the already developed self (28).

One researcher has hypothesized that the child's feelings about himself are directly related to parental attitudes. He says:

The child who is accepted and valued by his parents is willing to accept a dependent position in the family; he is motivated to learn what the parents have to teach because in return he is guaranteed security and feelings of adequacy (52, p. 370).

Depending upon the type of atmosphere experienced at home, the shift from home to school may be mild or radical. If the home has provided numerous opportunities for self-expression, for individuality, and for relaxed play with parents, and then the new school environment into which he is thrust does not provide for the same type of activities, the child may experience feelings of frustration and dislike for this new environment, school (28).

### The School

The school reflects the attitudes and values of the community, state, and nation, or at the least as Gordon (28) says, the attitudes of the middle-class segment of the general population. The school is essentially a conservator of the cultural values and serves as society's agent in passing these values to the child.

If the self develops through transactions with the environment, it follows that most children learn to behave and to view themselves in the way in which the school expects. Although each child perceives the school in his own way, the school situation that is provided for him plays a tremendous and often overlooked role in determining the final outcome, the self-concept of the child (28).

Hamacheck (30, p. 19) says:

The role of the school in the development and change of self-concept is enormous. It dispenses praise and reproof, acceptance and rejection on a colossal scale. School provides not only the stage on which much of the drama of a student's formative years is played, but it also houses the most critical audience in the world -- peers and teachers.

And it is here, in the face of his severest critics, that a student is likely to be reminded again and again of either his failings and shortcomings or of his strengths and possibilities (30, p. 19).



The school is a primary agent in the dynamic process through which children develop authentic personal and social life styles. When the school performs its proper functions, it helps students in the understanding of self and in the resolving of identity conflicts and crises. Since a child's identity depends largely upon his view of self, the school should provide opportunities through which students may form a positive view of themselves, a condition upon which much of their progress is dependent (87). Society is now extremely cognizant of the fact that learning is a product of many interrelationships, and children and schools exist, not apart from, but within a social setting. The schools reflect the society in which they exist (2).

For the child in various areas, who meets or exceeds the peer and school expectations, there are many opportunities to develop and extend positive self-concepts. The self is constantly influenced by evaluations of others as well as by self-evaluation. As Havighurst (32) points out, to an increasing degree, the way the child sees himself is related to his skills. Self-acceptance, it seems, is connected to mastery of his world. With skill, the child contributes to his group and his group's reaction adds to his concept of self. When the child perceives himself as being held in high esteem by teachers and peers, he tends to hold himself in high esteem. There is a positive correlation in the third grade, for example, between proficiency on motor tests and such behavior as calmness, cooperation, attentiveness, and resourcefulness, as reported by Rarick and McKee (64). These attributes may be seen as indicative of high self-esteem.

Jersild (42) says that it is within an interpersonal setting that one acquires most of the attitudes involved in views of oneself, so it

is likely that only in an interpersonal setting can an individual be helped to come to grips with some of the meanings of these attitudes.

Research is teaching that the way a student performs depends not only on how intelligent he actually is but also on how intelligent he thinks he is. Each person lives in a manner that is as consistent as possible with his self-concept, he "acts like" the sort of person he conceives himself to be (30).

Some students are unable to attain a large measure of academic success, therefore, the school must provide them something in which they can be successful. Many school programs appear to be concerned only with stressing the intellectual phase of the child's life. The present understandings of self-concept should indicate that the affective domain, the domain of feelings, should not be overlooked or by-passed by schools. Development of positive feelings should be an educational goal just as much as the development of knowledge and skill. Schools must provide activities other than intellectual which will allow students to experience measures of success. Probably not every student can excel even in nonacademic activities, but the possibility of students developing a positive self-image is definitely enhanced when the school offers a variety of experiences (87).

Within the school that has a limited activity program and a fairly rigid curriculum pattern, teachers can help students by keeping an open mind about overt behavior, and by remaining personally uncritical of those who are confused by their growth. Yeates (87) says that an important fact to remember is that a child's estimation of his own worth is to a degree dependent upon his conception of other people's estimations of him. Any action on the part of the teacher which leads a

student to believe that the teacher is not concerned about him as a person is destructive to the student's self-image.

Gordon (28) says that a primary task of the school is to enable children to express their feelings, and to come to some understanding of themselves so they will learn to handle their feelings in ways which do not cause the child to feel guilty. Martin and Stendler (52, p. 370) conclude:

The child who feels good about himself, who has built up a strong ego, who looks upon himself as a worthwhile person is more likely to utilize his intelligence effectively than the child who lacks self-confidence.

The child's learning ability is not predictable solely on the basis of their intelligence and rate of maturation. Every classroom teacher knows there are bright, fast-maturing children who become reading problems while less bright and slower maturing children do not. Although the explanation for some of these peculiarities may lie in instructional methods, more often it probably lies in the personality of the child. Through the process of socialization, the child builds up certain concepts about himself which have a definite affect upon the way in which he learns (52). Kvaracious and Grambs (43) have stated that a child with a negative self-concept will profit little from his formal school experiences.

The school helps in developing the self-concept by providing experiences in value choices for students. Personal identity is firmly established only when a child has a sense of what is right and wrong for him and feels that he is able to choose among alternatives. Much of the value confusion today has developed because the traditional institutions have lost some of their hold on people. As a result, satisfactory value commitments that people felt were the necessary foundation

for the development of self cannot be so easily made as they once could (87).

The school is limited in what it can do and should be expected to do about the situation. It cannot make up for all the weaknesses apparent in societal institutions. The school is no healer of familial differences, but through its curriculum and guidance program it can remain a definite source of help to youth in understanding their role in their present families and in those which they will establish later. Likewise, the school is not a religious institution, but it can have a spiritual function in a secular sense in stressing allegiance to principles and goals that are not entirely oriented to the good of only one person. Also, the school is far from being an employment agency or a job training institution, yet since one's identity has a great deal to do with his occupation, the school is obligated to help students to find a type of work that has personal meaning for them (87).

Providing a significant part of the students' environment, the school has the opportunity and the duty to assist in developing a positive self-identity. It should help people to know themselves and to develop healthy attitudes of self-acceptance (42).

#### The Teacher and Self-Concept

Given the basic assumption that self-concept and perception of school influence learning and behavior, teachers need to find ways to learn how their pupils see themselves in relation to school. With this knowledge, opportunities and experiences can be provided to enable children to modify negative concepts and to see themselves as worthwhile,

able people and the school as an exciting place for discovering new things about themselves and their world (28).

Educators must overcome the prevailing tendency to encourage the learner to understand everything except himself (42). Gordon (28, p. 119) says:

To aid a child to develop the best possible view of self (a view that will permit him to like and enjoy himself and his world and will enable him to seek more experience) the adults who surround the child need to provide him with (1) an interpersonal climate in which he perceives himself as loved, valued, accepted, and (2) an experimental climate in which there are many opportunities to explore, to 'poke around', to try and err without condemnation, to succeed, to feel safe. With such a background, the growing child can eagerly perceive that each day is a good one.

In any consideration of school learning, teachers are central because they make many crucial decisions that either block or help to realize the potentialities of children (2). Evidence suggests that whether a teacher likes having a given child in his class goes a long way in determining how the child perceives himself. Wise teachers probably attempt to conceal their likes and dislikes of individual children, but it is unlikely that a teacher will be able to conceal entirely how he feels about a child. There is always a certain amount of unintended communication which, while it may be extremely subtle, may be very powerful. This poses a very real and difficult problem for sensitive, informed, and conscientious teachers. The head says that it is important to be accepting of all the children in the class, but in the case of some children, the heart finds the task very difficult (56).

Studies show that the teacher's attitude is very important in the development of self-concept in students. Whitt (85) concludes that "Teacher attitudes toward pupil self-concept are related to pupil behavior, teacher fulfillment and student achievement." Manning (51) says,

"The attitude of the teacher toward children may be the determining factor in self-concept development." The attitudes of the teacher are formed out of his social background and personal history. These constitute the framework out of which he looks at the world and selects and arranges experiences for his students. The values, pressures, and conflicts of the culture become incorporated within the personality and influence daily reactions and decisions. The daily decisions are influenced by the emotional satisfactions which are found in relationships with colleagues, in family life, and in general adjustment to universal human problems (2).

Jersild (14, p. 17) in an article in the Journal of Experimental Psychology says:

Children change from the fairly easy acceptance of the teacher in the primary grades to a more differentiated view during the intermediate and later school years. They can define the behavior of teachers they like and dislike. They tend to like behavior that shows the teacher is interested in their growth, is impartial and fair, is warm and human, and is interested in her own appearance. They respond favorably to a democratic classroom and a group climate in which they feel they have a 'voice' in their own affairs.

Teaching has been described by Morse and Wingo (56) as the dynamic interplay between that which one is and the nature of his pupils. They further state that: just as teachers have certain characteristics which influence classroom interaction, so do the classes and the individuals which compose the classes. It is of fundamental importance for the teacher to give consideration to these varying characteristics. Leland Howe (38) in a recent article in the Phi Delta Kappan says that if one wants to help his students toward actualization of their full potential as human beings, then he must provide the opportunities, climate, and encouragement which children and adolescents need in order to safely

explore who they are, who they want to be, and what relation to the rest of mankind and the world of things they want to have.

Howe (38, p. 547) says that if a person is a productive contributor to society, he must develop a healthy self-concept, for people who believe in themselves and their ability to influence society and develop a stake in things. "They care; they become committed; they play for keeps, they attempt to make a difference." There is abundant research in literature to support this position. Numerous books and articles have been written admonishing the teacher to pay attention to the self-concept, to help children improve their self-image, and become self-directed persons and independent thinkers. Yet it remains for the classroom teacher to do the job, and most of the time with few or no guidelines.

A positive attitude toward the school specifically and education in general must precede any success in school work. The teacher who is cognizant of the significance of the child's attitude toward the school will attempt to make school experiences pleasant for each pupil. For example, Gnagey (27) says she will never threaten students. Threats only produce discomfort for students, leading to distraction and disruption in the classroom and, perhaps worst of all, a lowering of the students' estimation of the teacher's helpfulness and likability.

Gordon (28, p. 381) gives further insight into the use of such techniques:

If the adolescent perceives self as 'unable', the job of the adult professional becomes one of helping the youngster change this image to a more positive one. This is no easy task, but certain conclusions are obvious. Scolding, threatening, lecturing, creation of guilt, or increasing demands only make matters worse; these act as a threat to the youngster rather than as a help. To say 'You can do it

if you only try harder' is perceived not as encouragement, but as further evidence of need to defend one's integrity from adult pressures.

Probably the most frequently used means of restoring order to the classroom is reprimand (22). The teacher who realizes the importance of the student's attitude toward school will avoid the use of reproof or reprimand whenever possible as they generally create a negative feeling toward the teacher, the classroom, and eventually toward the school, itself. A severe reprimand may call attention to the unacceptable behavior of the student and continued practice may stereotype that student as a person who does not "fit" in the school environment and naturally, the student feels compelled to live up to his established image (34).

Of course, says Loree (46), the opposite principle is also true. The student who sees himself as a "good student" will work hard to protect this image. Henson (34, p. 253) concluded that:

Positive concepts of self and school complement each other. The student who views himself as a 'good student' is inclined to enjoy school and the student who finds schoolwork enjoyable is encouraged to try to succeed in school. Therefore, the foremost responsibility of every teacher is that of helping each student improve his image of himself and his school.

#### What Can Teachers Do?

Woolner (86) indicates that the critical time for teachers to assist in improving a child's self-concept is during the early childhood years. This is the child's first opportunity to learn about the outside world. He begins to learn how to get along with others outside his immediate family or neighborhood. During this time, no child must ever feel as though he were a nonlearner. He must know that he can



learn, that he is competent, and that he is adequate. Nonlearning during the child's developmental years is the most devastating experience he can have, it leads to frustration and hopelessness. The more positive the child's self-concept, the more secure he feels and the less dependent he will be on other people's direction and evaluation, whereas, a child with a poor self-concept will continue to depend on outside guidance to direct his life rather than on his own decisions.

The teacher must evaluate each child's sense of wholeness by becoming aware of individual strengths and sensitivities; only then can teaching be adjusted to fit the child. Once aware of students as individuals, the teacher must realize that each child must be at ease with himself before learning can take place. A positive self-concept will give the child strength to face the inner conflicts which all children experience from time to time. Children with healthy self-images do not feel frustrated, they feel certain that the world is a safe and orderly place in which to live and function. On their own levels, they become aware of personal strengths and weaknesses (86).

To help a child improve his self-concept, the teacher must create and encourage experiences that will help the child understand himself accurately. Woolner (86, p. 60) suggests the following as ways this can be done:

- Provide positive, constructive, specific information instead of generalization. 'Let's work harder to understand subtraction' is far better than 'You're poor in arithmetic'.

- Listen intelligently to each child; let him be a partner in determining his activities and work load.

- Give him opportunities to express himself through various media.

- Record and encourage him to record his own stories using words or pictures.

- Praise the child's achievements no matter how small they may be.

Trust him to take responsibility for certain jobs that match his capabilities.

Encourage him to contribute his knowledge to class and group discussions.

Respect his right to make and learn from mistakes.

Set realistic short- and long-term goals for him to reach.

Study his characteristics and behavior in relation to himself rather than to the entire group.

Avoid labeling the child.

Allow him to maintain his integrity.

Encourage his interests and assets.

Reward and reinforce positive behavior; ignore negative behavior as much as possible.

Teachers can do much to help children become effective learners and contented productive adults. If students are given accurate information so they can view themselves realistically, they will be able to assess themselves accurately in forming a positive self-concept. They will have the strength, courage, and self-knowledge to reach out for more experiences which can be incorporated into their existence (86).

Blackham (8) indicates that teachers should develop situations in which children may help each other. His study concluded:

Helping others provides the child with a valid basis for establishing relationships with classmates. The help he is able to give to others will also elevate the child's self-concept because it will demonstrate to him that he has attributes that are valued by his group (8, p. 157).

How can teachers help more students toward a more positive self-concept and help those with negative self-concepts to change? Hamachek (30, p. 19) says:

First we must understand that a positive sense of self is teachable. The question is not whether we approve of teaching for a positive sense of self, but whether the effects of our teaching are positive or negative.

In a study by Franco in 1971 (25), he concluded that teachers must be helped to understand that it is possible to teach a positive sense of self. That an individual's notions of self-concept are a function of

his experiences, and that teachers must be made aware that they are molding children's self-concepts.

Only recently have educators turned their attention to the problem of how to "improve" self-concept. In such projects as the Harvard Achievement Motivation Development Project, the Center for Humanistic Education at the University of Massachusetts, and the new experimental teacher education program at Southern Illinois University, the thrust has been toward improving self-concept. One objective of the program at Illinois has been to develop a meaningful theory as well as a set of procedures (teaching practices) which the classroom teacher at any level can use to help students clarify their goals, values, and beliefs and develop positive self-concepts which result in positive self-directed action (38).

Brookover and Patterson (12) claim that effective teaching is largely a product of deliberate, rational, and systematic decision making; that teachers may practice "deliberate manipulation" to consciously control things to influence pupils. They disagree with those who believe that teacher influence is entirely a matter of nondeliberate, unconscious, and uncontrolled behavior by the teacher. The following is an example of how they say teachers may manipulate:

. . . a textbook can be manipulated or controlled in a variety of ways by the teacher. He may use it to stimulate careful reading, for critical analysis, and for dealing with practical problems. Or he may be so noncommittal on how to use the book that most pupils may fail to read it. We believe that some influences of the teacher which are presently 'unconscious' can come under deliberate control as the means for effective application are identified. It is conceivable, for example, that new techniques in the management of textbooks -- techniques that some teachers may now be using, but with only a dim awareness of important controls involved -- may greatly increase their stimulus value for efficient learning (12, p. 27).

Hamacheck (30) presents some research based ideas and concepts which he feels can help a teacher guide his students toward healthier self-concepts and achievement levels commensurate with their abilities.

1. The use of praise and blame has different effects on different students (30, p. 19).

Praise generally has more positive influence than blame or reproof, but indiscriminate praise should be avoided. High self-concept students seem to work harder when challenged by a more critical approach to their work, while low self-concept students generally work harder when praised more frequently.

2. Students tend to perform at a level which is consistent with what they perceive as their teachers' expectations for them (30, p. 19).

Rosenthal and Jacobson (68) found that children from whom teachers had been led to expect greater intellectual gain showed a significantly greater gain in intelligence than did other children in the same school.

3. Students (like the rest of us) behave and perform in ways consistent with their self-concepts (30, p. 19).

There is a growing body of research which suggests that low academic achievement is related to a student's conception of himself as unable to learn.

4. Although it is not possible to say with precision which comes first, good school work or high self-esteem, it seems reasonable to suggest that each reinforces the other to the extent that a positive change in one facilitates a positive change in the other (30, p. 19).

Hamacheck (30, p. 19) concludes by saying:

If we, as teachers, are to facilitate learning and self-esteem through self-concept enhancement, we must --

1. Understand that we teach what we are, not just what we know.
2. Understand that anything we do or say could significantly change a student's attitude about himself for better or for worse. Furthermore, we must understand the implications of our roles as persons who are

important or 'significant' to students if we are to utilize that role properly.

3. Understand that students, like us, behave in terms of what seems to be true, which means that learning often is controlled, not by what the facts are, but by how they are perceived.

4. Be willing not just to teach subject matter, but to deal with what the subject matter means to different students. We must be as willing to deal with the interpretation of a subject as we are to deal with the information about it.

5. Understand that we are not likely to get results simply by telling someone he is worthy. Rather, we must imply it through trust and the establishment of an atmosphere of mutual respect. One good way to start is to take time to listen to what the students have to say and to use their ideas when possible.

6. Understand that teacher behavior which is distant, cold, and rejecting is far less likely to enhance self-concept, motivation, and learning than behavior which is warm, accepting and discriminating.

7. Be willing to be flexible, to be direct or indirect as the situation and personality of the student demands.

#### Educating to Make a Difference

Howe (38) says in the May, 1971 issue of the Phi Delta Kappan, that in educating to make a difference one must help students see beyond their "personal blinders", to see and explore new alternatives for behaving, new ways of relating and finding new meaning, and new modes for being and becoming. He indicates that teachers must provide students with opportunities and encouragement to fantasize, to verbalize about their fantasies, to write and talk about them, and to explore them in depth. Teachers must also provide opportunities which allow students to go beyond fantasy; to risk and actualize in games, through encounters, and playing for keeps. This type of behavior he says will make them stronger, more determined, and more zestful human beings. Teachers must help students collect and evaluate information about their effectiveness, and help them know their weaknesses as challenges to be taken

up with self confidence. This means, says Howe (38, p. 549):

. . . providing children and adolescents with opportunities to 'pretend', to game, to role play, to play at being different, to play at being more than what they are, and to extend themselves into new ways of doing, seeing, being, behaving, and becoming. It means creating and building games which are fun and nonthreatening but which challenge and give meaning to behavior, and which allow for alternative modes of expression and self-definition. It means following up these kinds of activities with a chance for players to see how they did by evaluating the consequences of their behavior.

Students must be allowed to go beyond fantasy and games to the real things. Students at all levels of schooling must be provided with real and meaningful opportunities to "try it out". Controlled situations in which students can realistically assess their aptitudes, interests, and skills must be constructed. "When we have done this, and done it skillfully, then and only then can we say that we are truly educating to make a difference" (38, p. 549).

Beniskos (4), in his article entitled "The Person Teacher", says that teaching is not just a matter of possessing skills. Skills are the things which are added to what the teacher already is as a person. He says:

This may well be the most important period in the history of education, for today we are being called on to communicate the fullness of our beings, the fullness of our persons to other individuals (4, p. 35).

Today a teacher needs to be able to relate to people, he cannot afford to shy away from being personally involved. It is time that teachers stand up not only to be counted but also to account.

#### What About the Self-Concept of a Teacher?

Beniskos (4, p. 35), in a discussion of teacher self-concept, lists four areas of concern:

1. "He should be aware of his greatness." This means that teachers must be aware that greatness applies to everyone and they must be respectful of the greatness of others. Only when, as people, one has respect and is not afraid, can he communicate. But if teachers do not feel that they are great and, consequently, that their students are great, then they cannot love them.

2. "He should be aware of his uniqueness." Beniskos (4, p. 35) says, "The most precious thing a teacher brings to his pupils when he walks into the classroom is himself." Teachers are persons, and this is what must be communicated to the children. Each teacher is unique, and each brings a unique message to each particular child. If one accepts this uniqueness, he allows the children to be individuals even though he makes them toe the line when necessary. One respects the fact that each child is also unique.

3. "He should be aware of his need to love and of his need to be loved." Teachers must realize that love relationships are what children need not only in the home but also in the school. Beniskos (4, p. 35) says that: "If we are unable or unwilling to love, we do not belong in the teaching profession." He sees his concept of the "person teacher" being supported by the conclusions of educational research. Pupils when questioned invariably describe the good teacher as someone who is human, friendly, humorous, and is interested in them. Research indicates that the good teacher is flexible, personalizes his teaching, and relates to his students. The good teacher feels adequate, wanted, worthy, and is able to identify with people. He feels positive

about others, even the administration, the establishment, and parents (4).

There is a fourth ingredient which is also important to the teacher's self-concept:

4. "He should be aware of the fact that he is limited." In order to maintain oneself as a good educator, he must develop fully as a person. Beniskos (4, p. 35) indicates:

We must love to live in order that we can live to love. We must learn to love in order that we can love to learn. We must view ourselves as persons. We must view the students as persons, and in terms of objectives, we must aim for the full personal development of each individual child. This is what children are coming to school for.

There is no one best kind of teacher or teaching, because there is no one best kind of student or best kind of learning. There are, however, better ways to teach, and perhaps teachers can do a better job in the classroom if they remember that the way a student performs and behaves in the classroom is an expression of both his concept of self and his unconscious drive to be consistent with that concept (30).

## Research Studies

### Accuracy of Self-Report

How much faith can be placed in children's reports about themselves (such as Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory)? Sears and Sherman (71) have been concerned with influences on the accuracy of such reports and have developed a model (Figure 1) which illustrates some of the possible influences on a child's self-concept and his



school achievement. It can be seen that a child's "Reported self-concept" is dependent upon several factors and also that there is a reciprocal relationship between his "Performance, Achievement", and his "Reported self-concept".

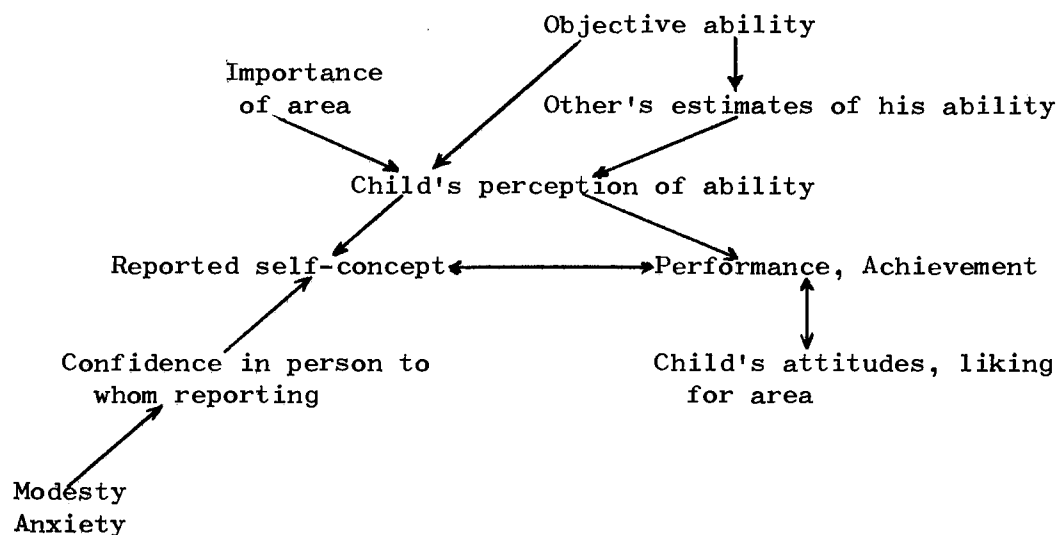


Figure 1. Factors Relating Children's Self-Concepts and School Achievements

Lipsitt (44), Bruce (13), and Horowitz (37) used instruments of self-report with children, and all found them to be reliable. They found that children would report on themselves consistently from time to time as long as the time gap was not too long.

Yeatts (88) found that children's self-reports were related to their actual performance and concluded that "If this is generally true, self-reports are fairly accurate." Although most research appears to

use verbal or written self-report type instruments, Combs and Soper (19), as well as a few others, have used an inference or behavior approach. They used trained observers to watch children in the classroom. Based on these observations, inferences were made about a child's perception of self.

Comparative studies seem to indicate that adults are not very accurate in ascertaining how children see themselves. There generally seems to be a large discrepancy between the adult view of the child and the child's report on himself (28). This appears to be an area for further research into why teachers perceive students differently than students perceive themselves.

Magnusson (49), in a Swedish study, found that self-rating was influenced by the school-class group, but also hypothesized that the critical factor was the teacher. A study by Gordon and Wood (29) of fifth and sixth grade children in Florida, showed that neither students nor teachers were very accurate in their predictions concerning pupil performance. Even though there was agreement between teacher and pupil on the nature of the error (when one overestimated, the other was likely to overestimate) very few predictions were accurate. They also suggested that children do a poorer job of estimating if they feel that some "threat" is present. This says something about the accuracy of self-reports under certain conditions.

It appears that self-reports are generally reliable or consistent, but how accurate they are in reporting exactly the way a child feels about himself, validity, may be dependent upon the situation in which the child is asked to make the report.

### Stability of Self-Concept

What does research say about the stability of the self-concept and when it is formed?

Gordon (28, p. 329) says:

Our position is that the self-concept in adolescence certainly reflects pubertal changes, but that it is a natural extension and further development of the self that began in very early childhood. Regardless of position, both the psychoanalytic and the transactional view recognize the importance and the centrality of this self-concept in adolescence.

Gordon's research indicates that the self-concept seems to be more or less established or stable in the late adolescent years. This stability is a tendency to stay the same and to be consistent in one's views over a period of time. A concept of self that is secure and adequate will allow the adolescent to modify his behavior on the basis of his evaluation of experiences, stability does not mean rigidity (28).

A psychoanalytic view of when the "self" begins is presented by Douvan and Adelson (21, p. 229):

For many of us, the self -- what we are now -- begins at puberty. Childhood (until and unless it is explored in psychotherapy) is felt to be prehistory, preidentity. The autobiographical fiction, the myth of the self in time, the narrative of what we were and then became are all, in some distinctive sense, dated from adolescence. We view childhood as a preparation. The true life, the true self, began when childhood was over, at 11, 12, 13.

They see adolescence as a period of great transition and say that successful adaptation "directly depends on the ability to integrate the future to their present life and current self-concept" (21, p. 229).

Gordon (28) also provides insight into the early development of the self-concept in school children. He sees perceptual-motor coordination as a key to adequacy in both school and peer tasks, recognizing both

cultures emphasize adequacy. He gives the example that: children who are not ready for the first grade, and experience failure in their efforts to read, may develop self-concepts about their ability to read that are detrimental to further growth.

This indicates that the development of positive concepts about self are vitally important, even at an early age. Gordon (28) also points to evidence which indicates that possession of an adequate concept of self in kindergarten is predictive of later success in reading. He indicates that statistics on children who experience reading difficulties clearly indicate the heavy preponderance of boys over girls. This seems to be consistent with maturational patterns, as girls generally develop perceptual-motor coordinations earlier and, therefore, have a chance to develop positive concepts relative to the development of certain skills earlier than do boys. These positive concepts may not always be evidenced by self-report, as Sears (70) found differences with respect to both levels of self-esteem and degree of differentiation between boys and girls. She found that the girl's self-reports on mental ability to be highly inaccurate and to be less differentiated than boys. Yeates (88) found that, as has so often been hypothesized or indicated, that girls view school more favorably than do boys (at least this is what they report); and white girls generally report the most positive attitudes of all groups surveyed.

Long and colleagues (45) used nonverbal self-report to investigate changes in self-concept in relation to other people. They concluded that children seem to increase in self-esteem in third and fourth grade with a slight decline thereafter. (Long indicated that the sample used was small and the results of the study were not conclusive). Beemer's

(3) study of "Developmental Change in the Self-Concepts of Children and Adolescents" did not support Long's work, as she found a direct relationship between change toward positive self-concepts and ascending grade level.

There seems to be increasing consistency to be found in self-report research that indicates that: "The older the preadolescent, the more integrated he has become and the more clearly he sees himself" (28, p. 265). This indicates that the child in the fifth or sixth grade may be capable of making the most accurate self-report.

#### Academic Achievement and Self-Concept

What relationships has research found between academic achievement and self-concept? Gordon (28) says that the way one views himself is a significant variable in his performance. Why some bright students do poorly in school is a matter of great concern, because teachers desire to help each child to achieve his maximum development. What makes gifted, underachieving adolescents perceive themselves differently than do their peers? These youngsters are often seen as hostile, unsocial, indifferent to responsibility, hard to reach, and most of them question their giftedness.

Taylor (80) found that, after reviewing thirty years of research on achievement, among other traits, overachievers had higher self-esteem than others. A problem which is basic to this kind of research is that educators are only discovering relationships between self-concept and performance, and these relationships are not indicative of cause. Gordon (28) indicates that all of the studies, especially of upper

elementary grade children, in which low achievement is accompanied by low self-concept, are of the relationship type.

Purkey (58) reviewed the literature on the self as related to academic achievement concentrating mainly on secondary school pupils, and concluded that there is a "strong" relationship between attitudes toward self and academic achievement. Again, these relationships cannot be verified as causal.

Brookover and his associates (12) investigated self-concept and its relationship to ability and achievement in school. They used grade point average as an index of academic achievement. They found that general self-concept and academic performance were positively and significantly related (+.57); and the relationship held even when "I.Q." was controlled. The writers suggest that self-concept is a key factor in role performance and that changes in self-concept should result in changes in performance.

Ryan (76), in a 1965 study entitled "An Investigation of the Interrelationships Among Global Self Concept, Role Self Concept and Achievement" found that student self-concept displayed a highly significant relationship to achievement (especially in boys). Reeder (65), in an early study (1955), concluded that children with low self-concept have (1) lower sociometric status, (2) achieve lower in comparison to their potential, and (3) are more frequently classified as having problem behavior than pupils with high self-concepts (middle grade children).

Lumpkin (47) in a study of fifth grade reading found that over-achievers revealed significantly more positive self-concepts, higher levels of adjustment, and saw themselves as liking reading. They were viewed positively by both teachers and peers. Underachievers made

significantly lower scores on measures of academic achievement, manifested a negative perception of self and a desire to be different from the self as perceived. Moore (55), in a 1971 study of fifth grade students, concluded that self-concepts do have a "significant influence" on achievement in mathematics. (Moore was incorrect to infer cause (influence) because her study used only correlational techniques.)

Since each of these studies are based on correlational relationships, one may not talk in terms of cause and effect. But one might speculate as to what role the school plays in stigmatizing pupils as slow learners or underachievers, and how such categorization may affect both performance and self-concept (80).

From studies of both high-achievers (overachievers) and underachievers, the pattern of the relationship between self-concept and achievement appears to be firmly established. There is relationship between positive self-concept and high achievement; negative self-concept and underachievement. The research has not indicated which is the cause and which is the effect. Perhaps there is a circular pattern which begins early with perceptions of experiences as "successes" or "failures" and these lead to the development of a self-concept which influences both the selection and evaluation of subsequent experiences (28).

Brookover (77) and his associates, after doing extensive research on self-image and achievement, concluded that ability may not be the most important factor in achievement, for pupil's attitudes seem to play a big part in limiting achievement in school. Other research by Fink (28), Bledsoe (79), Campbell (80), and Irwin (81) emphasized the relationship between self-concept and school success. Purkey (82) reviewed

these and similar studies and found that available evidence indicated a persistent relationship between perceptions of self and academic achievement. He further added that the influence of the school atmosphere on pupil's self-perceptions needed to be investigated in depth. He indicated that there was evidence that the typical school in the process of molding a child's behavior, increases his negative feelings about himself.

#### Changing the Self-Concept

Christopher Modu (54), in a study entitled "Affective Consequences of Cognitive Changes", says that by being responsive to subjective feelings of academic success or failure, self-esteem could be changed even in late adolescence by an appropriate manipulation of cognitive achievement. Evidence seems to be developing which supports the contention that self-concept can be manipulated. Since the mid-1950's, a number of sophisticated approaches to the study of pupil-teacher behavior in the classroom have been developed. These various approaches have been used to look at social and emotional, as well as cognitive, variables. Glidewell (26), in reviewing some of these studies under the heading of "teacher power", says that generally the teacher affects not only a wide range of immediate behavior, but also the moral and academic values of his pupils.

Long, Henderson, and Ziller (45), in investigating children's perception of self, indicate that children's attitudes can be modified by how one relates to them and teaches them, especially in the primary years.

Sears (69) studied the effects of failure in the classroom and



found that failure conditions decreased the realistic prediction of subsequent achievement; whereas, success conditions tended to increase it. Failure tended to impair children's effectiveness in judging realistically what their actual capabilities were; it also impaired the accuracy of self-image. Her study showed that even a minimal amount of failure experience contributed to such problems. Sears also investigated the influence of each child's success or failure (prior to the experiment), in arithmetic and reading, upon the accuracy of prediction of subsequent achievement. Success resulted in more realistic and accurate self-appraisal, and it also encouraged appropriate effort with accompanying improvement; whereas, failure had the opposite influence.

Hogan and Green (36) reported a study which involved a re-education program for teachers in which the major goal was to help teachers realize that their behavior greatly influenced student self-concept. The children in the large industrial city were generally from low-income families and it was felt that the teachers had low expectations of students, and their overt as well as covert negative attitude, plus rejection, could cause educational as well as psychological harm. Two week workshops were conducted in which teachers developed certain verbal and nonverbal responses and classroom practices to enhance student self-concept. The investigation was conducted to determine if the practices when used in the classroom would modify the self-concepts of "disadvantaged students".

The major purpose of this study was to determine whether teachers could be trained to incorporate appropriate behaviors into their teaching style that would serve to enhance the self-concepts of disadvantaged students (36, p. 423).

The findings indicated that the experimental group's influence decreased slightly and the control group's influence increased slightly.

Teachers of the experimental group were found to feel less positive about behavioral and conceptual changes in themselves as the project developed. One finding, which seems to be congruent with other studies, was that mean self-concept scores of students with male teachers approached statistical significance when compared with the scores of students with female teachers. (This may have been because male elementary teachers are generally found to play a significant role in the inner-city schools) (36).

The limitations of this study have major influence on the findings. The teachers had little follow-up instruction or assistance during the school year and also there was a wide range of student achievement and large class size. These factors may have served to mitigate the effectiveness of the postulated behavioral change (36).

The researchers concluded:

A two-week workshop designed to develop behavioral and perhaps conceptual changes in the affective domain is perhaps inadequate to inculcate the desired performance in educational personnel. It is therefore recommended that future in-service programs contain the following additional components:

1. Monthly follow-up sessions that would permit teachers to engage in dialogue regarding their new behaviors.
2. An in-service consultant who would be available when needed to assist and support teachers in maintaining their new behaviors.
3. Regular group counseling sessions that would permit teachers to explore the basis of their attitudes toward minority and poor children.
4. Involvement of administrative personnel in such workshops in order that positive behavior toward students may be extended throughout the educational environment (36, p. 423).

This study is indicative of the type of research that is being conducted concerning the modification of self-concept, more specifically, the promotion of positive feelings about self in students. There seems

to be much speculation about the possibility of teachers promoting positive self-concept in their students, but it appears that experimental studies have not been conducted to investigate this assertion.

### Summation, Rationale, and Hypothesis

This section identifies some of the major areas of agreement among research findings, summarizes the preceding four sections, and outlines the development of the rationale and hypothesis used for the present study.

The first section generally reviewed some of the terminology concerned with investigations of concepts of self and the theoretical development of these concepts. It appears that literature dealing with "self" terms has become more and more confused. Combs and Soper's (19) work regarding terminology was used as a basis for the examination of various terms in an effort to provide clarity and continuity and to illustrate the complexity of the identification of concepts to which terms must be applied.

Authorities seem to agree that the self is a complex, learned organization which is open to change and development through transactions with the environment. Those around children: parents, peers, and teachers, all play a vital role in "helping" or "causing" individuals to shape a concept of self. It is generally agreed that an adequate concept of self and a feeling of self-esteem, a positive self-concept, cannot be over emphasized. A person who has a positive view of self can make the most out of his experiences and will find life pleasant, happy, and rewarding. It is believed by some that the way an individual perceives himself is the most important factor in the entire

structure of personality. The degree of self-esteem appears to be of the utmost importance in determining how a person will behave under various circumstances, what his level of aspiration will be, and what happiness and contentment he will enjoy in life.

The second section considered the role of culture, society, and the school in the development of self-concept. It was found that what provides self-esteem may vary from one society to another. Maslow's hierarchy of needs was related to the ways in which culture determines how self-esteem may be expressed and the possibility of changing environmental factors to influence the self-concept. Parental attitudes and the attitudes of others with whom the child comes in contact, especially at school, were considered. The school was discussed as reflecting the attitudes and values of the nation and being the conservator of culture values, while serving as society's agent in passing these values on to the child. The child's self-concept, relative to various types of internal and external evaluation, and the part which successful experiences play in developing positive feelings about self were discussed. It was generally agreed that the development of positive feelings should be an educational goal just as much as the development of knowledge and skill.

What part does the teacher play in the development of a child's self-concept? Teachers were considered as being of the utmost importance in the development of self-concept because they make many crucial decisions which either block or help to realize the potentialities of children. It was indicated that a teacher's attitude may be the determining factor in the development of self-concept. The nature of a teacher's concept of self was discussed in relation to its formation.

and its effect on how the teacher teaches. Specific things which teachers do in the classroom which seem to foster positive as well as negative feelings about self were considered. The possibility of manipulating certain aspects of the school environment in an attempt to raise self-esteem was considered.

What the teacher should do or be to promote positive feelings about self was discussed and it was concluded that teachers should feel adequate, wanted, worthy, and able to identify with people. They should be friendly, flexible, and interested in students, but most of all should be aware of and admit limitations. There is no one best kind of teacher or teaching, but teachers must remember that the way a student performs and behaves in the classroom is an expression of both his concept of self and his unconscious drive to be consistent with that concept.

What does research say about various aspects of self-concept? Generally, research finds children's self-reports to be reliable, but how accurately they measure the child's feelings about self (validity) is questioned by some researchers. Adults seem to be inaccurate in their estimations of how children see themselves. Various influences on the self-report and its accuracy were considered by several studies.

The self-concept appears to be developing throughout life and is constantly undergoing change. It is generally agreed that major feelings about self become somewhat stabilized shortly before adolescence even though the development of positive concepts about self are vitally important even at an early age.

It has been found that the way one views one's self is a significant variable in one's academic performance. Those students who are high achievers score high on measures of self-esteem. Self-concept and

academic performance are usually found to be positively related and it is indicated that changes in self-concept should result in changes in performance.

Researchers theorize that feelings of self-esteem can be raised with various manipulations within the child's environment. Feelings of academic success (a part of the environment) on the part of a child appear to play an important part in the development of positive feelings about self. Failure in the classroom seems to have detrimental effects on a child's perception of himself and results in inaccurate predictions about future achievement.

Hogan and Green (36) reported a study in which a deliberate attempt was made to raise the self-concepts of students through the use of various behaviors by teachers. The study did not support the hypothesis that student self-concept would be raised. It was noted that only two weeks of training was provided for the teachers (of "disadvantaged students") and no follow-up training sessions were held. The researchers concluded that the preparation program for the teachers was inadequate and perhaps more extensive preparation of teachers would have resulted in improved self-concept in students.

Extensive research needs to be done to answer the many questions posed about how positive self-concepts can be promoted and what effects certain types of teacher behavior in the classroom has on students' concepts of self. How can a teacher's behavior in the classroom be modified or manipulated to produce feelings of self-esteem in students? Some authorities argue that a teacher's behavior cannot be successfully modified, that "we are what we are", while others feel that teacher behavior can be changed, at least over a short period of time.

It seems to be accepted that teacher behavior is an important influence in the development of self-perceptions in children, and certain types of behavior appears to have a positive affect on students. Do teachers who have positive feelings about themselves (positive self-concepts) influence the feelings of self-esteem of the students in their classrooms? Even though it is apparent that certain types of behavior by teachers seem to raise self-esteem in students, does the teacher who himself possesses a positive self-concept necessarily interact with his students in such a way as to promote positive feelings?

Previous materials have indicated that certain environmental factors (which were discussed in detail) foster positive feelings about self. It was also postulated that a person (teacher) who has a positive self-concept will reflect the qualities and attitudes that were instrumental in developing his positive self-concept in his interactions with students. These qualities and attitudes become a part of the environmental factors for his students as he manipulates, regulates, and provides stimuli. If this rationale is correct then it can be hypothesized that:

There is a significant correlation between the self-concepts of teachers and their students.

## CHAPTER III

### SUBJECTS, INSTRUMENTS, AND METHODS OF PROCEDURE

This chapter will consider the subjects investigated in the study, the two instruments used, the methods employed in collecting the data, the hypothesis and research questions, and the methods of analysis utilized in the investigation.

#### Subjects

The subjects investigated included a total of 31 fifth and sixth grade teachers and their students, numbering 734, in self-contained classrooms in the public schools of Wichita, Kansas. Permission was obtained from the Division of Research and Evaluation of the Wichita Public Schools to conduct the study in the spring of 1972 (April). The six schools used in the study were referred to as schools A, B, C, D, E, and F. The schools used were those in which principals and teachers had volunteered to participate in the investigation.

The schools were not located in any one particular area of town. One school was on the extreme south edge of the city, two schools were in the western portion, one was north of the downtown area and two were south of the downtown area, one being somewhat east and the other west.



## Instruments

The two instruments used in the study were the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) by William H. Fitts (1964) and the Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) by Stanley Coopersmith (1967).

### Tennessee Self Concept Scale

The TSCS is a one-hundred item self-description scale with a median completion time of thirteen minutes. The Scale has been shown to distinguish levels of personal effectiveness within the normal range as well as in deviancy. The Scale is composed of self-descriptive statements which the subject uses to portray his own picture of himself. It is self-administering for either individuals or groups and can be used for subjects who are twelve or older and have at least a sixth grade reading level.

The Scale is available in two forms, the Counseling Form and the Clinical and Research Form. Both forms use the same test booklet and test items; the latter is more complex in terms of scoring, analysis and interpretation, and is not appropriate for self interpretation by, or direct feedback to the subject. For the purposes of this investigation, the Clinical and Research Form was selected.

Four basic scores were derived from the test: Identity, Self Satisfaction, Behavior, and the Total. The Identity score refers to the "what I am" items. The individual is describing his basic identity; what he is as he sees himself. The Self Satisfaction score comes from those items where the individual describes how he feels about the self he perceives. This score reflects the level of self-satisfaction or

self-acceptance. The Behavior score comes from those items that say "this is what I do, or this is the way I act." It measures the individual's perception of his own behavior, or the way he functions. The Total score is the most important score on the Scale. It reflects an overall level of self-esteem. Persons with high scores tend to like themselves, feel that they are of value and worth, have confidence in themselves, and act accordingly. Those persons with low scores are doubtful about their own worth; see themselves as undesirable; often feel depressed, unhappy, and anxious; and have little faith or confidence in themselves.

The first three scores may vary considerably as a person may have very high scores on Identity and Behavior yet still score low on Self Satisfaction because of very high standards and expectations for himself. Or he may have a low opinion of himself, as indicated by the Identity and Behavior scores, yet still have a high Self Satisfaction score.

The sample on which the norms for the Scale were developed included people from various parts of the country with ages ranging from twelve to sixty-eight. There were approximately equal numbers of both sexes; both white and Negro subjects; representatives from all social, economic, and intellectual levels; and educational levels from sixth grade through the Ph. D. degree. The mean Total score of the sample on which the norms were developed was 345.57. The standard deviation was 30.70, and the scores ranged from 318 to 421.

Using test-retest methods, a reliability coefficient of .88 for the Total score has been established. Evidence of reliability is also found in the similarity of profile patterns found through repeated

measures of the same individuals over long periods of time.

The content validity of the instrument was established by using a panel of judges. An item was retained in the Scale only if there was unanimous agreement by the judges that it was classified correctly (was measuring what it was supposed to measure).

Extensive psychometric data: norms, reliability, intercorrelation of Scale scores, validity, and correlations with other measures such as the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, may be found in the Manual which accompanies the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965). It is published by Counselor Recordings and Tests, Nashville, Tennessee. (All of the above data discussing the TSCS was paraphrased from this Manual.)

#### Self-Esteem Inventory

The SEI, Form A, is a fifty-eight item inventory with five subscales: General Self, Social Self-peers, Home-parents, Lie Scale, and School-academic. The subscales were not used in this investigation. Form A provides a general assessment of self-esteem on a group basis with populations ranging from age nine to adult level. Coopersmith (20) reported that the mean score for preadolescents, ages nine through fifteen, was 70.1 for males and 72.2 for females (no significant differences), and the standard deviations were 13.8 and 12.8, respectively. This was for a group of 1,748 Connecticut children. In this sample, as in most, Coopersmith reports the curve was skewed toward the direction of high self-esteem. Test-retest reliability, after a three-year interval with a sample from the same population, was .70. A general description of the Inventory, instructions for scoring and interpreting, and a

copy of the Inventory with the appropriate responses marked are contained in Appendix A. Validating information is presented in Cooper-smith's monograph "The Antecedents of Self-Esteem" (Freeman, 1968).

For the purposes of this study, the form and content of the SEI were modified. See Appendix B for a copy of the Inventory score sheet with appropriate responses blackened, and the form used for gathering identification information as used in the study. The eight item Lie Scale was omitted leaving a possible fifty responses. The response items were reduced in size in order to be placed on one page and the responses were recorded on a separate page which also asked for identification information and gave instructions for making responses. These modifications were made to facilitate scoring and reduce the number of pages to one that had to be retained after testing (also the same response item sheets could be used repeatedly).

The total score for each student was the total number of "correct" responses (those indicative of high self-esteem) multiplied by two so that the maximum score was one-hundred.

#### Methods of Procedure

The 734 students and their 31 teachers were tested on four consecutive days in April, 1972. A carefully devised schedule which had been developed in conjunction with the principal and participating teachers was followed. The SEI was administered to each class individually. Each student was given the page which asked for identification information, and directions were given for completing the information as well as for marking the response items. When all students had completed the identification information, the investigator read aloud the items on the

inventory. Each item was read at least twice and individual questions regarding the meanings of words or items were answered. Students were asked to mark responses for all items.

The TSCS was administered to the teachers at the same time the students were being tested. They were given preliminary instructions on how to complete the Scale and the Identification Information (see Appendix C) and then were allowed to retire to another room.

Teachers were assured that their scores would be confidential and they were only identified by an assigned letter (A through EE). Students were identified by numbers assigned by the teachers. A student might have had a number like "H-16" which had no significance to the researcher, except that the student belonged to teacher "H".

In preparing the data for tabulation, the teachers were assigned consecutive numbers (1-31) to replace the letters. Each student was assigned a number (1-734); a certain group of numbers, e.g. (652-675) belonging to a certain teacher, e.g. (30). Scores on the TSCS and the SEI, as well as identifying information were punched on the appropriate cards.

The teachers' scores were divided into approximate thirds, with the top one-third identified as having a positive self-concept, the bottom one-third as having a negative self-concept, and the middle one-third as being neutral. This was done for each of the three separate scale scores, Identity, Self Satisfaction, Behavior, and the Total score on the TSCS. The cut-off scores established for each test and the frequencies for each are presented in Chapter IV.

The students' SEI scores were divided into approximate quartiles with the two middle quartiles being identified as having a neutral

concept of self. Those students with tied ranks falling on the upper twenty-fifth percentile, plus those above this point were considered as having a positive self-concept. Those with tied ranks falling on the lower twenty-fifth percentile, plus those below this point, were considered as having negative self-concepts. The cut-off points, frequencies, and percentages are presented in Chapter IV.

### Hypothesis

The hypothesis as stated in the null form for statistical testing was as follows:

There is no significant correlation between the self-concept of teachers and their students.

The hypothesis was tested by using chi-square to determine the significance of the differences among the groups involved. The null hypothesis for the contingency table was that there was no correlation and the variables were independent in the population in question.

Contingency tables were developed which compared the scores of students on the SEI with the teachers' Scale scores on the TSCS. Two chi-square calculations were made for each set of data. One calculation was made including the entire population, positive, neutral, and negative scores. (See Appendix D for BMD02S Computational Procedures.) The other calculation was made excluding the middle (neutral) groups where appropriate. Phi coefficients were determined for two-by-two contingency tables and contingency coefficients were calculated for each complex chi-square. (See Bruning and Kintz, Computational Handbook of Statistics, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1968, pages 207-213 for the procedures used for calculations which excluded the middle groups.)

If no significant chi-square values were found, the null hypothesis would be accepted and it would be concluded that there was no significant relationship between the self-concepts of the teachers involved and their students.

### Research Questions

The research questions and the methods of analysis for each question were considered separately. The computational procedures were the same as those used in testing the hypothesis. Phi coefficients and chi-square were calculated for those tables excluding the middle group and contingency coefficients and complex chi-square for those including the entire sample population. The frequencies were so small for research questions number eight, nine, ten, and eleven that only the BMD02S computer computations were used.

The contingency tables for each research question are presented below with the middle group (neutral) being included in each table. The same cut-off points were used for positive, neutral, and negative self-concept as were used in testing the hypothesis.

1. What relationships exist between Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) scores and grade of students?

The contingency table was as follows:

		STUDENTS'	
		GRADE	
		Fifth	Sixth
STUDENTS' <u>SEI</u> SCORES	Pos.		
	Neut.		
	Neg.		

2. What relationships exist between SEI scores and sex of students?

The contingency table was as follows:

STUDENTS' <u>SEI</u> SCORES		STUDENTS' SEX	
		Male	Female
	Pos.		
	Neut.		
	Neg.		

3. What relationships exist between SEI scores and student age?

The same basic statistical treatment was used as previously, but the contingency table was a three-by-four. The age groupings "nine" and "fourteen" were eliminated from the treatment because the frequencies were "one" and "two", respectively. The contingency table was as follows:

STUDENTS' <u>SEI</u> SCORES		STUDENTS' AGE			
		10	11	12	13
	Pos.				
	Neut.				
	Neg.				

4. What relationships exist between the SEI scores of students who have male teachers as compared with students who have female teachers?

The tests used to investigate these relationships were set up in two-by-three and three-by-three contingency tables. The students were separated by sex for the calculations. The tables were as follows:

FEMALE STUDENTS' <u>SEI</u> SCORES		TEACHERS' <u>TSCS-TOTAL</u>		
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.
	Pos.			
	Neut.			
	Neg.			





STUDENTS' <u>SEI</u> SCORES		TEACHERS' AGE			
		21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
	Pos.				
	Neut.				
	Neg.				

6. What relationships exist in the SEI scores of students who have teachers with variations in the number of years of experience?

As in question number five, several categories were collapsed. The contingency table was as follows:

STUDENTS' <u>SEI</u> SCORES		TEACHERS' EXPERIENCE			
		0-5	6-10	11-15	16-30
	Pos.				
	Neut.				
	Neg.				

7. What relationships exist in the SEI scores of students who have teachers with variations in educational attainment?

Several categories were collapsed to develop the following contingency table:

STUDENTS' <u>SEI</u> SCORES		TEACHERS' EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT			
		Bach. +15	Bach. +30& Mas.	Bach. +15& Mas.	Mas. Above
	Pos.				
	Neut.				
	Neg.				

8. What relationships exist between the teacher age and Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) scores?

The same collapsed categories were used as were used in question number five. The chi-square and contingency coefficient were calculated for each Scale score: Identity, Self Satisfaction, Behavior, and Total. The contingency tables were also of the same type as used in question

number five.

9. What relationships exist between teacher experience (number of years of teaching) and TSCS scores?

The same collapsed categories were used as were used in question number six. The chi-square and contingency coefficient were calculated for each Scale score, as in question number eight. The contingency tables were of the same type as used in question number six.

10. What relationships exist between teacher educational attainment and TSCS scores?

The collapsed categories used in question number seven were also used for this computation. The chi-square and contingency coefficient were calculated for each Scale score as in question number seven.

11. What relationships exist between teacher sex (male or female) and TSCS scores?

The calculations were made for each Scale score of the teachers. The contingency tables were as follows:

		TEACHERS'		
		<u>TSCS-IDENTITY</u>		
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.
TEACHERS'	Male			
	SEX			
	Female			

		TEACHERS'		
		<u>TSCS-SELF SATISFACTION</u>		
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.
TEACHERS'	Male			
	SEX			
	Female			

		TEACHERS'		
		<u>TSCS-BEHAVIOR</u>		
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.
TEACHERS'	Male			
	SEX			
	Female			

The results of each of these statistical calculations will be presented in Chapter IV with appropriate tables included for investigation of pertinent data.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter will present data regarding the subjects investigated, the statistical treatment of the hypothesis and each of the research questions. The contingency table, chi-square values for the data including the middle (neutral) group and excluding the middle group, and the contingency coefficient, or phi coefficient where appropriate, will be presented for each set of data used for calculations.

#### Subjects

The total school enrollment, grades one through six, and the number of teachers and students from the various grades participating from each school are shown in Table I (page 86).

#### Teachers

The teachers included in the study consisted of seventeen at the fifth grade level, eleven at the sixth grade level, and three that taught both fifth and sixth grade in the same classroom. Of the seventeen fifth grade teachers, three were male and fourteen were female. Of the eleven sixth grade teachers, nine were male and two were female. Of the three that taught both fifth and sixth grade, two were female and one was male. All of the teachers from each of the schools investigated

agreed to participate in the study. Some were unable to participate due to scheduling difficulties.

TABLE I  
PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS, THEIR ENROLLMENT, AND NUMBER AND LEVEL  
OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS PARTICIPATING

School	Total Enrol.	Teachers Participating Grade			Students Participating Grade		
		5	6	5-6	5	6	5-6
A	637	3	3	0	61	72	0
B	782	4	3	1	101	81	27
C	612	4	0	0	94	0	0
D	667	3	3	1	71	81	22
E	472	2	1	0	44	21	0
F	254	1	1	1	17	21	21
Totals	3424	17	11	3	388	276	70

The frequency of teachers in various age ranges were as follows:

<u>Age Range</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
21-25	3
26-30	5
31-35	2
36-40	4
41-45	5
46-50	5
51-55	4
56-60	3
61-65	0
	<u>31</u>

The number of years of educational experience of the teachers were as follows:

<u>Years of Experience</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
0-5	8
6-10	7
11-15	8
16-20	4
21-25	3
26-30	1
31-35	0
over 35	<u>0</u>
	31

The educational attainment, degrees plus hours, of the teachers were as follows:

<u>Educational Attainment</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
Bachelor's	9
Bachelor's plus 15	8
Bachelor's plus 30	2
Master's	7
Master's plus 15	3
Master's plus 30	2
Specialists	0
Specialists plus 15	0
Specialists plus 30	0
Doctor's	0
Post Doctor's	<u>0</u>
	31

The cut-off scores established for each test on the TSCS and the frequencies for each were as follows:

	Score Range (Inclusive)					
	Positive	F	Neutral	F	Negative	F
<u>Identity</u>	144-133	10	132-121	11	120-93	10
<u>Self-Satisfaction</u>	141-119	10	118-103	9	102-84	12
<u>Behavior</u>	138-125	10	124-112	12	111-88	9
<u>Total</u>	421-365	10	364-342	11	341-267	10

The Total scores ranged from a low of 267 to a high of 421 with the mean being 354.87 and a standard deviation of 37.18.

### Students

The following data pertains to the information gained about the 734 students who completed the Self-Esteem Inventory and filled out the information sheet properly. Those students who did not provide complete information on their data sheets were not used in the study.

The number of students tested in each classroom ranged from 17 to 28 with the mean number being 23.7. The ages of the students ranged from nine to fourteen with the frequency at each age as follows:

<u>Age</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
9	2*
10	219
11	345
12	151
13	16
14	1*
	<u>734</u>

\*These students were omitted from parts of the statistical treatment.

Three-hundred and sixty-nine of the students were male and 365 were female. The population was composed of Orientals, Spanish Americans, Negroes, and Caucasian students; the exact percentages of each were not



determined. No attempt was made to ascertain the type of economic background, social status, or academic success of the students involved.

The group mean of the students tested was 64.7. The class means ranged from a low of 55.9 to a high of 74.7. The standard deviation for the entire group was 12.5.

The cut-off points, frequencies, and percentages for student scores on the SEI were as follows:

	<u>Range (Inclusive)</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Positive self-concept	100-78	208	28.3
Neutral self-concept	76-54	337	45.9
Negative self-concept	52-08	189	25.7

#### Hypothesis

The hypothesis as stated in the null form for statistical testing was as follows:

There is no significant correlation between the self-concept of teachers and their students.

Chi-square calculations were made for each of the TSCS scores: Identity, Self Satisfaction, Behavior, and Total, compared with the SEI scores of the students. The following statistical data is presented showing the contingency tables for each comparison.

Identity-SEI

		STUDENTS'			
		<u>SEI</u>			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS'	Pos.	39	87	63	189
<u>TSCS</u>	Neut.	84	126	126	336
<u>IDENTITY</u>	Neg.	56	67	86	209
		179	280	275	734
Chi-square	8.4061	(9.5 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	4				
Contingency Coefficient	0.1064				

The chi-square value with four degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

Excluding the "neutral" groups, with one degree of freedom the phi coefficient was .02 and the chi-square value was .09. A value of 3.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level.

Self Satisfaction-SEI

		STUDENTS'			
		<u>SEI</u>			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS'	Pos.	63	59	67	189
<u>TSCS</u>	Neut.	125	98	113	336
<u>SELF SATIS.</u>	Neg.	63	77	69	209
		251	234	249	734
Chi-square	4.5380	(9.5 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	4				
Contingency Coefficient	0.0784				

The chi-square value with four degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

Excluding the "neutral" groups, with one degree of freedom, the phi coefficient was .02 and the chi-square value was .06. A value of 3.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level.

Behavior-SEI

		STUDENTS'			
		<u>SEI</u>			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
<u>TEACHERS'</u>	Pos.	55	78	56	189
<u>TSCS</u>	Neut.	99	128	109	336
<u>BEHAVIOR</u>	Neg.	53	67	89	209
		207	273	254	734
Chi-square	8.8947	(9.5 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	4				
Contingency Coefficient	0.1094				

The chi-square value with four degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

Excluding the "neutral" groups, with one degree of freedom, the phi coefficient was .12 and the chi-square value was 3.83. A value of 3.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level. This significant chi-square value indicates that the frequencies were different than may have occurred by chance and the phi value was different than zero. There was a significant correlation between the Behavior TSCS scores of the teachers and the SEI scores of the students involved.

Total-SEI

		STUDENTS'			
		<u>SEI</u>			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS'	Pos.	61	71	57	189
<u>TSCS</u>	Neut.	102	126	108	336
<u>TOTAL</u>	Neg.	65	62	82	209
		228	259	247	734
Chi-square	5.6081	(9.5 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	4				
Contingency Coefficient	0.0871				

The chi-square value with four degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

Excluding the "neutral" groups, with one degree of freedom, the phi coefficient was .07 and the chi-square value was 1.48. A value of 3.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level.

#### Research Questions

1. What relationships exist between Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) scores and grade of students?

A two by three contingency table was established and the chi-square and contingency coefficient were calculated:

<u>STUDENTS'</u> <u>SEI</u> <u>SCORES</u>		<u>STUDENTS'</u> <u>GRADE</u>		
			Fifth	Sixth
		Pos.	115	74
Neut.	191	145	336	
Neg.	116	93	209	
		422	312	734
Chi-square	1.2662	(6.0 = significance)		
Degrees of Freedom	2			
Contingency Coefficient	0.0415			

The chi-square value with two degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

Excluding those students with a "neutral" SEI score, with one degree of freedom, the phi coefficient was .05 and the chi-square value was 1.16. A value of 3.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level.

2. What relationships exist between SEI scores and sex of students?

A two-by-three contingency table was established and the chi-square and contingency coefficient were calculated:

<u>STUDENTS'</u> <u>SEI</u> <u>SCORES</u>		<u>STUDENTS'</u> <u>SEX</u>		
			Male	Female
		Pos.	83	106
Neut.	178	158	336	
Neg.	108	101	209	
		369	365	734
Chi-square	4.2020	(6.0 = significance)		
Degrees of Freedom	2			
Contingency Coefficient	0.0754			

The chi-square value with two degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

Excluding those students with a "neutral" SEI score, with one degree of freedom, the phi coefficient was .08 and the chi-square value was 2.39. A value of 3.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level.

### 3. What relationships exist between SEI scores and student age?

A four-by-three contingency table was established and the chi-square and contingency coefficient were calculated:

<u>STUDENTS'</u> <u>SEI</u> <u>SCORES</u>		<u>STUDENTS'</u> <u>AGE*</u>				
		10	11	12	13	
<u>Pos.</u>		65	83	35	5	188
	<u>Neut.</u>	98	161	67	8	334
	<u>Neg.</u>	56	102	48	3	209
		219	346	150	16	731
Chi-square	4.4028	(12.6 = significance)				
Degrees of Freedom	6					
Contingency Coefficient	0.0754					

\*Nine year olds (1) and fourteen year olds (2) were omitted from the statistical treatment.

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

When those students with "neutral" SEI scores were eliminated from the data, with three degrees of freedom, the contingency coefficient was

.01 and the chi-square value was 4.01. A value of 7.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level.

4. What relationships exist between the SEI scores of students who have male teachers as compared with students who have female teachers?

The students SEI scores were separated into male and female groups and the following statistical comparisons were made: SEI scores of female students compared with the teachers' Total TSCS scores, SEI scores of female students compared with the teachers' sex (male or female), SEI scores of male students compared with the teachers' Total TSCS scores, and the SEI scores of male students compared with the teachers' sex (male or female).

Contingency tables were established and chi-square and the contingency coefficient were calculated for each comparison:

		TEACHERS' <u>TSCS-TOTAL</u>			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
<u>FEMALE</u> <u>STUDENTS'</u> <u>SEI SCORES</u>	Pos.	38	41	27	106
	Neut.	46	54	58	158
	Neg.	29	30	42	101
		113	125	127	365
Chi-square	6.5266	(9.5 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	4				
Contingency Coefficient	0.1325				

The chi-square value with four degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

Excluding the "neutral" groups, with one degree of freedom, the phi coefficient was .18 and the chi-square value was 4.21. A value of 3.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level. The

significant chi-square value indicates that the frequencies were different than may have occurred by chance and the phi value was different than zero. There was a significant correlation between the Total TSCS scores of the teachers and the SEI scores of the female students involved.

		TEACHERS' SEX		
		Male	Female	
FEMALE STUDENTS' <u>SEI</u> SCORES	Pos.	42	64	106
	Neut.	69	89	158
	Neg.	37	64	101
		148	217	365
Chi-square	1.3187	(6.0 = significance)		
Degrees of Freedom	2			
Contingency Coefficient	0.0600			

The chi-square value with two degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

Excluding the "neutral" group of the female scores, with one degree of freedom, the phi coefficient was .03 and the chi-square value was .17. A value of 3.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level.

		TEACHERS' <u>TSCS-TOTAL</u>			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
MALE STUDENTS' <u>SEI</u> SCORES	Pos.	23	30	30	83
	Neut.	56	72	50	178
	Neg.	36	32	40	108
		115	134	120	369
Chi-square	4.7405	(9.5 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	4				
Contingency Coefficient	0.1126				



The chi-square value with four degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

Excluding the "neutral" groups, with one degree of freedom, the phi coefficient was .04 and the chi-square value was .19. A value of 3.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level.

		TEACHERS' SEX		
		Male	Female	
MALE STUDENTS' <u>SEI SCORES</u>	Pos.	29	54	83
	Neut.	84	94	178
	Neg.	51	57	108
		164	205	369
Chi-square	3.9180	(6.0 = significance)		
Degrees of Freedom	2			
Contingency Coefficient	0.1025			

The chi-square value with two degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

Excluding the "neutral" group of the male scores, with one degree of freedom, the phi coefficient was .12 and the chi-square value was 2.90. A value of 3.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level.

5. What relationships exist in the SEI scores of students who have teachers of various ages?

A three-by-four contingency table was established and the chi-square and contingency coefficient were calculated:

		TEACHERS' AGE				
		21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	
<u>STUDENTS' SEI SCORES</u>	Pos.	51	34	68	36	189
	Neut.	90	57	120	69	336
	Neg.	49	41	67	52	209
		190	132	255	157	734
Chi-square	3,5764	(12.6 = significance)				
Degrees of Freedom	6					
Contingency Coefficient	0.0696					

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

Excluding the "neutral" group of the students' scores, with three degrees of freedom, the contingency coefficient was .08 and the chi-square value was 2.61. A value of 7.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level.

6. What relationships exist in the SEI scores of students who have teachers with variations in the number of years of experience?

A three-by-four contingency table was established and the chi-square and contingency coefficient were calculated:

		TEACHERS' EXPERIENCE				
		0-5	6-10	11-15	16-30	
<u>STUDENTS' SEI SCORES</u>	Pos.	48	53	45	43	189
	Neut.	94	76	81	85	336
	Neg.	56	30	51	72	209
		198	159	177	200	734
Chi-square	15.0126	(12.6 = significance)				
Degrees of Freedom	6					
Contingency Coefficient	0.1416					

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 confidence level. This indicates that the frequencies in the cells were different than might have been expected to occur by chance. Inspection of the contingency table seems to indicate that those teachers with 16-30 years of experience had a larger number of students with negative SEI scores than teachers with lesser years of experience. The contingency coefficient does not indicate any "strong" correlations.

Excluding the students with "neutral" scores, with three degrees of freedom, the contingency coefficient was .15 and the chi-square value was 8.98. A value of 7.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level. The significant chi-square value indicates that the frequencies were different than may have occurred by chance and the contingency coefficient value was significantly different than zero. There was a significant correlation between the SEI scores of the students and the experience of the teachers involved in the study.

7. What relationships exist in the SEI scores of students who have teachers with variations in educational attainment?

A three-by-four contingency table was established and the chi-square and contingency coefficient were calculated:

		TEACHERS' EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT				
		Bach.	Bach. +15	Bach. +30& Mas.	Mas. +15& Above	
<u>STUDENTS' SEI SCORES</u>	Pos.	56	53	54	26	189
	Neut.	98	77	97	64	336
	Neg.	57	65	57	30	209
		211	195	208	120	734
Chi-square	6.5897	(12.6 = significance)				
Degrees of Freedom	6					
Contingency Coefficient	0.0943					

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

Excluding the students with "neutral" scores, with three degrees of freedom, the contingency coefficient was .04 and the chi-square value was .60. A value of 7.8 is necessary to be significant at the .05 confidence level.

8. What relationships exist between teacher age and Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) scores?

Chi-squares and contingency coefficients were calculated for each Scale score: Identity, Self Satisfaction, Behavior, and Total. The contingency tables and other data were as follows:

		Pos.	TEACHERS'		
			<u>TSCS-IDENTITY</u>		
			Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS' AGE	21-30	0	6	2	8
	31-40	3	2	1	6
	41-50	3	2	5	10
	51-60	2	2	3	7
		8	12	11	31
Chi-square	8.9186	(12.6 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	6				
Contingency Coefficient	0.4727				

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

		TEACHERS'			
		<u>TSCS-SELF SATISFACTION</u>			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS'	21-30	2	2	4	8
AGE	31-40	3	2	1	6
	41-50	4	4	2	10
	51-60	2	2	3	7
		11	10	10	31
Chi-square	3.0463	(12.6 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	6				
Contingency Coefficient	0.2991				

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

		TEACHERS'			
		<u>TSCS-BEHAVIOR</u>			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS'	21-30	1	4	3	8
AGE	31-40	3	3	0	6
	41-50	3	3	4	10
	51-60	2	2	3	7
		9	12	10	31
Chi-square	4.9415	(12.6 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	6				
Contingency Coefficient	0.3708				

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

		TEACHERS' TSCS-TOTAL			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS' AGE	21-30	1	3	4	8
	31-40	3	3	0	6
	41-50	4	3	3	10
	51-60	2	2	3	7
		10	11	10	31

Chi-square 5.2891 (12.6 = significance)

Degrees of Freedom 6

Contingency Coefficient 0.3818

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

9. What relationships exist between teacher experience (number of years of teaching) and TSCS scores?

Chi-square and contingency coefficients were calculated for each Scale score: Identity, Self Satisfaction, Behavior, and Total. The contingency tables and other data were as follows:

		TEACHERS' TSCS-IDENTITY			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS' EXPERIENCE	0-5	1	4	3	8
	6-10	1	2	4	7
	11-15	4	4	0	8
	16-30	2	2	4	8
		8	12	11	31

Chi-square 8.0750 (12.6 = significance)

Degrees of Freedom 6

Contingency Coefficient 0.4546

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences

among the variables as considered.

		TEACHERS' TSCS-SELF SATISFACTION			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS' EXPERIENCE	0-5	4	1	3	8
	6-10	1	3	3	7
	11-15	4	3	1	8
	16-30	2	3	3	8
		11	10	10	31
Chi-square	4.7808	(12.6 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	6				
Contingency Coefficient	0.3655				

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

		TEACHERS' TSCS-BEHAVIOR			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS' EXPERIENCE	0-5	2	3	3	8
	6-10	2	3	2	7
	11-15	2	5	1	8
	16-30	3	1	4	8
		9	12	10	31
Chi-square	4.7576	(12.6 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	6				
Contingency Coefficient	0.3648				

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

		Pos.	TEACHERS' TSCS-TOTAL		
			Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS' EXPERIENCE	0-5	2	3	3	8
	6-10	1	3	3	7
	11-15	4	4	0	8
	16-30	3	1	4	8
		10	11	10	31

Chi-square                    7.1360                    (12.6 = significance)  
 Degrees of Freedom                    6  
 Contingency Coefficient                    0.4326

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

10. What relationships exist between teacher educational attainment and TSCS scores?

Chi-square and contingency coefficients were calculated for each Scale score: Identity, Self Satisfaction, Behavior, and Total. The contingency tables and other data were as follows:

		Pos.	TEACHERS' TSCS-IDENTITY		
			Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS' EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT	Bach.	2	3	4	9
	Bach. + 15	2	4	2	8
	Bach. + 30 & Master's	0	5	4	9
	Mas. + 15 & Above	4	0	1	5
		8	12	11	31

Chi-square                    11.9786                    (12.6 = significance)  
 Degrees of Freedom                    6  
 Contingency Coefficient                    0.5279

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.



		TEACHERS'			
		<u>TSCS--SELF SATISFACTION</u>			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS' EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT	Bach.	5	1	3	9
	Bach. + 15	2	3	3	8
	Bach. + 30 & Master's	1	5	3	9
	Mas. + 15 & Above	3	1	1	5
		11	10	10	31

Chi-square                      6.9938                      (12.6 = significance)  
 Degrees of Freedom                      6  
 Contingency Coefficient                      0.4290

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

		TEACHERS'			
		<u>TSCS-BEHAVIOR</u>			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS' EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT	Bach.	2	4	3	9
	Bach. + 15	1	3	4	8
	Bach. + 30 & Master's	3	4	2	9
	Mas. + 15 & Above	3	1	1	5
		9	12	10	31

Chi-square                      4.5117                      (12.6 = significance)  
 Degrees of Freedom                      6  
 Contingency Coefficient                      0.3564

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

		Pos.	TEACHERS' TSCS-TOTAL		
			Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS' EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT	Bach,	3	3	3	9
	Bach. + 15	3	2	3	8
	Bach. + 30 & Master's	1	5	3	9
	Mas. + 15 & Above	3	1	1	5
		10	11	10	31

Chi-square                    4.4386                    (12.6 = significance)  
 Degrees of Freedom                    6  
 Contingency Coefficient                    0.3539

The chi-square value with six degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

11. What relationships exist between teacher sex (male or female) and TSCS scores?

Chi-square and contingency coefficients were calculated for each Scale score: Identity, Self Satisfaction, Behavior, and Total. The contingency tables and other data were as follows:

		Pos.	TEACHERS' TSCS- IDENTITY		
			Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS' SEX	Male	5	5	3	13
	Female	4	7	7	18
		9	12	10	31

Chi-square                    1.2711                    (6.0 = significance)  
 Degrees of Freedom                    2  
 Contingency Coefficient                    0.1985

The chi-square value with two degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

		TEACHERS'			
		<u>TSCS-SELF SATISFACTION</u>			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS'	Male	4	5	4	13
SEX	Female	4	7	7	18
		8	12	11	31
Chi-square	0.3543	(6.0 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	2				
Contingency Coefficient	0.1063				

The chi-square value with two degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

		TEACHERS'			
		<u>TSCS-BEHAVIOR</u>			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS'	Male	5	3	5	13
SEX	Female	6	7	5	18
		11	10	10	31
Chi-square	0.9081	(6.0 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	2				
Contingency Coefficient	0.1687				

The chi-square value with two degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

		TEACHERS'			
		<u>TSCS-TOTAL</u>			
		Pos.	Neut.	Neg.	
TEACHERS'	Male	5	4	4	13
SEX	Female	5	7	6	18
		10	11	10	31
Chi-square	0.4227	(6.0 = significance)			
Degrees of Freedom	2				
Contingency Coefficient	0.1160				

The chi-square value with two degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 confidence level, indicating no significant differences among the variables as considered.

Chapter V will consider the findings related to the hypothesis and research questions, will summarize the study, will present conclusions derived from the data, and will make recommendations based upon the findings of the investigation.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purposes of this chapter were to summarize the investigation, report the conclusions drawn from the study, and to make recommendations on the basis of the study's findings.

#### Summary

##### Chapter I

Chapter I introduced and stated the problem, discussed purposes for conducting the study, presented the rationale leading to the hypothesis, and presented eleven research questions to be investigated. Assumptions and limitations were presented, terminology was defined for purposes of clarity and understanding, and the organization of the study was outlined.

It was found that the development of positive self-image in students was number one on a list of the "Ten Most Critical Needs of Education in Kansas . . . ." Various researchers indicated that the attitudes or feelings one has about himself are very important to personal satisfaction as well as mental health. They also indicated that educators must realize that the possession of an adequate self-concept is prerequisite to learning. It has been found that students who feel good about themselves are most likely to succeed, and those who see themselves in a negative fashion usually fail to achieve. Teachers must

provide situations and experiences which provide opportunities for success, which allow a child to develop feelings of self-esteem.

Society appears to be very much concerned about student unrest, the drop-out rate, and what some feel is a general lowering of academic standards and performance in today's schools. Some say there is a general crisis of confidence in education. If it is the purpose of today's schools to raise the present levels of achievement in students, then new ways of promoting achievement must be considered. It has been demonstrated that there is a positive relationship between feelings of self-worth and academic success. Perhaps schools can discover ways of promoting positive feelings about self in students in an effort to raise academic performance.

The purpose of this study was to investigate one aspect of the child's school environment, the teacher. Relationships between teachers' feelings about self and students' feelings about self were investigated. Correlational studies may indicate areas in which measures of relationship are too great to have occurred by chance and may indicate the need for experimental studies to investigate causal relationships in the school environment,

The hypothesis as tested in the study was as follows:

There is no significant correlation between the self-concept of teachers and their students.

This hypothesis was developed from the basic rationale that a person's self-concept is the result of his experience with his environment, especially certain persons or groups of persons. These persons impose certain conditions upon the individual and in turn he reacts to the conditions. If the person does not feel threatened and basically

feels successful in his endeavors, he tends to feel positive about himself. If he feels threatened and not successful, he tends to have negative feelings about himself.

If the teacher who has a positive self-concept exhibits the same type of behaviors and attitudes as influenced the development of his self-concept, it follows that he will provide situations and experiences in the classroom which are not threatening and are conducive to feelings of success and positive concepts about self. If this relationship exists, significant correlations should be found between the self-concepts of teachers and their students.

Eleven research questions were posed to investigate various demographic variables related to self-concept of both students and teachers. Several of these questions were investigated for the school system involved, others have typically been investigated in other research, and some were developed to gather data which might lead to further study.

## Chapter II

Chapter II reviewed literature related to the self-concept. Five sections were developed: theoretical background, development of the self-concept relative to the socialization process in general and the school environment in particular, the teacher's influence in the development of the child's self-concept, selected studies of self-concept, and the summarization of materials in developing a rationale for the study.

It was indicated that the terminology used in literature concerned with "self" has become very confused. Combs and Soper's (19) article was reviewed in an effort to arrive at terms which are consistent with

a "self" framework of reference and to provide clarity and continuity to the review. Some of the terminology discussed or defined included: "self", "real self", "concepts of self", "the self-concept", "inferential nature of self", "self report", "the self-ideal", "self-acceptance", "self-adequacy", "non-threatened personality", and "the self-system".

Each individual develops a psychological identity by which he experiences himself as "me". This identity is an integrated picture of "who" and "what" he is and develops as he experiences his surroundings. The development begins when an infant has his first awareness of his surroundings, continues to change and develop throughout his life, but becomes relatively stable in early adolescence. Whether the concept which develops is good or bad depends on the experiences which a child has as he progresses through various stages of maturation and interrelates with his social and psychological environment.

A person's self-concept, and its nature, cannot be seen directly; its existence is inferred from certain manifestations or patterns of behavior. Generally the self-concept is considered to be what an individual says he is on some type of scale, in an interview, or in response to some type of open-ended questionnaire. Watson (82) concluded that the self-concept included the child's (1) real characteristics; (2) description by adults; (3) comparisons with others; and (4) inner pressures. It was indicated that parental attitudes are very important in the development of self-concept, as are peer group pressures. The factors which are of importance in the development of positive or negative concepts of self, as well as the characteristics of the person who possesses such, were discussed at length.



It was noted that a person's conception of himself develops to a degree from his experiences in meeting cultural and societal demands. The relationships between culture and personality are very profound and complex. The paths by which the main goals in one's life are accomplished are often determined by the nature of culture, as are the ways in which self-esteem may be expressed or achieved. The school generally reflects the attitudes and values of society and most children generally learn to behave and view themselves in the way in which the school expects. Various writers indicate that the role of the school in the development and change of self-concept is enormous as it dispenses praise, reproof, acceptance, and rejection on a colossal scale. When the school performs its proper functions, it helps students in the understanding of self and in the resolving of identity conflicts and crises. Research is showing that the way a student performs depends not only on how intelligent he actually is, but also on how intelligent he thinks he is. Each person lives in a manner that is as consistent as possible with his self-concept, he "acts like" the sort of person he conceives himself to be.

Teachers are central to a child's school environment; they make many crucial decisions that either block or help children to realize their potentialities. Studies show that the teacher's attitude is very important in the development of self-concept in students. Several researchers conclude that teachers must be helped to understand that what they do in the classroom is very important in the formation of a child's self-concept, and that it is possible to teach a positive sense of self. Some claim that teachers may practice "deliberate manipulation" to consciously control things to influence self-concept in students. It was

stated that there is no one best kind of teacher or teaching, because there is no one best kind of student or best kind of learning. But there are better ways to teach, and perhaps teachers can do a better job in the classroom if they remember that the way a student performs and behaves in the classroom is an expression of both his concept of self and his unconscious drive to be consistent with that concept. It was generally agreed that the development of positive feelings should be an educational goal just as much as the development of knowledge and skill.

The accuracy of self-report instruments such as the Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) was discussed and it was generally concluded that self-reports are generally reliable, but the validity may be dependent upon the situation in which the child is asked to make the report. It was reported that even though the self-concept, as described by some self-report technique, continues to change and develop throughout life, there is increasing evidence that indicates that the older the preadolescent the more integrated he has become and the more clearly he sees himself. This indicates that the child in the fifth or sixth grade may be capable of making the most accurate self-report.

Thirty years of research on achievement in schools indicated that overachievers had higher self-esteem than others. Whether achievement is a function of self-esteem or self-esteem a function of achievement has not been defined by experimental study. Recent studies also indicate strong correlation between academic performance and self-concept. Writers suggest that self-concept is a key factor in role performance and that changes in self-concept should result in changes in performance. Researchers speculate as to the role the school plays in

stigmatizing pupils as slow learners or underachievers, and how such categorization may affect both performance and self-concept.

Considerable evidence seems to be developing which supports the contention that self-concept can be manipulated. In one study in which teachers were re-educated to help them realize that their behavior greatly influenced student self-concept, it was found that self-concept scores were not raised significantly. But the researchers concluded that the initial training program as well as the follow-up procedures were inadequate and that improved student self-concept scores could not be expected. This was the only study which the researcher found which did not support the contention that school or classroom environment can be modified to promote positive self-concept in students. Studies of this type generally support the hypothesis that self-esteem can be manipulated by executing certain planned methods and procedures in the classroom.

It appears to be accepted that teacher behavior is an important influence in the development of self-perceptions in children, and certain types of behavior seem to have a positive affect on students. The question which was posed for study sought to investigate the relationship between the self-concept of the teacher and the feelings of self-esteem of their students. Even though it is apparent that certain types of behavior by teachers seem to raise self-esteem in students, does the teacher who possesses positive feelings about himself necessarily interact with his students in such a way as to promote positive feelings? The answer to this question is beyond the scope of this study, as the researcher only sought to identify correlations between teacher and student self-concept.

### Chapter III

Chapter III considered the subjects and schools investigated in the study, the instruments used, the methods employed in collecting the data, the hypothesis and research questions, and the methods of analysis used in the investigation.

The subjects were 734 fifth and sixth grade students and their teachers from six public schools of Wichita, Kansas.

The instrumentation consisted of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS), for teachers; and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI), for students. Four basic scores derived from the TSCS, and the total score from the SEI were used for statistical comparison. Several minor modifications were made in the SEI. The relationships between scores as well as between scores and demographic data were studied.

The hypothesis was tested using chi-square techniques to see if frequencies were significantly different than might be expected by chance. Contingency or phi coefficients were calculated for contingency tables to assess the strength of any relationships found. This same basic treatment was used in testing the null hypothesis as well as investigating each of the eleven research questions posed.

The teachers' scores on each scale of the TSCS were divided into three categories with the upper third identified as possessing a positive self-concept, the middle third being neutral, and the bottom third as possessing a negative self-concept. The students' scores on the SEI were also divided into three categories with the upper and lower quartiles being identified as positive and negative self-concept, respectively, and the middle group being neutral. Statistical computations

were made using the entire sample population, and also excluding the middle (neutral) groups.

The hypothesis investigated the relationship between the measured self-concept of teachers and their students. The research questions investigated: student self-esteem and grade level, student self-esteem and sex, student self-esteem and age, student self-esteem (boys as a group, girls as a group, and both boys and girls as a group) and teacher sex, student self-esteem and teacher age, student self-esteem and teacher experience, student self-esteem and educational attainment of teacher, teacher age and the various TSCS scores, teacher experience and the various TSCS scores, teacher educational attainment and the various TSCS scores, and teacher sex and the various TSCS scores.

#### Chapter IV

Chapter IV presented data regarding the subjects investigated, and the statistical treatment of the hypothesis and each of the research questions.

Subjects. Various types of demographic data including sex, age, years of experience, and educational attainment were presented for the teachers involved in the study. Student age, grade, and sex were also tabulated and presented. Data regarding number and level of students and teachers from each school, and cut-off scores and frequencies for students and teachers on each instrument were also presented.

Hypothesis. The hypothesis as stated in the null form for statistical testing was as follows:

There is no significant correlation between the self-concept of teachers and their students.

Chi-square calculations were made for each of the TSCS scores: Identity, Self Satisfaction, Behavior, and Total. Each of these were compared with the SEI scores of the students.

Teacher Identity scores, referring to the individual's description of his basic identity; what he is as he sees himself, although not significant at the .05 confidence level (9.5), produced a 8.4061 chi-square value when the entire sample population was considered. This value was significant at the .10 level and may be indicative of some relationship. The contingency coefficient was only .1064, indicating that any existing relationships were weak. The nature of any existing relationships was not apparent upon inspection of the contingency table. When the neutral groups were excluded, the phi coefficient was only .02 and the chi-square value was .09. A 3.8 value is necessary to be significant.

Teacher Behavior scores, which measure the individual's perception of his own behavior: this is what I do, or this is the way I act, were not significant at the .05 level (9.49), but produced a chi-square value of 8.8947 when the entire sample population was considered. This value was also significant at the .10 level and may be indicative of some relationship. Upon inspection of the contingency table, it appeared that the number of students with negative self-concepts was greater in the classes of teachers who had negative Behavior scores. Any relationship was weak, as the contingency coefficient was only .1094. When the neutral groups were excluded the phi coefficient was .12 and the chi-square value was 3.83, which was significant at the .05 confidence level. This significant chi-square indicated that the way the teachers

perceived their own behavior, or how they thought they themselves functioned, was related to the self-concepts of their students. Inspection of the contingency table indicated that there was a greater proportion of students with negative self-concepts in the classes of teachers who had negative Behavior scores. It appears that the teachers who had positive feelings about the things they do may have had an influence on the self-concepts of their students. Further study should be conducted to see if this type of correlation can be replicated. Studies of an experimental nature should also be conducted to identify the behaviors which may characterize teachers who score high on the Behavior scale. It may be that these behaviors cause positive feelings about self in students.

Teacher Self Satisfaction scores and Total scores produced low chi-square values when compared with student SEI scores. These low values were indicative of no significant relationships.

Research Questions. Each research question was investigated using the same techniques as were used in testing the hypothesis.

(1) What relationships exist between Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) scores and grade of students?

No significant relationships were found between the grade of the student, fifth or sixth, and their SEI scores.

(2) What relationships exist between SEI scores and sex of students?

No significant relationships were found between the sex of the student and SEI scores.

(3) What relationships exist between SEI scores and student age?

No significant relationships were found between student age and SEI scores.

(4) What relationships exist between the SEI scores of students who have male teachers as compared with students who have female teachers?

No significant relationships were found when comparing the TSCS scores of male and female teachers, as separate groups, with the SEI scores of male and female students as separate groups, when using the entire sample population. When the neutral groups were eliminated from the calculations, a phi coefficient of .18 and a significant chi-square value of 4.21 were found when relating the scores of the female students and Total scores of the teachers. Inspection of the contingency table shows that there was a greater proportion of negative scores of female students of teachers who had negative scores. This relationship may indicate that female students within the age groups studied may have been influenced more by the self-concepts of their teachers than were male students of the same ages.

(5) What relationships exist in the SEI scores of students who have teachers of various ages?

No significant relationships were found between the SEI scores of students who had teachers of various ages.

(6) What relationships exist in the SEI scores of students who have teachers with variations in the number of years of experience?

A significant relationship, at the .05 level, between the SEI scores of students and teacher experience was found when using the entire population studied. Upon inspection of the contingency table, it appeared that teachers with the greatest number of years of experience



(16-30) had a greater frequency of students with negative SEI scores than might be expected. The correlation coefficient did not indicate a strong relationship. When the students with neutral scores were excluded, a contingency coefficient of .15 and a significant chi-square of 8.98 were found.

(7) What relationships exist in the SEI scores of students who have teachers with variations in educational attainment?

No significant relationships were found between student SEI scores and teacher educational attainment.

(8) What relationships exist between teacher age and Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) scores?

No significant relationships were found between teacher age and TSCS scores. Each of the four scale scores were tested.

(9) What relationships exist between teacher experience (number of years of teaching) and TSCS scores?

No significant relationships were found between teacher experience and TSCS scores. Each of the four scale scores were tested.

(10) What relationships exist between teacher educational attainment and TSCS scores?

No significant relationships, at the .05 level, were found between teacher educational attainment and TSCS scores, although the Identity score, referring to what the individual sees himself as being, had a chi-square value of 11.9786 (12.59 was needed for significance). Upon inspection of the contingency table, it appeared that those teachers with master's degrees plus fifteen hours and above had a greater frequency with a positive Identity score than might be expected. The

contingency coefficient was .5279, which would be a strong correlation with a significant chi-square.

(11) What relationships exist between teacher sex (male or female) and TSCS scores?

No significant relationships were found between teacher sex and TSCS scores. Each of the four Scale scores were tested.

### Conclusions

#### Hypothesis

The null hypothesis must be accepted on all phases of the scores related except that of the teacher Behavior scores and the SEI scores of the students. On this comparison, it must be concluded that there was a significant correlation between the self-concept of teachers and their students.

Although the findings of the study may be somewhat inconclusive, it was not the intended purpose of the research to identify relationships which would be generalized to other groups. The latest research indicates that if the behaviors which promote self-concept are there, then the positive self-concept in the student should be there. This is generally speaking, because it is well known that factors outside the school may deter from positive factors within the school. Perhaps the Behavior scores of teachers are the most important scores on the TSCS relative to the development of self-concept in students. It appears that teachers who have high Behavior scores have more students with positive self-concept. This indicates that the behaviors exhibited by these teachers, and which these teachers had positive feelings about,

may be the types of behavior which researchers are saying promote positive self-concept.

Research continues to indicate that certain attitudes and behaviors of teachers affect the feelings of self-worth of students. Certain types of planned behavior on the part of teachers have been found to elicit positive feelings about self in students; recent studies support this position.

In an Ohio study by Braden (68), planned experiences for raising self-concept were used for pre-school, kindergarten, and first grade children. The researcher concluded that the treatment had a significant effect (positive correlation) on the self-concept. Spaulding's (19) study also indicated the effect of the teacher on the self-concept of pupils. He found that when teachers used private, individualized instruction, showed concern for divergent children, used materials and techniques which were appropriate for given tasks, and were calm and accepting in their interaction, children in their classrooms had higher self-concepts. Maller's (31) investigations supported Spaulding's findings.

Staines (18) in an Australian study tested the hypothesis that specific changes can be made in the self-pictures of children in the classroom by teaching in a particular way. Staines demonstrated that the self-picture is influenced by statements made by teachers about children. He hypothesized that self-image would be influenced in different ways, depending upon the frequency of self-reference statements. He used a control and experimental group with the teacher of the experimental group using specific techniques to change certain self-ratings. The study revealed that changes in the self-picture are an inevitable

part of both outcomes and conditions of learning in every classroom, whether or not the teacher is aware of them or aiming for them. "The self can be deliberately produced by suitable teaching methods" (18, p. 109). He also concluded that this can be done effectively without sacrificing academic goals, as the students in the experimental class did a little better than those in the control class.

In a study in northern Florida (4), the impact of a certain type of planned environment on the self-esteem of pupils was investigated. The experimental school was an innovative elementary school which was completely ungraded and used such practices as team-teaching and others which grew out of a firm commitment to a humanistic approach to education. The approach used stressed the development of positive self-esteem for both pupils and teachers (83). The school provided "success" experiences and maximum freedom to explore for all children. Academic failure and yearly detention were eliminated. Two hypotheses were formulated for the study:

(1) Pupils enrolled in the experimental school will evidence greater self-esteem than pupils enrolled in the comparison school.

(2) As grade level increases, measured differences in self-esteem between the two groups of pupils will increase (4).

The first hypothesis was confirmed, as there was a "highly" significant difference between the scores of the control and experimental group, the innovative school scoring higher. The second hypothesis was also confirmed as the pupils in the control school showed a steady decrease in mean self-esteem scores to grade five then stabilized at that level. Scores in the experimental school were relatively stable up to grade five and then showed a "marked increase" at grade six. The

general findings of this study indicate that students in innovative, humanistically oriented elementary schools evidence more favorable self-esteem than students in a comparable, but traditionally oriented school. The research suggests that prolonged exposure to the environment of the innovative school does have a positive influence on the measured self-esteem of children ages eight to twelve.

The Pontiac, Michigan school district conducted a study during the 1967-68 school year (1). They asked themselves what concrete things a school could do to enhance the self-concept of its students. Using Title III funds, they developed a series of activities assumed to be of value in enhancing the self-concept of students. The goal was to show each student that he was worthy, important, and able to master the school curriculum. The activities were developed around the philosophy that the self-concept of a person is learned and evolves out of interpersonal relationships with people deemed to be significant in the child's life. Teachers were identified as "significant" others who, through their daily interaction with students, could influence a child's developing self-concept. The entire program was designed to emphasize the importance of self-concept and to continually reinforce a positive attitude on the part of the teaching staff.

The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control group when measuring the student's view of himself as a learner. The evaluation report indicated that a school could develop a program that would serve to "make students regard themselves in a positive light." In conclusion they indicated:

Our program then has indicated that teachers, by employing a positive approach and providing positive reinforcement, can enhance the self concepts of students (1, p. 129).

Some educators have asserted that little can be done to modify the behavior of teachers in their respective classrooms, but the evidence generally supports the postulate that teacher behavior can be modified through appropriate educational programs (93). One such program is the Taba In-Service Educational Program. Bennett (66) in 1971 studied teachers who had participated in a Taba Program and found that there was a significant difference (.01) between the mean scores of teachers who had participated and those who had not. The variables of self-concept, attitude, and personal relations were considered.

It can be asserted that classroom life and teacher behavior are important influences in the development of self-perception in children. Since the self is an open system, and is in constant transaction with its environment, it is subject to modification. It seems logical, in the light of the research, that in an experimental study the following should occur:

Students who are assigned to classes of teachers who exhibit certain behaviors, which have been found to promote positive feelings about self in students, should experience greater gains in self-concept scores than students who have been assigned to teachers who do not exhibit behaviors which promote positive feelings about self.

If research continues to show that certain methods used in the classroom do raise self-concept scores, it will be the education profession's responsibility to investigate the effectiveness of various types of methods. Then teachers must be made aware of these methods through courses for those preparing for the profession and through in-service training for those in the field.

The self is a complex, learned organization which is open to change

through transactions with one's environment. It has been shown that the organization of the child's self is a perpetual process, and teacher behavior in the classroom is interpreted by the child in personal ways that may either lead to growth or retardation of self-esteem and achievement. In his daily interactions with students, a teacher can do many things which will greatly benefit students and will only cost time and effort. The importance of a child's self-concept must not be ignored, teachers must be aware of it and consider it whenever they are interacting with students. To do this, a teacher must not only be aware of the existence of differences among children, which he has probably had well drilled into him during his formal professional training, but he must also have knowledge of the origin of these differences and the impact of the developmental process on educational practice. As one increases his understandings of development and behavior, he will be in a better position to create experiences which will enable others to develop their potentialities.

The researcher agrees with Hogan and Green (53, p. 426) when they say:

If we accept the postulate that self-concept is an intervening variable that serves to limit attempted academic achievement, then it is essential that all teacher education programs include cognitive and affective activities that will enhance student self-concepts.

Anderson and Brewer (20) and others still contend that self-acceptance precedes the acceptance of others and say that: "When teachers are integrated, their students' behavior becomes more spontaneous and constructive, more integrated, and reveals more initiative." Surely it must be the responsibility of those who are preparing persons for the teaching profession to use techniques similar to those teachers will be

expected to use in their elementary and secondary classrooms. Teacher training curricula must be designed to help teachers understand and accept themselves, their strengths and weaknesses, so that they may be accepting of students' strengths and weaknesses.

### Research Questions

On research question number four, it was found that there was a significant relationship between the SEI scores of female students and the Total TSCS scores of teachers. This finding may be indicative of a greater sensitivity in girls, than boys, of this age group to the types of behaviors which are exhibited by their teachers. This type of conclusion may be invalid if indeed the self-concepts of teachers are not reflected in their behaviors.

On research question number six, a significant relationship was found between teacher experience and student SEI scores. Teachers with the greatest number of years of experience had a greater frequency of students with negative SEI scores than was expected. There are several plausible reasons for this relationship, one is that teachers who have sixteen to thirty years of experience may not have had access to more recent knowledge regarding child development. Another reason may be that the standards of these teachers were based on their school experiences of many years ago when often school was harsh and the way to promote achievement in a child might have been through a rod rather than through understanding. It may also be that the older, more experienced, teachers are less sensitive to the feelings of students than are younger, less experienced teachers. We can only speculate as to reasons for the relationship, but we can firmly suggest the general up-dating of teacher



knowledge at all levels of experience through course work and readings regarding child maturation, learning, motivation, and the development of self-esteem.

On research question number ten, investigating the relationship between the educational attainment of teachers and their TSCS scores, a significant chi-square value was determined when relating the Identity score. The Identity score refers to the basic identity one has for himself, what he is as he sees himself, "what I am" type items. Inspection of the contingency table indicated the greatest frequency with positive scores was among those teachers with master's degrees plus fifteen hours and above. Other tendencies within the table were not apparent.

#### Recommendations

If we accept the importance of the self as a main determiner of behavior, then we need to develop research methods to learn more about (1) the formation of self-concept, (2) the relationship between self-concept, behavior, and experience, (3) the impact of others on the developing self of the child, and (4) techniques for securing valid measures of self-concept.

There appears to have been little research done in the area of self-concept in teachers. Various studies need to be designed to investigate relationships between teacher self-concept and various aspects of their performance in the classroom. What are the specific behaviors which are exhibited by teachers which promote positive self-feelings in students? Do teachers who have positive self-concepts exhibit the behaviors which promote such feelings?

Research should be conducted to include longitudinal factors which take into account the influences of several teachers, as many of today's school programs expose the student to a variety of persons performing various instructional tasks. Does this type of program, in and of its own self, influence feelings of self-esteem in students?

Research should be conducted at early childhood levels designed to identify relationships so that attempts can be made to reverse negative aspects of adjustment and implement positive ones early in a child's school experience.

School systems should have effective in-service programs which emphasize the important role teachers play in developing self-concepts within children.

More experimentation needs to be done with pre-service and in-service education to determine the effects such programs might have on self-concept.

There is a need for further study of the importance of self-perception and its implications for learning. How a pupil views himself has important implications for school performance. Measurement of pupil self-concept should become a part of the standardized testing programs in schools.

Continuing research is needed on the influence of experimental school patterns such as the middle school, the open school, and related arrangements on pupils' self-images.

Institutions of higher education which are concerned with teacher training must become more diligent in their research regarding self-concept as well as developing curricula and programs which incorporate results of substantiated research.

Although research has established functional relationships between self-concept and various external variables, the question for educators must continue to be: "What can we do to help children see themselves in growth-producing ways?"

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APPENDIX A

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SCORING AND INTERPRETING THE  
SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY, AND THE INVENTORY  
WITH APPROPRIATE RESPONSES MARKED

Instructions for Scoring and Interpreting  
the Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI)

Coopersmith

There are two forms of the Self-Esteem Inventory: A contains 58 items and a total of five subscales, B contains 25 items and no subscales. Form A provides a general assessment of self-esteem which may be broken down into component subscales depending on the goals and interest of the tester but which may also be used without such differentiation. Form B is briefer, does not permit further differentiation, and takes about half the administration time of Form A. The total scores of Forms A and B correlate .86, a finding which has been established to a markedly similar extent on four different samples. This is not surprising since Form B was based on an item analysis of Form A and includes those twenty-five items which showed the highest item-total score relationships of scores obtained with Form A. Validating information is presented in Coopersmith's monograph "The Antecedents of Self-Esteem" (Freeman, San Francisco, 1968).

Form A: 58 items

There are five subscales which cycle in sequence the length of the SEI. These subscales are:

General Self	Items 1, 2, 3; 8, 9, 10; 15, 16, 17; etc.
Social Self-peers	Items 4, 11, 18, 25, 32, 39, 46, 53
Home-parents	Items 5, 12, 19, 26, 33, 40, 47, 54
Lie Scale	Items 6, 13, 20, 27, 34, 41, 48, 55
School-academic	Items 7, 14, 21, 28, 35, 42, 49, 56

As noted above the subscales do not have to be scored separately with the exception of the Lie Scale. The responses indicating high self-esteem and low Lie, defensive reactions are noted on the enclosed scored copies of the SEI.

The scores are reported as:

- I. Total number correct of all scales excluding Lie (a maximum of 50).
- II. A separate score total number of responses indicative of defensive, Lie reaction (a maximum of 8).

For convenience sake the total SEI score is multiplied by two so that maximum score is 100.

Thus    SEI score    50 x 2 = 100  
          Lie score     8        =    8

In the event that separate subscales for a given purpose are desired the responses are scored and noted separately in the same manner as the Lie Scale.

Age Range: Has been used without difficulty on a group basis with populations ranging from 9 to adult level. Older groups are not comfortable with the wording of several items which may accordingly be altered to suit the sample. College student samples have not indicated any resistance to the present wordings of these two forms. In samples with children younger than 9 or where the educational experience has not resulted in an average reading or conceptual level, rewording and/or individual administration may be required.

Sex: The two forms are used for both males and females. In most studies there were no significant differences between the esteem level of males and females tested.

Distribution: In most samples the curve is skewed in the direction of high self-esteem. The means have been in the vicinity of 70-80 and the standard deviations approximately 11-13. More specific information is reported by Coopersmith. Quite obviously there are no exact criteria of high, medium and low self-esteem. This will vary with the sample, distribution, theoretical considerations, etc. Employing position in the group as an index of relative self-appraisal Coopersmith has employed the upper quartile as indicative of high esteem; lower quartile as indicating low esteem and the interquartile range as indicative of medium esteem.

Norms:

SEI preadolescents (9-15) = 70.1 females  
72.2 males

SEI young adults (16-23) = 76.0.

Form A

ITEMS 6, 13, 20, 27, 34, 41, 48, 55 are  
LIE DEFENSIVE SCALE (8 items)  
MAXIMUM TOTAL SCORE = 50  
8 LIE ITEMS

## SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY (SEI)

Please mark each statement in the following way:  
If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check (✓) in the column  
"LIKE ME."  
If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check (✓) in the  
column "UNLIKE ME."  
There are no right or wrong answers.

		LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
	1. I spend a lot of time daydreaming.		✓
	2. I'm pretty sure of myself.	✓	
	3. I often wish I were someone else.		✓
	4. I'm easy to like.	✓	
	5. My parents and I have a lot of fun together.	✓	
LIE	6. I never worry about anything.		✓
	7. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.		✓
	8. I wish I were younger.		✓
	9. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.		✓
	10. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.	✓	
	11. I'm a lot of fun to be with.	✓	
	12. I get upset easily at home.		✓
LIE	13. I always do the right thing.		✓
	14. I'm proud of my school work.	✓	
	15. Someone always has to tell me what to do.		✓
	16. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.		✓
	17. I'm often sorry for the things I do.		✓
	18. I'm popular with kids my own age.	✓	
	19. My parents usually consider my feelings.	✓	
LIE	20. I'm never unhappy.		✓
	21. I'm doing the best work that I can.	✓	
	22. I give in very easily.		✓
	23. I can usually take care of myself.	✓	
	24. I'm pretty happy.	✓	
	25. I would rather play with children younger than me.		✓
	26. My parents expect too much of me.		✓
LIE	27. I like everyone I know.		✓

-2-

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
28. I like to be called on in class.	✓	
29. I understand myself.	✓	
30. It's pretty tough to be me.		✓
31. Things are all mixed up in my life.		✓
32. Kids usually follow my ideas.	✓	
33. No one pays much attention to me at home.		✓
LIE 34. I never get scolded.		✓
35. I'm not doing as well in school as I'd like to.		✓
36. I can make up my mind and stick to it.	✓	
37. I really don't like being a boy - girl.		✓
38. I have a low opinion of myself.		✓
39. I don't like to be with other people.		✓
40. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.		✓
LIE 41. I'm never shy.		✓
42. I often feel upset in school.		✓
43. I often feel ashamed of myself.		✓
44. I'm not as nice looking as most people.		✓
45. If I have something to say, I usually say it.	✓	
46. Kids pick on me very often.		✓
47. My parents understand me.	✓	
LIE 48. I always tell the truth.		✓
49. My teacher makes me feel I'm not good enough.		✓
50. I don't care what happens to me.		✓
51. I'm a failure.		✓
52. I get upset easily when I'm scolded.		✓
53. Most people are better liked than I am.		✓
54. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.		✓
LIE 55. I always know what to say to people.	✓	
56. I often get discouraged in school.		✓
57. Things usually don't bother me.	✓	
58. I can't be depended on.		✓

Form B

The responses indicating high self-esteem are noted in the enclosed, scored copy of Form B. The score is reported as a single score with a maximum of 25, indicative of high self-esteem. The number of correct responses is noted, then multiplied by four ( $25 \times 4 = 100$ ) providing a figure which is comparable to the Self-evaluation score obtained on Form A (excluding the Lie).



Short Form SEI  
 Total score = # correct  
 (xy if 100 desired)  
 Total score correlates .86  
 with total scores of  
 long form  
 No subscales

Name \_\_\_\_\_ School \_\_\_\_\_

Class \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Please mark each statement in the following way:

If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check (✓) in the column "LIKE ME."

If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check (✓) in the column "UNLIKE ME."

There are no right or wrong answers.

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
Example: I'm a hard worker. _____		
1. I often wish I were someone else. _____		✓
2. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class. _____		✓
3. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could. _____		✓
4. I can make up my mind without too much trouble. _____	✓	
5. I'm a lot of fun to be with. _____	✓	
6. I get upset easily at home. _____		✓
7. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new. _____		✓
8. I'm popular with kids my own age. _____	✓	
9. My parents usually consider my feelings. _____	✓	
10. I give in very easily. _____		✓
11. My parents expect too much of me. _____		✓
12. It's pretty tough to be me. _____		✓
13. Things are all mixed up in my life. _____		✓
14. Kids usually follow my ideas. _____	✓	
15. I have a low opinion of myself. _____		✓
16. There are many times when I'd like to leave home. _____		✓
17. I often feel upset in school. _____		✓
18. I'm not as nice looking as most people. _____		✓
19. If I have something to say, I usually say it. _____	✓	
20. My parents understand me. _____	✓	
21. Most people are better liked than I am. _____		✓
22. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me. _____		✓
23. I often get discouraged in school. _____		✓
24. Things usually don't bother me. _____		✓
25. I can't be depended on. _____		✓

APPENDIX B

INVENTORY SCORE SHEET, AS USED IN THE STUDY,  
WITH APPROPRIATE RESPONSES BLACKENED;  
THE FORM USED FOR GATHERING INFORMATION;  
AND THE FIFTY RESPONSE ITEMS

IDENTIFICATION INFORMATION:

School \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_  
 Grade level \_\_\_\_\_ Number of students \_\_\_\_\_ Assigned number \_\_\_\_\_

PUPIL CHARACTERISTICS:

Sex: male \_\_\_ female \_\_\_  
 Birth date: month \_\_\_\_\_ day \_\_\_\_\_ year \_\_\_\_\_

## SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

Please use this sheet to respond to the items that are provided on the accompanying instrument. The person in charge will help you with any difficulties you may have. Please mark each statement in the following way:

If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check (✓) in the column "LIKE ME".

If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check (✓) in the column "UNLIKE ME".

THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME		LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME		LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
1.			18.			35.		
2.			19.			36.		
3.			20.			37.		
4.			21.			38.		
5.			22.			39.		
6.			23.			40.		
7.			24.			41.		
8.			25.			42.		
9.			26.			43.		
10.			27.			44.		
11.			28.			45.		
12.			29.			46.		
13.			30.			47.		
14.			31.			48.		
15.			32.			49.		
16.			33.			50.		
17.			34.					

SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY (SEI)  
FORM A - COOPERSMITH

1. I spend a lot of time daydreaming.
2. I'm pretty sure of myself.
3. I often wish I were someone else.
4. I'm easy to like.
5. My parents and I have a lot of fun together.
6. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.
7. I wish I were younger.
8. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.
9. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.
10. I'm a lot of fun to be with.
11. I get upset easily at home.
12. I'm proud of my school work.
13. Someone always has to tell me what to do.
14. It takes me a long time to get used to something new.
15. I'm often sorry for the things I do.
16. I'm popular with kids my own age.
17. My parents usually consider my feelings.
18. I'm doing the best work that I can.
19. I give in very easily.
20. I can usually take care of myself.
21. I'm pretty happy.
22. I would rather play with children younger than me.
23. My parents expect too much of me.
24. I like to be called on in class.
25. I understand myself.
26. It's pretty tough to be me.
27. Things are all mixed up in my life.
28. Kids usually follow my ideas.
29. No one pays much attention to me at home.
30. I'm not doing as well in school as I'd like to.
31. I can make up my mind and stick to it.
32. I really don't like being a boy - girl (which ever you are).
33. I have a low opinion of myself.
34. I don't like to be with other people.
35. There are many times when I would like to leave home.
36. I often feel upset in school.
37. I often feel ashamed of myself.
38. I'm not as nice looking as most people.
39. If I have something to say, I usually say it.
40. Kids pick on me very often.
41. My parents understand me.
42. My teacher makes me feel I'm not good enough.
43. I don't care what happens to me.
44. I'm a failure.
45. I get upset easily when I'm scolded.
46. Most people are better liked than I am.
47. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.
48. I often get discouraged in school.
49. Things usually don't bother me.
50. I can't be depended on.

APPENDIX C

FORM FOR OBTAINING IDENTIFICATION  
INFORMATION FROM TEACHERS

IDENTIFICATION INFORMATION:

School \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_  
 Number of students \_\_\_\_\_ Assigned number \_\_\_\_\_  
 Grade level \_\_\_\_\_

TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS: Please complete the following items as accurately as possible. The person administering the inventory will assist you with any difficulties.

Sex: male \_\_\_ female \_\_\_

Age: 21-25 \_\_\_, 26-30 \_\_\_, 31-35 \_\_\_, 36-40 \_\_\_, 41-45 \_\_\_,  
 46-50 \_\_\_, 51-55 \_\_\_, 56-60 \_\_\_, 61-65 \_\_\_.

Teaching experience in years: 0-5 \_\_\_, 6-10 \_\_\_, 11-15 \_\_\_,  
 16-20 \_\_\_, 21-25 \_\_\_, 26-30 \_\_\_, 31-35 \_\_\_, over 36 \_\_\_.

Highest educational level attained:

Bachelors	___	Masters	___	Specialists	___	Doctors	___
plus 15	___	plus 15	___	plus 15	___	post	___
plus 30	___	plus 30	___	plus 30	___		___

---

APPENDIX D

EMD02S COMPUTATIONAL PROCEDURES

Step 1. First the data are converted to categorized integer variables as specified on the Interval Cards and written on a binary scratch tape (tape 3). Several frequency tables are formed on each pass of the scratch tape; the number of passes is about  $m/400$  where  $m$  is the total number of columns in the tables required.

Step 2. A chi-square, a contingency coefficient, and a maximum likelihood ratio are computed for each table using the following formulas:

$$\chi^2 = N \sum_{i,j} \frac{n_{ij}^2}{n_{i.} n_{.j}} - N$$

the contingency coefficient,  $C$

$$C = \left( \frac{\chi^2}{N + \chi^2} \right)^{1/2}$$

the maximum likelihood ratio,  $\lambda$

$$\lambda = \frac{(\prod_i n_{i.}^{n_{i.}}) (\prod_j n_{.j}^{n_{.j}})}{N^N \prod_{ij} n_{ij}^{n_{ij}}}$$

where  $N$  = total number of observations in the table

$n_{ij}$  = table entry for row  $i$ , column  $j$

$n_{i.} = \sum_j n_{ij} = \text{row total}$

$n_{.j} = \sum_i n_{ij} = \text{column total}$

$r$  = number of rows

$c$  = number of columns

$d = (r - 1)(c - 1) = \text{degrees of freedom.}$



In the computation of  $\chi^2$  any fraction of the summation which is of the form  $0/0$  is replaced by zero, and in the computation of  $\lambda$  any factor of the form  $0^0$  is replaced by 1.0.

Step 3. The frequency tables are collapsed as follows:

The minimum  $n_{i.}$  and  $n_{.j}$  are found. If  $n_{i.}n_{.j}/N$  is less than or equal to  $M$ , the row or column corresponding to the smaller of the two sums,  $n_{i.}$  or  $n_{.j}$ , is combined with the adjacent row or column which has the smaller total. The process is repeated until each expected number is sufficiently large.  $M$ , the number punched in Columns 27,28 of the Problem Card, is the minimum expected frequency for collapsing tables.

Step 4. The formulas appearing in Step 2 are used to compute chi-squares, contingency coefficients, and maximum likelihood ratios for the collapsed tables.

APPENDIX E

LETTER FROM STANLEY COOPERSMITH GIVING  
PERMISSION TO MODIFY AND USE HIS  
SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

## UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, DAVIS

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DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

DAVIS, CALIFORNIA 95616

November 15, 1971

Mr. Otis Lovette  
Administrative Assistant  
Oklahoma State University  
520 South Blakely  
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74074


Dear Mr. Lovette:

Thank you for your recent inquiry regarding the Self-Esteem Inventory and Behavior Rating Form. Enclosed you will find a memorandum describing the procedures we have developed for assessing self-esteem and the methods of administration, scoring and interpretation. Further information is contained in my book, The Antecedents of Self-Esteem (W. H. Freeman).

I do not have copies of the Inventory and Rating Form for sale but make them available for research purposes. If your study is intended as an investigation of self-esteem, you have my permission to reproduce and duplicate the enclosed copies of the tests. You also have my permission to modify the tests for the purposes of your specific study as long as the modifications are noted in your write-up of the results.

I should appreciate learning the results of the study you conduct. If I can be of further assistance, let me know. Best wishes.

Sincerely,

  
Stanley Coopersmith

SC:dds

Enclosure

VITA

Otis Kent LoVette

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

**Thesis:** A CORRELATIONAL INVESTIGATION OF THE SELF-CONCEPTS OF FIFTH AND SIXTH GRADE TEACHERS AND THEIR STUDENTS

**Major Field:** Educational Administration

**Biographical:**

**Personal Data:** Born in Dodge City, Kansas, June 25, 1941, the son of Otis Keasling and Helen L. LoVette.

**Education:** Attended primary school in Orange, Texas; attended high school in Kinsley, Kansas, graduating from Kinsley High School in 1959; received the Bachelor of Science in Education degree from Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas, with majors in Biology and Physical Education, in January, 1963; received the Master of Science in Education degree in August, 1963, also from Emporia; received the Specialist in Education degree from Emporia, with a major in School Administration, in August, 1967; completed the requirements for the Doctor of Education degree in May, 1973.

**Professional Experience:** Served as a Graduate Fellow at Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas, from January, 1963 to August, 1963; served as a Science teacher at Atchison High School, Atchison, Kansas, 1963-1966; served as a half-time Instructor supervising student teachers at Kansas State Teachers College, 1966-1967; Assistant Professor of Education at Kansas State Teachers College, 1967-1968; High School Principal at Conway Springs High School, Conway Springs, Kansas, 1968-1971; Administrative Assistant, College of Engineering, Oklahoma State University, 1971-1973.

**Professional Organizations:** Phi Delta Kappa, Oklahoma State University Chapter; National Education Association; Kansas National Education Association; Kansas Association of Secondary School Principals; National Association of Secondary School Principals; and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.