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1965

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

SELF-CONCEPTS AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF NEGROES ENROLLED IN GRADE SIX IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF RICHMOND COUNTY, GEORGIA

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JUSTINE WILKINSON WASHINGTON

Norman, Oklahoma

1965

SELF-CONCEPTS AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF NEGROES ENROLLED IN GRADE SIX IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF RICHMOND COUNTY, GEORGIA

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TO

Alre, Anthony, Charles, Cynthia, Deborah,

Lillian Anita, Patricia Anne, Veeda Kay,

and my Godchildren

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SELF-CONCEPTS AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF NEGROES ENROLLED IN GRADE SIX IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF RICHMOND COUNTY, GEORGIA

CHAPTER I

THE STUDY

Background of the Study

The maximum education and self-fulfillment of all children, regardless of socio-economic status, is a major concern of the American people. Such concern is not only desirable but necessary if any reasonable degree of maintaining and improving the practice of democratic ideals is to be actualized, both now and in the future. This view was most cogently set forth by Gardner when he stated:

> Education is important in any modern society, . . . But a society such as ours, dedicated to the worth of the individual, committed to the nurture of free, rational and responsible men and women, has special reasons for valuing education. Our deepest convictions impel us to foster individual fulfillment. We wish each one to achieve the promise that is in him. We wish each one to be worthy of a free society, and capable of strengthening a free society.[1]

---

[1] John W. Gardner, "National Goals in Education," Goals for America, A Report of the President's Commission on National Goals (New York: Columbia University Press, 1960), p. 81.

Growth in population and alterations in the methods of production have necessitated delegating specific responsibilities to instituted agencies established for purposes essential to the survival of a nation whose operation is based upon a democratic philosophy. Thus, areas once considered to be the primary concern and responsibility of so small a unit as the family have become the concern and role of the larger society. Reason for this is to be found in society's realization that the welfare of all is contingent upon the adequacy with which these responsibilities are assumed and executed. An unfaltering belief held by our American society is that the efficiency of self is probably the most important asset of man.[1] The proper education, therefore, of all the children of all the people was assumed as a societal responsibility. Assuming this obligation, the school was established as a formal socializing agent for the purpose of providing educational opportunities and experiences that would help the child toward developing a self capable of controlling and directing its own behavior.

Perhaps the self is the most important and strongest structure in the psychological field of the individual. The nature of the relationships of the self to other people, to objects, to social organizations, and to institutions is of

---

[1] Ibid., p. 81.

critical significance to the understanding of any individual's behavior.

As pointed out by Murphy, Murphy, and Newcomb:

> The thing known as the self is a selection and organization of experiences involving the visceral tensions, muscular strains, the sound of one's name, one's mirror image, and so on; and the thing which knows this pattern is simply the organism as a whole. If this is correct, it is easy to see that the self, being a primary source of many satisfactions, must inevitably become a value. The self is something which we like and from which we expect much. . . . The self is not only a value; it is a unique sort of value. It not only represents an immediate object of importance but is also a symbol which stands for many other values which may in time be achieved. When one says he hopes he is a good enough teacher or bridgeplayer or diplomat to be successful in new adventures, he relies upon the characteristics of his empirical self, the self as he knows it, to bring other good things within his reach. It is in this sense that the self can properly be called a central or organizing value.[1]

In a particular culture or subculture, man submits to a particular system which we call values to answer questions basic to his existence. These answers vary from culture to culture and to a greater or lesser degree from individual to individual. Man, therefore, is consistent with a particular social environment.[2] Because man is not merely a reacting mechanism, he is capable of interpreting his environment and

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[1]Gardner Murphy, Lois Barclay Murphy, and Theodore Mead Newcomb, Experimental Social Psychology (New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1937), pp. 210-211.

[2]Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming: A New Focus for Education (Washington, D. C.: The Association Yearbook, 1960), p. 83.

expressing this interpretation in his behavior. These personal ways of perceiving himself and the social-environmental setting in which he lives are determinants of his self-organization, the root of his behavior. Once organized, that behavior becomes the effort of the person to enhance or to maintain his self-organization.

Prior to entering school the child occupies a world in which he has acquired sensitivity to values, standards, and expectations. The extent to which he identifies himself with the socio-cultural-economic milieu in which he finds himself is a determinant of the kind of evaluation he places upon himself as an individual. Since the school does not operate exclusive of the larger society, and since social-environmental conditions both at and away from school influence the self-concepts of children, any complete understanding of how children see themselves as individuals will take into consideration aspects of both situations.

Many children master the common expectations of daily living with confidence and trust, others face an extended period of adjustment before new experiences are attempted, and still others tend to build a wall of inner and outer defenses between themselves and the world of other people and things, seldom venturing beyond the security of the unchallenging and known elements of their everyday environment. Since this is true, the problem of examining self-concepts,

with respect to socio-economic status of children, is of paramount concern to educators.

Need for the Study

Since 1949, the behavioral science theorists have given increased attention to the importance of the concept that anyone interested in understanding, predicting, and changing behavior or human relationships must begin with a knowledge of a person's conscious conceptions of his "self" and his environment.[1]

The Negro constitutes the largest minority group in the United States and has been the most culturally deprived of its citizens with the possible exception of some American Indians. These facts cannot be ignored in any effort aimed toward drawing inferences about the behavior of this segment of our society. The Negro child in the United States starts life with a cultural handicap which may continue throughout life. There are constant reminders in the society of his lower status which may prove debilitating or even immobilizing. Yet, in spite of these disadvantages, many of these children develop positive self-concepts and normal functioning personalities. How, in the face of tremendous cultural deprivation, this is accomplished is of great concern to the student of social phenomena.

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[1]Arthur W. Combs and Donald Snygg, Individual Behavior: A Perceptual Approach to Behavior (rev. ed.; New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1959), p. 307.

The idea that self-understanding has implications for education and that there is need for more studies that give insight into the self-concept and socio-economic status of the child has been the product of many minds. Fleming[1] asserted that distorted self and self-other concepts and socio-economic deprivations are conditions that are symptomatic of problems faced by a large number of children. These conditions mirror intricate social problems and require new data about many mid-twentieth century children in varied social and economic areas and in different social class groups with whom we are in direct contact; data collected need to be analyzed, compared, grouped, and studied for significant trends, and the research findings should be used in our schools.

The need to study the self-concept of Negro children and youth was indicated by the conference conducted at the Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs, Tufts University, September 16-19, 1963. The conference was supported by the Cooperative Research Program of the Office of Education, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development. In reviewing the conference

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[1]Robert S. Fleming, "Needed Research on Characteristics of Today's Youth," Educational Leadership, Theme: Changing Childhood and Youth, XXI (April, 1964), 475-489.

objectives, Patterson,[1] chairman of the conference, stated that the consequences of self-concept rather than the phenomenon itself concerned the conference participants most. As they prepared for the conference, they felt that a two-fold challenge presented itself to concerned Americans. First, constructive channels for emergent high self-esteem among the Negro vanguard must be found. Second, the continuing grip of low-self-esteem among the overwhelming majority of Negro citizens must be recognized and broken. The concerns with which the conference sought to deal were hard to handle but included a normal quota of goodwill and irreproachable intention.

Russell emphasized the need for more studies that give insight into the factors that influence the development of the child's concepts in the following opinion:

> The clarity and breadth of a child's concepts are one of the best predictors of his school progress; his concepts determine pretty well what he knows, what he believes, and therefore, in a large part, what he does.[2]

The following ideas advanced by Jersild also suggest the need for studying the problem of self and the identification of factors which influence the child's developing self-concepts:

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[1]Franklin Patterson, "The Purpose and Trend of the Conference," Negro Self-Concept: Implications for School and Citizenship (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965), pp. 1-10.

[2]David Russell, "The Development of Thinking Processes," Review of Educational Research, XXIII (April, 1953), 139.

> There is a need of staggering magnitude for doing something in our educational program to help children and youth to acquire realistic attitudes of self-acceptance.[1]

> To find out how the educational program from nursery school through college might help the general person to understand and accept himself is the most important task for psychology and education.[2]

> Human beings, from an early age, have more capacity for learning to face and to understand life than we have hitherto assumed in our psychological theories or in our educational practices.[3]

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to examine self-concepts of Negroes enrolled in Grade 6 in Public Schools of Richmond County, Georgia, with respect to socio-economic status. The following sub-problems were involved: (1) the determination of the socio-economic status of the subjects, (2) the determination of the self-concepts of the subjects, and (3) the determination of the relationship of self-concepts and socio-economic status of the subjects.

Specifically, as a result of this study, it was hoped that some information could be obtained toward answering the following questions:

---

[1]Arthur T. Jersild, In Search of Self (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952), p. 5.

[2]Ibid., p. 3.

[3]Arthur T. Jersild, "Self Understanding in Childhood and Adolescence," The American Psychologist, VI (April, 1951), 122.

1. What is the socio-economic status of the subjects as measured by and inferred from the results of the Warner Index of Status Characteristics?

2. What self and self-other concepts do the subjects reveal as measured by Bills' Index of Adjustment and Values?

3. What is the difference between the "real" self-concepts of middle class and lower class socio-economic status groups?

4. What is the difference between the "ideal" self-concepts of middle class and lower class socio-economic status groups?

5. What is the difference between the self-other concepts of middle class and lower class socio-economic status groups?

6. How do the subjects compare with respect to IAV categories (+ +), (- +), (+ -), and (- -) when grouped according to socio-economic status?

Hypotheses To Be Tested

It was a basic assumption that the Index of Status Characteristics and the Index of Adjustment and Values have been sufficiently tested to demonstrate their use and precision to measure socio-economic status and self-concepts and self-other concepts, respectively. It was, also assumed that variations in socio-economic status would affect the proportions of subjects exhibiting certain self-concepts and

self-other concept categories as indicated by the Index of Adjustment and Values. On the basis of these assumptions the following null hypotheses were made:

1. There is no statistically significant difference between mean total scores for the middle socio-economic group and lower socio-economic group on the following dimension of the Index of Adjustment and Values: "Real" Self-concept (Column I) and "Ideal" Self-concept (Column III).

2. There is no statistically significant difference in the frequency of subjects falling in the IAV categories (+ +), (- +), (+ -), and (- -) by socio-economic status.

Method of the Study

The normative survey method of research was used in this study.[1] It is a means of collecting detailed descriptions of existing conditions with the intent of employing the data to justify current conditions or to make plans for improvement. The data were obtained through use of two indexes: (1) Warner's Index of Status Characteristics in the form of the Questionnaire for Sixth-Graders in Public Schools of Richmond County, Georgia and Bills' Index of Adjustment and Values. These instruments are described in Chapter III.

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[1]Debold B. Van Dalen, Understanding Educational Research: An Introduction (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1962), p. 187.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study were as follows:

1. The study was limited, in its beginning to 1,004 pupils regularly enrolled in Grade 6, in thirty-four class sections of the twelve public elementary schools for Negroes in Richmond County, Georgia. For statistical analysis, the basic sample was limited to a subsample of 992 subjects whose index of status characteristics placed them in the middle and lower socio-economic status groups. No sixth-graders who were attending the special education classes rather than the regular sixth-grade classes were included in the sample used in this study.

2. The study was further limited by the imperfections from which all paper and pencil measuring devices are prone to suffer.[1]

3. The study was limited in that a major portion of it was concerned with the individual's description of himself and his concept of how other people accept themselves in relation to perceived time as measured by the Index of Adjustment and Values, and the individual's concepts change with time.

---

[1]Robert E. Bills, Index of Adjustment and Values, Manual for the Adult and High School Senior Form (University, Alabama: College of Education, University of Alabama, 1964), p. 5 (Mimeographed.)

Definition of Terms

The following definitions were used in this study:

Class Section.--a designated group of sixth-graders who had been grouped by a method other than homogeneous or ability grouping procedures.

IAV.--the letters used as an abbreviation of the name of the scale, Index of Adjustment and Values, used in this study to measure self and self-other concepts.

IAV Categories.--a combination of the acceptance-of-self (Column II) score of the "Self" Form of the IAV and the self-other (Column II) score of the "Others" Form of the IAV. With these two scores considered together and comparisons made with the normative group's mean score of 88.33, subjects may be divided into four categories or classification: (+ +), (- +), (+ -), and (- -). The first of each of these signs refers to the self-acceptance (Column II) score. If this score is above the mean (88.33 or greater) the sign is (+), but if it is below the mean it is (-). The second sign of each pair is obtained from the self-other (Column II) score. If this score is equal to or greater than the "Self" (Column II) score it is (+), if less it is (-). Thus, a (+ +) person has an above average self-acceptance score and an "Others" (Column II) score equal to or greater than his self-acceptance score, and a (- +) person has a below average self-acceptance score coupled with an "Others" (Column II) score equal to or greater than his self-acceptance score.

Ideal Self-Concept.--used to indicate the way a person imagines he would like to be as reflected through the scores of the Index of Adjustment and Values.

ISC.--the letters used as an abbreviation of the name of the scale, Index of Status Characteristics and to refer to the Questionnaire for Sixth-Graders in Public Schools of Richmond County, Georgia used in this study to measure and infer socio-economic status as suggested by Warner and associates.

Negro Public Elementary Schools.--the twelve schools from which the sample of the study was drawn. They operate for Negro children on a segregated basis. Generally, they enroll pupils in Grades 1 to 7 but a few of them have Grade 8. They are separate from both the junior high school and senior high school and have their own buildings, purposes, and administration.

Real Self-Concept.--used to indicate the way a person sees himself or believes about himself as reflected through the scores of the Index of Adjustment and Values. It includes the valuation that a person places on himself as an individual in his own right, derived through conceptualization or "mind activity."[1]

Self-Other Concept.--used to mean the individual as evaluated by and known to the individual in relationship to

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[1]Edwin C. Wood, "Self-Concept as a Mediating Factor in Social Behavior" (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, Department of Psychology, University of Oklahoma, 1959), p. 64.

the way he feels other people in his peer group evaluate and know themselves as reflected through the scores of the Index of Adjustment and Values.

Organization of the Report of the Study

The report of the study is organized into five chapters as follows:

Chapter I presents the background, need for the research, and a description of the study.

Chapter II reviews the selected literature which relates to the study.

Chapter III is devoted to procedures and sources of the data.

Chapter IV is concerned with the presentation of the data.

Chapter V contains a summary, conclusions, and recommendations drawn from the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The literature pertinent to the central purpose of this investigation is reviewed in this chapter. A careful survey of the professional literature was made to discover significant information regarding the phenomenal self or the role of the conscious self-concept in determining a person's behavior and to locate studies in which behavior is presumed to depend on related aspects of socio-economic status and self-concepts. Such studies have obvious implications for education. Despite the fact there was much theoretical writing dealing with the construct of self-concept during the 1940's and 1950's, there was very little empirical work done on the self-concept prior to 1949. Since that time, there has been an increasingly large output of investigations. The large number of investigations are difficult to classify because of the staggering array of hypotheses, measuring instruments, and research designs. The aspects covered in the literature relevant to this study are presented as follows: (1) historical overview of the psychology of the self, (2) nature, origin, and role of the self-concept, (3) perceptual frame of reference regarding the self, (4) impact of

socio-economic status on self-concepts and learning patterns of children, and (5) recent experimental investigations.

Historical Overview of the Psychology of the Self

Frondizi[1] asserted that the modern conception of the self began in the seventeenth century with Descartes' discovery of the "cogito" or the self as a thinking substance. With Descartes pointing the way, the self was subjected to the rigorous philosophical examinations by such men as Leibnitz, Locke, Hume, and Berkley. As psychology emerged from philosophy as a separate entity, the self as a theoretical construct moved along with it. Frondizi maintained that fifty years ago a psychological theorist would have been hard pressed to write a psychology that did not deal in one way or another with the self. Such keen thinkers as James,[2] Titchner,[3] Hall,[4] McDougall,[5] Baldwin,[6] and many others

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[1]Risieri Frondizi, The Nature of the Self (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1953), passim.

[2]William James, The Principles of Psychology, Vol. 2 (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1890), passim.

[3]Edward B. Titchner, An Outline of Psychology (New York: Macmillan Company, 1896), passim.

[4]G. Stanley Hall, "Some Aspects of the Early Sense of Self," American Journal of Psychology, IX (1898), 351-395.

[5]William McDougall, An Introduction to Social Psychology (Boston: Henry Luce and Company, 1921), passim.

[6]James Mark Baldwin, Social and Ethical Interpretations in Mental Development (3d ed.; New York: Macmillan Company, 1902), passim.

posited a self or ego as a conception without which psychological theory just would not make sense. However, behaviorism dominated psychological thinking during the first forty years of the nineteenth century, and the concept of self all but disappeared from psychology. The behavioristic emphasis on the exclusively objective approach to psychological phenomena considered the self not essential in formulating psychological theory. Only the influence of the European psychologist Stern,[1] the psychoanalytic theorists Freud[2] and Jung,[3] and such sociologically oriented scholars as Cooley[4] and Mead[5] kept the self from becoming totally extinct in psychological thought.

According to Sarbin,[6] the recrudescence of the self began in 1937 with Allport's book on personality[7] and since

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[1]William Stern, Psychology of Early Childhood (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1924), passim.

[2]Sigmund Freud, A General Introduction to Psychoanalysis (New York: Boni and Liveright Company, 1920), passim.

[3]Carl G. Jung, Two Essays on Analytical Psychology (New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1928), passim.

[4]Charles Horton Cooley, Human Nature and the Social Order (New York: Scribner and Company, 1902), passim.

[5]George Herbert Mead, Mind, Self, and Society (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934), passim.

[6]Theodore R. Sarbin, "A Preface to a Psychological Analysis of the Self," Psychological Review, LIX (1952), 11-12.

[7]Gordon W. Allport, Personality: A Psychological Interpretation (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1937), pp. 1-189.

that time the self has become more and more popular in psychological discussions. It seems that psychologists are coming to learn that the descriptive accounts of each person's world are best arrived at by an analysis of the central character, the principal actor, namely, the self.

The literature revealed evidences that the self has been emancipated from philosophy and has been accepted by psychologists and educators as an idea worthy of study and understanding.

Nature, Origin, and Role of the Self-Concept

Cooley,[1] McDougall,[2] and Mead[3] seemed to have been in accord in defining the self-concept. As viewed by them the self-concept is referred to as the idea-of-self, or a conceptual representation of the self--a picture created in its imagination by the self and to which it attends with warm personal interest. McCandless[4] stated simply that the self-concept is "how the person sees himself, or how he evaluates himself with respect to certain characteristics or attributes." Although it is a subjective creation, it is objectified but not as a disinterested observer might describe it. It never

---

[1] Cooley, op. cit., passim.

[2] McDougall, op. cit., passim.

[3] Mead, op. cit., passim.

[4] Boyd R. McCandless, Children and Adolescents Behavior and Development (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961), p. 187.

seems to be an accurate representation of the self. It is usually a distorted picture--the self made dramatic, noble, romantic, inferior, etc. It is the object of attention in those states referred to as the self possessing self-consciousness of a conceptual representation of self. The self-concept is cognitive and reflexive in nature. It is cognitive in that it is descriptive of the self--a kind of image carrying with it certain qualities held as important by the self. In describing the reflexive nature of the self-concept, Wood[1] stated that it is reflexive in that the self seems to turn around on itself in the sense that it makes this representation and then fastens its attention on it. With this action taken, thinking, feeling, and acting continue apace, but all in the context of, and affected by a continuing reference to the objectified self. This creates the effect of the self as spectator, watching its own performance.

The self-concept is evaluative and carries with it a unique class of feeling states which Cooley[2] and McDougall[3] called self-feelings. These writers pointed out that these self-feelings play a unique and powerful role in the motive system of the individual, and in an important way set the

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[1]Wood, op. cit., pp. 63-69.

[2]Cooley, op. cit., pp. 137-153, 177.

[3]McDougall, op. cit., pp. 197-199, 202-204.

course of his personal development. Self-feelings are either an inflating of the self-esteem or a deflating of it, and they accompany what Sherif and Cantrill referred to as ego-involvement.[1] According to these writers, ego-involvement seems to imply a kind of moving force, or ego-striving, which is the effort the person expends to maintain or to enhance his ego or to try to "feel good about" the self. They asserted:

> The most important attitudes formed in relation to one's body, to surrounding objects, person, institutions, and groups, are ego-involved. . . . [Thus, for example,] inevitably one becomes somehow ego-involved when his intimate friends, his superior, his inferior, his school, his church, or his flag are in question. Gratifications and frustrations connected with such persons, groups, or institutions are felt as ego-gratifications and ego-frustrations.[2]

According to Sherif and Sherif, the person's need to "enhance" the ego pervades all of his feeling and motivational life. Thus they expressed the opinion that:

> Hunger, sex, and sleep do not function in insulated ways. They are the hunger, sex desires, or sleepiness of the organism of a person who has claims to be 'a man of good taste,' 'an honorable man,' one who is in dead earnest to maintain his standing in life, to raise the value of his own name in the eyes of his fellow man and in his own eyes.[3]

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[1]Muzafer Sherif and Harvey Cantril, The Psychology of Ego-Involvements (rev. ed.; New York: John Wiley and Sons Publishing Company, 1947), pp. 100, 153, 156.

[2]Ibid., p. 156.

[3]Muzafer Sherif and Carolyn Sherif, An Outline of Social Psychology (rev. ed.; New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1956), p. 584.

They expressed the view that the discrepancy between such personal values, or ego-attitudes, and the biological drives catches the person in conflict and sets up within him what they referred to as ego-tension to cover such painful, unpleasant experiences as aloneness, anxiety, insecurity, shame, personal inadequacy, and deprivation. In their discussion, they cited the example:

> When ego-tension is caused by failure or potential failure threatening our sense of adequacy, our sense of self-esteem, or by blockage of our ego-involved goals, the appropriate designation may be anxiety. . . . When ego tension is aroused by a serious discrepancy between our actions and the level of our ego values, the resulting product may be referred to as shame. . . . In the cases in which the deviation is related to our few most central fundamental ego values, the resulting ego-tension may be termed the experience of guilt.[1]

Wood[2] expressed the view that ego-involvement becomes an issue only in connection with those values taken on by the self-concept because self-feeling is attached to them.

The literature reviewed leads to the conclusion that the self-concept represents a unique kind of mind activity composed of the self evaluating itself or conceptualizing itself. There are various guises that this activity takes. It must be recognized that there are wide individual variations in the self-conceptualizing process. Though a person's concept-of-self will show a more or less consistent pattern over

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[1] Ibid., p. 602.

[2] Wood, op. cit., p. 115

a period of time, and the total self-concept can be described, for practical purposes, it is usually necessary to describe it at a particular moment because all its facets may not be functioning at any one time. Moustakas[1] strongly emphasized that the form it takes, at any particular moment, depends to a great extent on the person's feelings, thoughts, and what his experiences mean to him. The meaning depends on the values involved in the situation, event, particular pressures, dangers, demands, or experiences and these values come from the person's personal background. Moustakas ventured further by adding that the human person wants to feel and conceptualize that his "who-ness" is respected. "True being is self and other, individual and universal, personal and cultural."

In tracing the origin of the self-concept, Mead[2] explained that self-conceptualizing represents a kind of corruption of the original, spontaneous, un-selfconscious mental activity that the infant is endowed with. It is not a "natural" or inevitable modification of the original structure but arises out of a particular kind of "self-other" relationship or an awareness of the self as it is perceived by and received by other significant persons. Mead further amplified his view by stating that the molding of a child, whether deliberate or unintentional, is accomplished through

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[1]Clark E. Moustakas, The Self (New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1956), pp. 3-13.

[2]Mead, op. cit., pp. 45-173.

person-to-person interaction. The social response of the parent, though geared to an immediate life situation, is based upon needs and values already formed in a particular culture and society. The child responds in turn; and in this mutuality of interaction, the drama of self-concept formation unfolds.

The new born infant is responded to as a biological organism. He is taken care of and given physical attention. His primary need is food, and his most important early experiences center around the act of feeding and being fed. Between maximum satisfaction and starvation lies a wide range of variation. Feeding habits differ from culture to culture and from family to family. In some groups the infant may be fed whenever he cries, in others, only at rigidly prescribed intervals. He may be nursed until well into childhood, or may be weaned early. Some infants experience alternate periods of satisfaction and neglect. The way the infant's biological needs are met and the degree of satisfaction and deprivation he experiences convey an image of the world as either stinting or indulgent, capricious or reliable. This self-concept or image may remain as a permanent part of adult character, especially if it is reinforced by later experience.

The infant is also responded to in an emotional way. Attitudes of rejection or acceptance, approval or disapproval, tension or relaxation color the physical care he receives.

Mead[1] cited the example that the act of feeding is accompanied by the mother's attitudes and physical postures, which are prompted by cultural values or psychological traits. The culture may dictate a degree of aloofness and rigidity. The mother may regard the infant as a fulfillment or a nuisance, a natural product of marriage or a disruption of her life and interests.

As the infant grows to childhood, emotional responses to his behavior take on increased importance. The adult's responses change from efforts to satisfy his bodily needs into attitudes of approval and disapproval designed to encourage him to exercise self-control. There are also emotion-laden responses to the child as a person, toward his appearance, his intelligence, and his temperament. The parents have cultural and personal concepts of what they are and what they expect the child to be. They respond to the child in terms of their own psychological needs, their position in the class, status, and role structure of society, and their ambitions for the child. The earliest reactions of the infant are biological responses to his own inner states of comfort and discomfort. When he cries, he neither knows that he cries nor does he purposely cry to gain attention. Gradually the infant associates his crying with attention and satisfaction he receives. He learns that he is capable of using the

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[1] Ibid., p. 138.

cry as a purposive act to stimulate response in another, the infant enters in a primitive way into a self-other relationship. The physical dependence of the child upon parents and in particular upon the mother soon develops into emotional involvement because the parents may prove a source of both frustration and satisfaction. The human organism does not suffer deprivation and frustration passively. It reacts by manifesting rage, anger, hostility, and aggression. As the child matures and is expected to control his impulses, part of his frustration and deprivation may be expressed as hostility and resentment against those "others" who are the source of his frustration.

As the child matures, other sources of frustration or anxiety are introduced. Before he enters school, the child is expected to be independent of his mother to the extent of managing his bodily functions and controlling his aggressions and expressions of rage and hostility. He is then introduced to a competitive society and system of education where further demands are made upon his self-control or self-concept. He is supposed to set goals for himself and to achieve them. Later, he is expected to choose a career, trade, or profession, to leave the parental home, and to make his way. If at every hand there is the possibility of failure, the fear of failure will carry its burden of anxiety.

In regard to anxiety and self-concept formation, Redl and Wineman[1] argued that the child needs to be able to evoke positive self-concepts and acceptance from others. Their clinical studies of delinquent and maladjusted children showed that the destructive effects of rejection and lack of love on the self-concept may result in the atrophy of the ability to love and in what has been called a "fear of loving." In extreme cases, even when they were removed to environments of love and satisfaction, some delinquent children were unable to return the positive feelings extended toward them with anything but further hatred and hostility. In less extreme cases, the failure to evoke love results in anxiety, in a sense of uncertainty, threat, and personal inadequacy.

Whenever the individual takes on group values, some change in his self-hood or his self-concepts occurs.[2] Two important contributors to the understanding of the emergence of the self and self-concept within the "self-other" relationship are George Herbert Mead, often referred to as a pragmatist, and Sigmund Freud, the founder of psychoanalysis. Their views are by no means incompatible, but each stressed different aspects of the relation between the self and the social group. Mead emphasized the emergence of human rationality

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[1]Fritz Redl and David Wineman, Children Who Hate: The Disorganization and Breakdown of Behavior Controls (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1951), passim.

[2]Leonard Broom and Philip Selznick, Sociology (2d ed.; New York: Row, Peterson and Company, 1958), p. 86.

and creativity within the self-other relations. Freud, on the other hand, emphasized the repressive and frustrating aspects of group life. Where Mead was interested in the potentialities of society for freeing the individual, Freud was interested in the ways group life constrains and distorts the self. Both Mead and Freud divided the self into parts. Mead[1] saw the self as partly conventional, that is part of the self takes the attitudes and opinions of others into account or internalizes them. This part he called the "Me." It gives the self its basic structure and it is within this part some writers see the self-concept located. Mead saw another part of the self as spontaneous and creative. This part he called the active "I." Mead argued that if group life is rigid and restrictive the "Me" dominates the "I" and individuality is minimal. But under appropriate social and economic conditions, the "I" can actively and creatively influence and restructure the social process.

Freud[2] divided the self into the "id," "ego," and "super-ego." The "super-ego" seems to be equivalent to Mead's "Me." The "id" is essentially the biological core of the self that society tries to but never quite thoroughly domesticate. The "ego" is a kind of mediator trying to effect a compromise between the individual's biological needs

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[1]Mead, op. cit., p. 178.

[2]Sigmund Freud, An Outline of Psychoanalysis (New York: Norton, 1949), pp. 19, 121.

and the demands of society. Where Mead saw possibility of harmony between the "I" and the "Me" Freud saw the potentialities for conflict among the various parts of the self.

From these views can be derived at least three important ways in which self-concepts arise out of the self-other relationships.

1. Through interaction with others and through language, the individual comes to think of himself as an "I." As he perceives the attitudes of others toward this "I," he develops a self-concept. He takes on the view of himself from observing the way others respond to him. For this reason Cooley[1] spoke of a "looking-glass self" which he described as a three-stage process: self perceives its appearance as mirrored in the other--the behavior of others toward him is the mirror in which the individual sees himself; it perceives also the other's judgment of that appearance; and to this judgment self responds with the appropriate self-feeling, either negative or positive.

2. Self-other relationships create the ideal-self concept. From the attitudes of others toward himself, the individual also creates an image of what he ought to be in order to secure love, acceptance, or approval. The identification of the self with ideal values, goals, and roles is an important aspect of self-concept formation and socialization

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[1]Cooley, op. cit., p. 184.

because it helps sustain disciplines. On the other hand, if there is too great a discrepancy between the potentialities of the person and his ideal self or if the ideal self makes extreme and unrealistic demands, the result will be a sense of inadequacy and failure.

3. The self-other relationships create an ego which is the name for the integrative, controlling functions of the self. Therefore, the self-other relationships are directed toward creating a self capable of controlling and directing its own behavior.

The importance of self-concepts is most easily observed in pathological behavior, where self-other relationships have created a self-concept harmful to the person. In situations of neglect, deprivation, and rejection, the child may come to think of himself as inadequate, because he is unloved or unacceptable. In extreme situations he may develop self-hatred. The child who steals may be socially defined by others as delinquent, may come to identify himself as delinquent, and may seek out other delinquents to gain approval for his self-concept.

Perceptual Frame of Reference Regarding the Self

Perceptual theory supplies the theoretical frame of reference for this investigation. According to the literature, the perceptual point of view emerging and expressed by

Snygg[1] and Combs in 1949, under the title, Individual Behavior: A New Frame of Reference for Psychology, has come of age as one of the most virle and exciting movements in current psychology. Combs stated that in the last few years new developments in a perceptual approach to understanding behavior have occurred with such rapidity that, like Alice in Wonderland, one must run as fast as he can just to keep up. Almost every psychological journal reports new and intriguing studies bearing upon some aspects of the perceptual frame of reference.

The perceptual approach to understanding behavior seeks to understand behavior by making its observations from the point of view of the behaver himself. It attempts to understand the behavior of the individual in terms of how things seem to him. Its basic tenent is that people do not behave according to the facts as others see them. They behave according to the facts as they see or conceptualize them. What governs behavior from the point of view of the individual himself are his unique perceptions of himself, his life space, the world in which he lives, and the meanings things have for him. Snygg and Combs[2] called this frame of reference the

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[1] Donald Snygg and Arthur W. Combs, Individual Behavior: A New Frame of Reference for Psychology (New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1949), passim.

[2] Combs and Snygg, Individual Behavior: A Perceptual Approach to Behavior, op. cit., pp. 1-17.

"perceptual" or the "personal" or the "phenomenological," synonymously.

Several perceptual theory writers share the view that personality is dependent upon the need disposition of any given individual. Bills' view, in particular, serves as the theoretical base for the present study. He briefly described the theory as follows:

> This theory holds that behavior is consistent with a behaver's perceptions about the world in which he lives. His perceptions are influenced by several variables including: his needs and values, the presence or absence of threat, opportunities for experience with stimuli, the perceiver's physiological state, and his beliefs about himself and other people. These latter beliefs include factors such as self-concepts, concept of the ideal self, acceptance of self, and beliefs about other people's acceptance of themselves.[1]

Combs and Snygg[2] saw as the fundamental need in behavior the maintenance and enhancement of the phenomenal or perceived self. Lecky[3] stressed the drive to maintain or enhance the consistency of the core of the personality, the value system. Rogers[4] included physiological as well as psychological aspects in his "basic drive" and emphasized

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[1]Robert E. Bills, Index of Adjustment and Values: Manual for the Adult and High School Senior Form (Auburn: Department of Psychology, Alabama Polytechnic Institute, 1956), p. 5. (Mimeographed.)

[2]Combs and Snygg, op. cit., pp. 1-464.

[3]Prescott Lecky, Self-Consistency: A Theory of Personality (New York: Island Press, 1945), pp. 1-156.

[4]Carl R. Rogers, Client-Centered Therapy (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951), pp. 1-560.

the need to maintain or enhance self-organization. Stagner[1] maintained that the self functions as a perceptual object for the individual who, in turn, seeks to maintain perceptual constancy with regard to it.

Bills[2] acknowledged that many views of the perceptual approach to understanding behavior appear to have much in common insofar as they all emphasize "the basic need to preserve and enhance self-organization." He further suggested that the enhancement of psychological organization implies two characteristics: (1) that the individual has information relative to his present self-organization and (2) that the individual has a view of himself as he wishes to be. Raimy[3] referred to the former as the "self-concept" while Bills[4] designated the latter as the "concept of the ideal self."

Bills[5] asserted that much of an individual's behavior is "aimed at bridging the gap" between these two concepts. The amount of self-satisfaction the individual derives from whatever he does is directly related to the "difference he

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[1]Ross Stagner, "Homostasis as a Unifying Concept in Personality Theory," Psychological Review, LVIII (April, 1951), 5-17.

[2]Robert E. Bills, Edgar Vance, and Orison McClean, "An Index of Adjustment and Values," Journal of Consulting Psychology, XV (June, 1951), p. 257.

[3]Victor Charles Raimy, "Self Reference in Counseling Interviews," Journal of Consulting Psychology, XII (January-February, 1948), 154.

[4]Bills, Vance, and McClean, op. cit., p. 261.

[5]Ibid., p. 6.

perceives between his self-concept and his concept of his ideal self." Personal maladjustment exists when the discrepancy between the two is sufficiently large to cause unhappiness.

Bills[1] saw social maladjustment developing where an individual "perceives himself as more or less adequate than his peers." The socially adjusted person believes himself to be adequate in his worth, dignity and integrity and believes that other people have similar perceptions about themselves.

Impact of Socio-Economic Status on Self-Concepts and Learning Patterns of Children and the Challenge to Educators

Much evidence exists in the literature to support the belief that socio-economic status or environmental factors play an important role in developing individuals' self-concepts and learning patterns. So great is the impact of these influences that Dia wrote:

> The conception an individual forms of himself has a social reference. It generally takes the form of some kind of relation between the self and others. In this sense the conception of self may be thought of as a role one intends, or is expected, to play in a social situation. As a matter of fact, it is seldom possible to understand fully the meaning of any isolated trait or attitude, . . . except in terms of the role the individual is playing in a specific social situation, either actual or imaginary.
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> It follows from the foregoing that the nature of the self system an individual acquires in the course of socialization depends largely on the kind of

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[1] Ibid.

> personalities he is associated with and the culture after which his activities are patterned, what the significant people in the environment think of him and the ways in which the socialization program is carried out.[1]

With increasing heterogenity of school populations, with children coming from a multiplicity of family and cultural backgrounds, and with schools being constantly delegated more and more responsibilities by the larger society, it is essential that efforts be made to discover, where possible, psychological factors impinging on the learning process. Arguing from the data on self-concept, the view was expressed, at the Filene Conference entitled The Relationship of Education to Self-Concept in Negro Children and Youth, that the school should take deliberate steps to change the perceptions of disadvantaged youth as well as other students.[2] It was further suggested that all self-concepts are significant in understanding individuals, but those that are of greater concern to educators are the negative ones. The child with a negative view of self is a child who will not be able to profit adequately from school. Once a child is convinced he cannot learn in school, the task of educators becomes almost impossible. He may well make trouble for his

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[1]Bingham Dai, "Some Problems of Personality Development Among Negro Children," Personality in Nature, Society and Culture, eds. Clyde Kluckholn and Henry A. Murray (2d. ed.; New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1953), p. 547.

[2]William C. Kvaraceus, et al., Negro Self-Concept: Implications for School and Citizenship (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965), pp. 4-5, 29.

classmates, his teachers, and himself. A negative self-concept is just as crippling and just as hard to overcome as any physical handicap. It may be even more crippling because it is often hidden from the view of the untrained observer. Most children who hate themselves act out this self-hatred by kicking the world around them. They are abusive, aggressive, hard to control, and full of anger and hostility at a world which has told them that they are not valued, are not good, and are not going to be given a chance. Such attitudes often continue to cripple an adult life. It was hypothecated that no one kind of material nor one kind of program will suffice because children respond to materials differently. What will produce insight in one child may merely baffle another. A multiple approach using as many media as possible is more promising. To be really effective education will have to accept the task of dealing with the whole phenomenal field of the individual, or producing changes in perception of himself as well as in his perception of his environment. Jersild expressed the view that:

> Each person's self is something individual, yet it has a social origin. This fact has important meanings for education because many of the strongest social influences are brought to bear upon the child by way of his experiences in school.[1]

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[1]Jersild, In Search of Self, op. cit., p. 11.

And, in another instance, the same author amplified this view of environmental influences on development of self-concepts when he stated:

> The earliest experiences which influence the development of the self are experiences with people. The child's earliest self-appraisal is in terms of what others think and feel about him. The origins of the self are in the hands of "Significant" people.[1]

> If the "reflected appraisals" of which the self is made up are mainly derogatory, as in the case of a child whose parents do not want him, do not love him, have no interest in him as a person in his own right, then the growing child's attitudes toward whom the predominant attitude of significant persons has been one of hostility, disapproval, and dissatisfaction will tend to view the world in similar terms.[2]

McCandless was of the opinion that, if education and educators are truly interested in helping each individual develop as fully as he is inherently capable, serious effort must be exerted to understand how each individual values himself in his environmental setting. It was in keeping with this view that he made the following statement:

> It might be predicted that poor self-concepts, implying, as they often do, a lack of confidence in facing and mastering the environment, might accompany deficiency in one of the most vital of the child's areas of accomplishment--his performance in school.
>
> The Coopersmith study of fifth- and sixth-grade children . . . supports this prediction. For the children included in the study, a correlation of .36 was found between positive self-concepts and school achievement.[3]

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[1] Ibid., p. 12. [2] Ibid., p. 13.

[3] McCandless, op. cit., pp. 185-186.

Rogers contributed to the understanding of the problem by presenting a systematic accounting of the self-concept which he summarized as follows:

> As a result of interaction with the environment, and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others, the structure of self is formed--an organized, fluid, but consistent conceptual pattern of perceptions of characteristics and relationships of the 'I' or 'Me,' together with value attached to these concepts.
>
> As the individual interacts with his environment he gradually builds up concepts about himself, about the environment, and about himself in relation to the environment. While these concepts are non-verbal, and may not be present in consciousness, this is no barrier to their functioning as guiding principles . . . Intimately associated with all these experiences is a direct organismic valuing which appears highly important for understanding later development. The very young infant has little uncertainty in valuing. At the same time there is the dawning awareness of 'I' experience, there is also the awareness that 'I like,' 'I dislike,' 'I am cold and I dislike it,' 'I am cuddled and I like it,' 'I can reach my toes and find this enjoyable'--these statements appear to be adequate descriptions of the infant's experiences, though he does not have the verbal symbols which we have used. He appears to value those experiences which he perceives as enhancing himself, and to place a negative value on those experiences which seem to threaten his self or which do not maintain or enhance himself.
>
> There soon enters into this picture the evaluation of self by others. 'You're a good child,' 'You're a naughty boy'--these and similar evaluations of himself and of his behavior by his parents and others come to form a perceptual field. Social experiences, social evaluations by others, become a part of his phenomenal field along with experiences not involving others--for example, that radiators are hot, stairs are dangerous, and candy tastes good.[1]

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[1] Carl Rogers, Counseling and Psychotherapy (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942), pp. 498-499.

Von Mering called attention to the fact that, since about 1949, social scientists have made extensive efforts to unravel the complex role of self-valuation and the impact of the societal order upon it. He pointed out that substantial agreement exists that self-concepts and values appear in a setting of social interaction but he does not give credit to this social interaction for the exact content of systems of valuation. He believes that the exact content emerges from segments of society. He suggested the importance of keeping in mind the fact that:

> The emphasis on segments of society as the foci of the perceptual and cognitive orientation of individuals has become characteristic of much recent work in sociology and social anthropology. A growing general interest in the phenomenon of rapid societal differentiation has been accompanied by an accelerated emphasis on the detailed study of specific demands and expectations of particular groups or in groups, and of the related questions of personality development, social communication, and the formation of social perspectives, interests and goals.[1]

Sapir pointed out that, early in the 1930's there was increasing recognition of the part of some analysts of culture, of the impact of socio-economic status upon the self-concepts and learning patterns of children. Sapir[2] further stated that every individual is, in a very real sense, a

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[1]Otto von Mering, A Grammar of Human Values (Pittsburg: University of Pittsburg Press, 1961), p. 12.

[2]Edward Sapir, "The Unconscious Patterning of Behavior in Society, in the Unconscious," Cultural Anthropology and Psychiatry, Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, XXVII (1932), 229-242.

representative of a social class or at least one sub-culture which may be abstracted from the generalized culture of the group of which he is a member. According to Davis and Dollard,[1] many sociologists separate the United States population into three social classes: (1) the upper class--reasonably free of narrow conventions, but in general law-abiding; conscious to a greater or lesser degree of their own superiority, but secure enough not to need to call it to anyone's attention and secure enough to be reasonably free from acting in any self-conscious manner; (2) the middle class--ambitious, community-conscious, rather self-conscious; valuing education highly and having a hearty respect, by and large, for the status quo; and (3) the lower class--experiencing frustration and an established pattern of insecurity.

Riessman[2] explained that America is the land of the predominant middle-class which consists of approximations running from seventy to eighty per cent of the population. About five per cent may be found in the upper elite; but about twenty per cent live in the lethargy of poverty and squalor of slums in metropolitan areas and some in rural areas. Persons of the lower socio-economic groups are generally referred to as the "culturally deprived" or "disadvantaged"

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[1]Allison Davis and John Dollard, Children of Bondage (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1940), passim.

[2]Frank Riessman, The Culturally Deprived Child (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1962), pp. 1-9.

because they have had limited access to the advantages of middle-class culture. Ausubel[1] pointed out that characteristic of the culturally deprived environment is a restricted range and a less adequate and systematic ordering of stimulation sequences requiring incorporation, accommodation, adjustment, and reconciliation. The effects of this restricted environment include poor concepts and perceptual discrimination skills; inability to use adults as sources of information, correction, and reality testing, and as instruments for satisfying curiosity; an improverished language-symbolic system; and a paucity of information and relational propositions.

Goodman[2] stated that a large portion of the current disadvantaged population is composed of cultural and racial minorities, with a large per cent being Negro. Riessman[3] mentioned that the deprived culture is essentially male-centered, with the exception of a major section of the Negro sub-culture which is matriarchal. Weaver portrayed the mainstream of the deprived in the following way:

> Slums in American cities today house families which hold a wide range of values and evidence a variety of behavior patterns. Some are households with female heads and are stable none-the-less;

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[1]David P. Ausubel, "The Effects of Cultural Deprivation on Learning Patterns," Audiovisual Instruction, Theme: Media and Education of the Disadvantaged, X (January, 1965), 10.

[2]Paul Goodman, Growing Up Absurd (New York: Random House, 1960), p. 52.

[3]Riessman, op. cit., p. 26.

> others may be ungrammatical but adhere to high moral standards; still others evidence all the attributes of middle-class behavior and are dedicated to its values, if not recipients of its rewards. All three groups have ambition and talent, but fight an uphill battle in maintaining respectability and achievement for themselves and their children. . .[1]

Smith and VanderMeer[2] suggested that the disadvantaged are not, it should be noted, all doomed; many have risen and many more will rise from the slum ghetto to success and even to well-deserved fame. The challenge to educators is to help increase the chances that more will do so. "The fact that any can overcome the hardships and deprivations of a slum environment or lower socio-economic status should be sufficient to stop us if we are tempted to prejudge these people." All who are poor and ghettoized are not alike. They range enormously in abilities and attitudes toward "self" and "others." The change that is possible for the culturally disadvantaged is related to the change that is necessary for the advantaged.

Riessman[3] emphasized that one of the most pressing problems facing educators and the schools today is the "culturally deprived" child. The dimensions and urgency of the

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[1]Robert C. Weaver, "Human Values of Urban Life," Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science (May, 1960), pp. 33-34.

[2]Richard W. Smith and A. W. VanderMeer, "Media and Education of the Disadvantaged: A Taionale," Audiovisual Instruction, Theme: Media and the Education of the Disadvantaged, X (January, 1965), 8-9.

[3]Riessman, op. cit., p. 1.

problem are readily apparent when we note the fact that in 1960, approximately one child out of every three in the fourteen largest cities of the United States was deprived.

In discussing "Goals for Education," Heffernan[1] expressed the view that the status of the individual must remain our primary concern. All our institutions must further enhance the dignity of the citizen, promote the maximum development of his capabilities and "widen the range and effectiveness of opportunities for individual choice. . . . every child is precious and of value. . . the better we know children, the better can we serve them. . . . the child's self-concept (self-image) affects his achievement; he must think well of himself."

Brickner[2] presented the view that a person, whether child or adult, who is truly hungry or lives deprived of the basic necessities of human life--shelter, affection, a sense of belonging is not likely to become too deeply committed to the democratic ideal of respect for the rules of society or feel kindly toward the sophisticated notion of respect for an "other's" viewpoint, particularly when it is in conflict with his own.

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[1]Helen Heffernan, "Goals for Education," Childhood Education, XXXVIII (September, 1961), 4.

[2]Balfour Brickner, "In Pursuit of Democratic Goals," Childhood Education, XXXII (October, 1961), 51.

Roe[1] expressed the opinion that every youngster forms some sort of "self-picture." She stated that psychologists say that a child's self-picture is so significant because, once it is conceived, he acts it out. If poor or "disadvantaged," he may always think of himself as being inferior, whether it be true or not. A noble self-concept is vital to every young one. It determines, not only his behavior but his mental health, future success, and happiness. Roe reiterated that the following four objectives should be kept in mind as the child is growing up because each one is necessary to his self-portrait:

> 1. Help him develop a pleasing personality so that others will like him.
> 2. Encourage and help him achieve the goals that he feels are important.
> 3. Teach him self-control so that he does not do things which make him feel guilty.
> 4. Build up his self-esteem and personal status so that he does not have to envy others.[2]

In summary, it may be stated that the emotion of "envy" is a vicious tearing-down process because of the loss of self-esteem that goes with it. In this materialistic world, the child constantly compares himself with those who have more, possess greater talent or intelligence, or are prettier. So that a child will not compare too unfavorably with others, he should be assisted in developing positive self-concepts as well as talents and aptitudes. Without

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[1]Katherine H. Roe, "Your Child's Self-Picture," Childhood Education, XXXVIII (March, 1962), 333-336.

[2]Ibid., p. 335.

unduly emphasizing the material things of life he should, whenever possible, be given enough so as not to feel deprived. Family status does enter the picture in today's society. Since a child gets his self-concepts from reactions and attitudes of significant "others" around him, he needs to present his best "self" to the world. This would seem to suggest that he should be helped to improve in areas of social graces, cleanliness, the right clothes, a home in which friends are welcome, pleasant and broadening work experiences, self-confidence, self-understanding, and skill mastery. But these must be given in addition to respect and acceptance of him as a human being--not as substitutes for them if we would accept the challenge to help the child build a worthy self-concept as he matures.

Recent Investigations

A further analysis of the literature to locate examples of experimental methods employed to study self-concepts and socio-economic status of children tended to indicate that certain methods had been utilized most frequently. The most commonly used techniques reported for obtaining information about children and the variables cited include sociometric devices, projective type test and situations, a form of observation, variations of the interview, and questionnaires. The present study used the questionnaire technique of the

index type to assess the self-concept in terms of the evaluations of the children themselves.

Morgan,[1] in a study designed to find out some of the factors that influence social status and social reputation of children in the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth grades, concluded the level of the father's income to be one factor that affected the social relationships of children. His findings pointed to the positive relation between the level of the father's income and the social relationships of children in the community studied. Children whose fathers had higher occupational prestige tended to be preferred in social participation and were ascribed more favorable social reputations.

Sears[2] reported a study attesting to the significant differences that exist in the life orientation of the middle-class and lower-class child. As a part of the study, he made socio-economic status comparisons between mothers of the two social classes. His various comparisons implied that middle-class mothers were more permissive in four of the five major areas of socialization investigated and which have an impact upon self-concept formation, i. e., toilet training, dependency, sex training, and aggression, and they were less

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[1]Gerthon Morgan, "Social Relationships of Children in a War-Boom Community," Journal of Educational Research, XL (December, 1946), 285.

[2]Robert E. Sears, Eleanor E. Maccoby, and Harry Levin, Patterns of Child Rearing (Evanston: Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1957), pp. 432-433.

punitive toward changes in behavior in their children. They were relatively less object-oriented in their punishment techniques, and less restrictive about vigorous activity in the home and free-ranging exploration out of it. Middle-class mothers were warmer toward their children, more comfortable with themselves, and had a more concordant relationship with their husbands, as far as child rearing was concerned.

The studies of Davis and Havighurst,[1] while upholding the conclusions set forth by Sears and others, found enough evidence to clearly indicate that middle-class families are more rigorous than lower-class families in their training of children for feeding and cleanliness habits, an indication that was a mere suggestion in some of the other studies.

Pope[2] concerned himself with social behavior values in certain socio-economic groups of twelve-year-old children. He pointed out that within each group the various patterns of values are pressures to which the individual members are subjected, and with which they must conform if they wish to be accepted. Although these pressures are group manifestations, they are generated, in the first place, by the individual members, in their interpersonal relations. Pope indicated that

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[1]Allison Davis and Robert J. Havighurst, "Social Class and Color Differences in Child Rearing," American Sociological Review, XL (December, 1946), 525.

[2]Benjamine Pope, "Socio-Economic Contrasts in Children's Peer Culture Prestige Values," Genetic Psychology Monographs, XLVIII (November, 1953), 157-220.

the use of Hartshorne and May's "Guess Who" tests gave results that permitted him to conclude that decidedly significant differences were in the prestige values of the peer culture of high and low socio-economic status groups of twelve-year-old boys and girls.

Taylor and Combs[1] put to test the hypothesis which declared the self-concept adequate in the degree to which it is capable of accepting into its organization any and all aspects of reality. Given two groups of children, one better adjusted than the other by some external criterion, they hypothesized that the better-adjusted children would be able to accept more damaging statements about themselves than would the poorer adjusted children. A list of statements that seemed to be "probably true" of all children, yet damaging to self if admitted, were administered to their subjects. They found that the better-adjusted group checked significantly more items than did the poorer-adjusted group.

Bruce[2] studied the self-ideal discrepancies of 184 sixth-grade children, drawn from eight sixth-grade classes. Compared with the children who had low self-ideal discrepancy scores, the self-dissatisfied subjects were significantly

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[1]Charles Taylor and Arthur W. Combs, "Self-Acceptance and Adjustment," Journal of Consulting Psychology, XVI (April, 1952), 89-91.

[2]Paul Bruce, "Relationship of Self-Acceptance to Other Variables with Sixth-Grade Children Oriented in Self-Understanding," Journal of Educational Psychology, XLIX (1958), 229-238.

more anxious on the Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale. He concluded that self-acceptance can be reliably measured among sixth-grade children. He defined self-acceptance as a lack of discrepancy between a child's own self-concept and the concept of an ideal-self, and also a congruence between the progress-toward-ideal-self and the ideal-self.

Anderson[1] used Bills' Index of Adjustment and Values to gain insight into how the self-concepts and values of two hundred-fifty-four upper-lower to lower-middle class Negro boys and girls, in predominantly Negro schools of Lexington, Kentucky, compared with the subjects of Bills' "norm group." The present investigation is similar to the Anderson study in that both made use of the IAV and have a socio-economic orientation. However, both studies are distinctly different in their basic purposes, the way in which socio-economic status was determined, and in the number of facets of the self-concept explored. Anderson employed "occupation," the one more conventional variable, to define his social classes. The present study utilized four symbolic status characteristics from which the socio-economic index was determined. The four characteristics were occupation, source of income, house type, and dwelling area. In his study, Anderson was concerned with investigating the relative importance of the thirty-five

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[1]Leroy F. Anderson, "Adjustment and Values Among 6th Grade Students" (unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, Department of Education, University of Kentucky), pp. 27-82.

IAV trait words in the value system of the sixth-grade pupils by comparing their scores with those of Bills' "norm group."

Bills[1] has conducted various studies in an effort to determine the personal and behavioral characteristics of people with different scores on the IAV. As a result of his studies, he felt justified in stating:

> People with above average discrepancy scores will show more Rorshach signs of depression than people with below average discrepancy scores, that people with below average acceptance-of-self scores will report more psychosomatic symptoms than people with acceptance-of-self scores above the mean, and that people with below average acceptance-of-self scores blame themselves for their unhappiness and failure whereas people with acceptance-of-self scores above the mean blame circumstances, themselves, and other people.[2]

Other interpretations which may be made from the IAV responses concern self and self-other concepts. Bills stated that "recent research shows that people can be grouped roughly according to their perceptions of themselves and their peers."[3] The first group consists of those who accept themselves and feel that others in their peer group are equally or more accepting of themselves. Those people are referred to as (+ +). The second group is comprised of people who reject themselves

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[1]Bills, Index of Adjustment and Values, op. cit., p. 13.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Robert E. Bills, About People and Teaching, XXVII, (Lexington: Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky, December, 1955), p. 20.

but feel that others in their peer group are more accepting of themselves. Persons exhibiting these responses on the IAV are referred to as (- +). The third group consists of those who accept themselves but believe that others in their peer group are not as accepting of themselves. Persons in this category are referred to as (+ -). People who reject their own selves and believe that others reject themselves even more are placed in a fourth group and referred to as (- -).

Bills cited other research in which he was concerned with only the first three IAV categories:

> Research has shown the + + people are democratic individuals who have a high regard for the dignity, worth, and integrity of people, including themselves, and faith in the efficiency of group action. To a lesser degree the - + holds these same beliefs and attitudes but cannot believe that people are as worthy as does the + + because of his attitudes toward himself. The + - person will obviously rank lowest in these ideals.[1]

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[1] Ibid., 21.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES AND SOURCES OF DATA

This chapter affords an overview of the major procedures used to achieve the purpose of this study. Factors related to the preliminary planning phases, the testing instruments used for collecting the data, the sample chosen for the research, administration of the tests, and the locale and school setting of the study are discussed.

Preliminary Planning

The first step in the development of the research was an examination of the literature. This involved extensive reading on the generalized topic of self-concepts of children, socio-economic status, social process, and perceptual theory. This reading preceded the crystallization and final choice of the problem for this study. The selection of the problem was followed by a review of literature related specifically to the variables chosen. The review of this literature is presented in Chapter II.

The second step was the securing of permission from the proper officials to make the study. All individuals contacted agreed to cooperate.

The third step was to make a thorough analysis of possible techniques for securing and quantifying data for the study. In selecting and devising instruments, the criteria used were (1) the appropriateness of adequate norms, validity, and reliability, (2) the practicality of the instruments with reference to the time required and the singly derived scores, (3) the ease of administration and ease with which the information collected could be used, (4) techniques for obtaining thoughtful and accurate responses, and (5) precautions to avoid suggesting desirable or expected answers.

The fourth step constituted the selection of measuring instruments for use in inferring self-concepts and socio-economic status. The testing instruments used to collect data for this study were (1) Warner's Index of Status Characteristics, utilized by means of the investigator's (2) Questionnaire for Sixth-Graders in Public Schools of Richmond County, Georgia, and (3) Bills' Index of Adjustment and Values, Junior High School Form for "Self" and "Others."

Description of Instruments

Index of Status Characteristics

The Index of Status Characteristics,[1] created by William Lloyd Warner, formerly of Chicago University and

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[1]For further description of the instrument see: William Lloyd Warner, American Life (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1953), p. 60; William Lloyd Warner, et al., Social Class in America (Chicago: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1960), pp. 39-248.

presently of Michigan State University and his associates, is a rating system based on four easily obtained and comparatively objective social characteristics. They are occupation, source of income, house type, and dwelling area.

Scores or ratings have been assigned in a way to take into account (1) that people rate certain occupations, sources of income, and so forth, as better than others when it comes to determining social class, and (2) that the four factors vary in importance in determining a person's social class. The sum of the combined scores for the four characteristics becomes an index of any given individual's or a family's class position. See the Warner rating scales in Appendix A, Tables A-1 and A-2.

In the Warner Index of Status Characteristics, occupations of parents or head of the family were categorized according to a revision of the classification made by Edwards[1] for the United States Census and divided workers in the labor force into seven socio-economic groups as follows: (1) professional workers and executives of large businesses, (2) semi-professionals and assistant managers and officials of business enterprises, (3) lesser professional and business workers and contractors, (4) foremen, clerks and kindred workers, (5) skilled workers and tenant farmers,

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[1]Walter Greenleaf, Occupations (Washington, D. C.: United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1954), p. 71.

(6) semiskilled workers, and (7) unskilled workers. Warner was in agreement with Edwards who stressed the importance of occupation as a socio-economic indice, in the following manner:

> The most nearly dominant single influence in a man's life is probably his occupation. More than anything else, perhaps, a man's occupation determines his course and his contribution in life. . . . There is no other single characteristic that tells so much about a man and his status--social, intellectual, economic--as does his occupation.[1]

Scores on the Warner Index of Status Characteristics vary from 12 (very high socio-economic status) to 84 (very low status). The total range and social class equivalents may be found in Appendix A, Table A-3. The Index may be used in the numerical form, if only an index of socio-economic status is desired. For estimating social-class position, a conversion into social-class terms such as upper class, upper-middle class, lower-middle class, upper-lower class, and lower-lower class is necessary. The Index of Status Characteristics was used as a model, in this study, for measuring and inferring socio-economic status of the Negro pupils.

Questionnaire for Sixth-Graders in Public Schools of Richmond County, Georgia

This instrument was devised by the investigator, in keeping with the Warner Index of Status Characteristics, in a

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[1]Alba Edwards, Comparative Occupation Statistics for the United States, Sixteenth Census of the United States, (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1943), p. xi.

manner appropriate to the subjects' grade level. It was styled similarly to the Petty Orientation Questionnaire: Adjustment Problems of Pupils Entering University High School.[1] The basic purpose of the questionnaire was to collect data for use in establishing an index of status characteristics in accord with the methodology described by Warner and associates. A list of directions was developed and appended to the questionnaire in order to facilitate its administration. See Appendix A.

The Index of Adjustment and Values

The Junior High School Form for "Self" and "Others" of the Index of Adjustment and Values was used in this study to measure self-concepts. It was designed by Robert E. Bills[2] and others in 1957 and has been described as "an instrument that can . . . assess current status of the perceptions of self and other people." This instrument is a well-known example of the self-report type and yields separate scores designed to measure the variables of "real" self-concept, self-acceptance, ideal self-concept, discrepancy between "real" self-concept and ideal self-concept, and one's perceptions of how other people accept themselves. In addition, the Index yields measures of the importance of each of

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[1]Mary Clare Petty, "Adjustment Problems of Pupils Entering University High School," Texas Journal of Secondary Education, III (Winter, 1950), 15-19.

[2]Robert E. Bills, op. cit., pp. 5-6.

the thirty-five different trait words in a person's value system.

The thirty-five trait words used as indices in this instrument were compiled from visits to public school classrooms to ask several questions. Examples of these questions were, "What do you like most about yourself? What do you like least about yourself? Give me the one word you think of when I say, 'mother,' 'father,' 'teacher,' and 'principal'?" From the catalogue of words compiled in this fashion a list was selected for initial trial. The selected words were the most frequently given personal attributes. The trial form was later revised both for form and, on the basis of item analysis, for stimulus words.

The content validity of the Index of Adjustment and Values is dependent upon the method which was used to obtain the words. All of the trait words were obtained from children at appropriate grade levels. Bills stated that these are words which children use to describe themselves and other people (see Appendix B). Concurrent validity for the "Self" and "Others" forms makes it apparent that these two forms are not measures of the same thing.

Bills[1] cited tables to indicate that reliability of the "Self" and "Others" Forms of the Junior High School Index of Adjustment and Values has been proved to be fairly high.

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[1] Ibid., pp. 11-14.

He also pointed out that judged on the basis of reliability alone, the Index of Adjustment and Values is a useful instrument. Most any classroom teacher can employ it to obtain measurement of the variables which are important to personality development. It can also be helpful as a tool for evaluating curricular and teaching method effect.

Research Sample

The selection of the sample constituted the fifth step in the study. The subjects used as the basic sample for this study were 1,004 Negro boys and girls enrolled in Grade 6. Of this number, 482 or 48 per cent were boys and 522 or 52 per cent were girls. Ages of the subjects ranged from ten years to fifteen years, eight months. The youngest boy was ten years, six months old and the youngest girl was ten years of age. The oldest boy was fourteen years, eleven months old and the oldest girl was fifteen years, eight months old. A breakdown of the sample by sex and schools is presented in Appendix D, Table D-1.

The sample was derived from a sampling of all thirty-four regular sixth-grade classrooms with a total population of 1,069 in twelve Public Elementary Schools for Negroes of Richmond County, Georgia. The large sample of 94 per cent of the total population was drawn by selecting all sixth-graders enrolled in the regular sixth-grade classes and in attendance at their respective schools on days the tests were given.

The testing schedule embraced dates from December 14, 1964 through January 16, 1965, with the Christmas Holidays intervening.

Of the basic sample, a subsample of 992 subjects was drawn for statistical analysis of their data in the portion of the investigation dealing with testing of the hypotheses. The subsample was obtained by excluding the twelve subjects placed in the upper socio-economic status group according to their characteristics as revealed by the Warner Index of Status Characteristics. The upper socio-economic status group was considered too small to permit sophisticated statistical analysis.

The sixth-grade was selected for the research because pupils at this level retain some of the uninhibited qualities of earlier childhood to cause them to generally respond spontaneously and honestly. They seem to lend themselves particularly well for a study of the type undertaken by this research, because they are actively engaged in broadening their perceptions of others, especially, of their peers.[1]

Administration of the Tests

The sixth step of the study was the administration of the tests. Prior to the administration of the tests, orientation conferences were held, at each of the twelve participating

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[1]Robert J. Havighurst, Developmental Tasks and Education (New York: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc., 1950), pp. 17, 33-35.

schools, with the principal and teachers of the sixth-graders included in the sample of this study. Dates for administration of the tests were arranged cooperatively for the convenience of the schools.

All tests were administered to the total sample in group stituations with the assistance of classroom teachers so that the pupils would consider the tests as part of their classroom program and feel more at ease in taking them, thus making the tests more valid. When the subjects felt that they had completed the questionnaires, they were briefly checked by the teachers to make sure that all information had been supplied by the respondents and in good condition for use by the investigator.

The Questionnaire for Sixth-Graders in Public Schools of Richmond County, Georgia was administered first. This was followed by Bills' Index of Adjustment and Values. In the order in which the instruments were administered, they were tabulated, analyzed, computed, and coded. All tests were labeled according to ISC ratings of the subjects, compiled by schools, and socio-economic status. The schools' data were later combined and the papers separated in a manner suited to the various analyses made by the study.

Treatment of Data

The descriptive and statistical treatments accorded the data were selected for their relevance to the data to be

analyzed and the purpose of the study. The statistical treatment involved the use of analysis of variance, using F values, to determine significant differences between mean total scores of the two socio-economic status groups of this study. Chi-square was used to evaluate the frequency of subjects rated in the IAV categories (+ +), (- +), (+ -), and (- -), with respect to the middle and lower socio-economic status. Chapter IV presents an analysis of statistical findings.

The final stage of the investigation involved interpretation of the results and presentation of conclusions and implications drawn from the findings. These are presented in Chapter V.

Locale of the Study

This portion of the chapter presents, from a socio-economic standpoint, a general description of the locale from which the sample for this study was drawn. The setting for this study is Richmond County, Georgia, a region comprising approximately three hundred twenty-five square miles in Southeastern Georgia. Its county seat is the Metropolitan City of Augusta, the fourth largest in Georgia. Augusta is situated at the head of navigation of the Savannah River, which serves as the boundary line between Georgia and South Carolina from its headquarters to the sea. "Many of the area citizens enjoy

a unique 'duality' as residents living in one state, working in the other with satisfaction."[1]

Augusta and its surrounding territory was long known as a cotton center. In 1793, Augusta gained its right to claim the title of the "Birthplace of the Cotton Industry," during the same year Eli Whitney invented the first cotton gin, only a few miles from Augusta.[2]

During the Reconstruction period, Augusta and Richmond County faced the necessity of making readjustment to a new mode of life. Paramount to all else in the scene of the time was the large number of "free" Negroes. This was probably due to their exclusion from other states and to Augusta's leniency in the enforcement of ordinances against them.[3] In his study, Jones[4] cited that, in 1845, there were 440 "free" Negroes in a total population of 7,502 and they served the community as barbers, blacksmiths, brickmasons, carpenters, draymen, hired laborers, and piano tuners. A few owned grocery stores. The influx of white craftsmen and workers from

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[1]Augusta Chamber of Commerce, "Augusta, Georgia and the Augusta Metropolitan Area," Augusta (Augusta: Georgia, 1960), p. 3.

[2]Frank Vernon Jones, "Education of Negroes in Richmond County, Georgia, 1860-1960" (unpublished Master's thesis, School of Education, Atlanta University, 1962), pp. 47-48.

[3]Federal Writers Project, Augusta (Augusta: Tidwell Printers, 1938), p. 84.

[4]Jones, op. cit., p. 36.

Europe just before 1850 caused keen competition between the two groups and half of the "free" Negroes moved away by 1850. As business became better and jobs more plentiful during the next decade "free" Negroes began to move to Augusta again. By 1860, they numbered 386 persons and, in addition, there were 3,663 slaves.[1]

In 1860, Augusta was listed as the second largest city in Georgia. With a population of 12,493, it was among the 102 cities in the United States with ten thousand or more inhabitants. Florence Corley[2] commented that a visitor could meet people of several nationalities. One out of every five white residents was foreign born, with Irish and German being the most numerous of the non-native groups. Negroes comprised nearly one-third of the population, at that time.

Jones[3] pointed out that according to the 1960 Census, the population of Richmond County included 605 Chinese, 42,503 Negroes, and 92,483 whites. The Augusta Chamber of Commerce presented a statistical review, for 1963, of the population for Augusta, Georgia and the Augusta Metropolitan area as follows: (1) Corporate Augusta 70,626; (2) Augusta

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[1]Florence Fleming Corley, Confederate City (Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 1960), p. 14.

[2]Ibid., p. xiii.

[3]Jones, op. cit., pp. 51=52.

Metropolitan area 219,000; and (3) Richmond County, Georgia 143,232 (estimated).[1]

In 1940, a total of 110,089 acres or 52.9 per cent of the total Richmond County land acres was utilized for farming. In 1945, this had decreased to 81,739, or 39.3 per cent of the total land area of the county. This decrease in acreage came about mostly from the establishment of Fort Gordon in an area that had been used for farm land.[2] In 1963, the Augusta Chamber of Commerce reported that of the 208,000 acres of land in Richmond County, 42,500 acres were used for agricultural purposes and there were 228 farms.[3]

Today, Richmond County is primarily an industrial community, drawing heavily upon the more than one hundred manufacturing establishments for its economic support. Included in the industrial complex are the largest Draper Plant in the world--Homestead Draperies, Marks Oxygen Company, Continental Can Company's bleach board paper mill, Procter and Gamble detergents plant, American Cryogenics, Monsanto Chemical Company, Lily Tulip Cup Corporation, Murray Biscuit

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[1]Augusta Chamber of Commerce, "Some Highlights on the Progress of Augusta and the Central Savannah River Area," Report to the Membership (Augusta: The Chamber of Commerce of Augusta, Georgia, December 31, 1963), p. 30.

[2]Omer Clyde Aderhold, et al., A Survey of Public Education in Richmond County, Georgia (Athens: University of Georgia, 1950), p. 8.

[3]The 1963 Augusta Chamber of Commerce Report to the Membership, loc cit.

Company, Ez-Go Car Company, concrete products companies, brick and tile companies, and textile factories. Fort Gordon and the Savannah River Plant, an atomic energy division of Dupont, in the Central Savannah River Area, play an important part in giving economic strength to Richmond County.

The City of Augusta is launched upon an Urban Renewal Program. Its first renewal project commenced in 1963 with redevelopment in the light industrial and commercial areas. New housing developments have been established.

The government type of Richmond County is that of the Board of Commissioners. The type of city government is that of Mayor and Council, with its first Negro citizen elected in 1964.

The locale of this study is noted as a medical center. Embraced in the medical facilities are the state operated Talmadge Memorial Hospital, county operated University Hospital, St. Joseph Catholic Hospital, Gracewood State Hospital, the only one in Georgia for the mentally retarded, Lenwood and Oliver General Veteran Administration Hospitals, and the Military Fort Gordon Station Hospital.

The pattern of schools in Richmond County is based on the 6-3-3 plan. The schools represented by the sixth-graders used as the subjects of this study are, in effect, on the 7-2-3 plan. In three of these schools, work is carried on at the eighth-grade level, due to the over-crowded conditions.

Generally, in the locale of the study, the junior high schools contain the eighth, ninth, and tenth grades.

According to facts established by the January 8, 1965 County Superintendent's School Enrollment and Attendance Report, there were forty-nine public schools in Richmond County, including area trade and vocational schools, distributed over the city and county as follows: for Negro children, there were thirteen elementary schools, two junior high schools, three high schools, and one vocational school. For white children, there were twenty-two elementary schools (integration permitted in the first three grades), four junior high schools, three high schools, one vocational school, and one Area Trade School. The total enrollment in the schools was listed as 32,763. In Negro Public Elementary Schools, there were 8,006 pupils with a 93 per cent average daily attendance; in the junior high, the high schools, and vocational school, there were 4,045 students, with a 93 per cent average daily attendance. In the Public Elementary Schools for whites, there were 13,501 pupils, with a 95 per cent average daily attendance; in the junior high schools, high schools, vocational school, and the Area Trade School, there were 7,211 students, with a 93 per cent average daily attendance.

Other educational facilities in Richmond County, the locale of this study, consist of private grade and high schools as follows: Parochial (Catholic) three grade and two high schools, including one of each for Negro children; one

Pre-Grade Hebrew School; one Episcopalian (integrated); one Christian Non-Denominational School with grades one through seven; one Non-Sectarian Augusta Preparatory School. In addition, there are: one Negro private college (Methodist); one white college (public); Medical College of Georgia; the University of Georgia, Augusta Center for Junior and Senior level extension courses; two Schools of Nursing; American University, four years for Fort Gordon associated military personnel and dependents of civilian personnel. There are five public libraries and two private supported libraries with a total of 140,000 volumes, There are eight radio stations and two television channels.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF DATA

This chapter is concerned with the presentation of a descriptive and statistical analysis and interpretation of the data. In Chapter I reference was made that the problem of this study was to examine self-concepts of selected Negroes enrolled in Grade 6 in Public Schools of Richmond County, Georgia, with respect to socio-economic status. The three subproblems involved and the six questions posed as a framework for operational procedures were listed (see page 8). Cited in this chapter are the findings related to these questions and information relevant to testing the hypotheses.

Socio-Economic Status

Index of Socio-Economic Status

The first question asked in the research was what is the socio-economic status of the subjects as measured by and inferred from the results of the Warner Index of Status Characteristics? This question was premised upon three assumptions: (1) the existence of class status structure in the community, (2) that class status positions are determined mainly by a few commonly accepted symbolic characteristics,

and (3) that the Warner Index of Status Characteristics could meet the need for an objective scale to measure and infer socio-economic status individuals occupy in the status structure of the community.

To answer the first question, an index of socio-economic status based on four characteristics was computed for each subject in the sample. The four characteristics of status were (1) occupation of the subject's father or other person serving as head of the family, (2) source of income, (3) house type, and (4) dwelling area. To obtain the index for any given subject, appropriate ratings were assigned, for him, on each of the four status characteristics. The ratings were made with the use of Warner's seven-point scales (see Appendix A, Tables A-1 and A-2. The scales ranged from a rating of "1" very high status, to a rating of "7," very low status value. Once the scale ratings were determined, each status factor was multiplied by the appropriate weight which expressed the importance of that particular status characteristic in the socio-economic status prediction. The weighted ratings were then totaled and the numerical results were considered to be the index of socio-economic status. The resultant indexes fell between the "scale" range from 12 to 84. The lower the rating, the higher the status was considered to be; conversely, the higher ratings denoted lower class status. The calculation for one subject's index of socio-economic status is shown in Table 1. This sample index was based on a

TABLE 1

DETERMINATION OF A SUBJECT'S INDEX OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS BASED ON STATUS CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FAMILY HEAD

Status Characteristics	Scale Value	Weight of Characteristics	Partial Rating[a]
Occupation	6	4	24
Source of Income	5	3	15
House Type	4	3	12
Dwelling Area	6	2	12
Numerical Index of Socio-Economic Status			63[b]

[a]The partial rating is the scale value multiplied by the weight of the characteristic.

[b]The number is the weighted total score from which the composite Index of Socio-Economic Status was derived.

subject whose father was a semiskilled mill worker receiving his major income from weekly wages, depending on the number of hours worked. The family lived in an average condition house located in a low, run-down area.

Social-Class Equivalents for the Index

The Conversion Table of Social-Class Equivalents prescribed by Warner in the Index of Status Characteristics was used in converting the subjects' numerical indices of socio-economic status into "social-class" equivalents. See Appendix A, Table A-3. The operationally determined socio-economic "classes" which emerged from use of the Warner procedures were presumed to be a reasonably accurate estimate of the socio-economic status of the subjects. Of the 1,004 subjects used as the sample in this investigation, 12 or 1.2 per cent were placed in the upper class socio-economic status group, 66 or 6.6 per cent in the upper-middle class socio-economic group, 472 or 47.0 per cent in the lower-middle class socio-economic group, 341 or 34.0 per cent in the upper-lower class socio-economic group, and 113 or 11.2 per cent in the lower-lower class socio-economic group according to their characteristics as determined through the use of the Warner Index of Status Characteristics and the Questionnaire for Sixth-Graders in Public Schools of Richmond County, Georgia. Table 2 clarifies the socio-economic status of the subjects.

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF NEGROES ENROLLED IN GRADE SIX IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF RICHMOND COUNTY, GEORGIA BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

Schools	Number of Class Sections	Upper-Class (12-23)[a]	Upper-Middle Class (25-37)	Lower-Middle Class (38-53)	Upper-Lower Class (54-66)	Lower-Lower Class (67-84)	Total Sub-jects
Collins	6	1	10	92	65	6	174
Craig	2	0	0	31	23	11	65
Floyd	3	2	6	35	43	14	100
Graham	2	0	1	20	20	18	59
Griggs	2	2	5	30	23	13	73
Hornsby	3	1	11	50	10	4	76
Jenkins	1	0	3	12	11	2	28
Telfair	2	2	2	21	19	6	50
Tutt	2	0	14	27	6	0	47
Walker	5	3	7	60	65	30	165
Weed	2	0	5	32	25	3	65
White	4	1	2	62	31	6	102
Totals	34	12	66	472	341	113	1,004
Per cent	100	1.2	6.6	47.0	34.0	11.2	100

[a]Figures in parentheses represent the range of weighted total ratings of the four status characteristics.

The ISC data clearly indicated that the Negroes enrolled in Grade 6 were from differing socio-economic status. Twelve or 1.2 per cent were in the upper class as compared with the 113 or 11.2 per cent in the lower-lower class. Sixty-six or 6.6 per cent were in the upper-middle class and 341 or 34.0 per cent were in the upper-lower class. The lower-middle class, the largest one, was represented by 472 sixth-graders or 47.0 per cent of the total sample. These findings indicated that the family background of the subjects tended to cluster around lower-middle and lower class standards of living. This could mean "on-going" uncertainty, insecurity, and cultural disadvantage of the subjects and their families.

While it is in keeping with the national trend to find the smallest percentage of individuals holding upper class status, it was surprising to find such a small percentage in the upper socio-economic group discovered in this study. It is generally agreed that the locale of this study is noted for many "old-families" among Negroes. The above finding could infer that the "old-families" are decreasing in numbers. It could mean that many children who represent the "old-families" are enrolled in the Negro private school of the community or in private schools of neighboring communities. If children from such families are attending private schools, the reason for this fact must be explained. Does the attendance at the private schools serve, primarily, as a

status symbol; or is it due to a strong belief that the private schools provide a higher quality of instruction and curricula offerings than are provided by the public schools?

Component Characteristics of the Index

Occupation.--One of the components of the Warner Index is occupation of family head. The professions and other jobs were rated and ranked, into different groups, by their level of skill and prestige value required. The businesses were ranked by their sizes, and economic strengths. The ratings were determined by the positions the variables held on Warner's revised seven-point occupational scales (see Appendix A, Table A-2). Table 3 presents a general summary of the distribution of the subjects by social-class placement and occupational ratings.

An inspection of Table 3 shows that no individual with an occupational rating of more than 2 appeared in the upper class; that no individual with an occupational rating of 1, 2, 3, or 4 appeared in the lower-lower class. Individuals with a rating of 5 were found in each of the social-class groups except the upper class group. It was interesting to note that this finding is similar to the finding reported by Warner[1] in his initial Jonesville study. It is

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[1]W. Lloyd Warner, Marchia Meeker, and Kenneth Eells, Social Class in America: A Manual of Procedure for the Measurement of Social Status (Harper Torchbook ed.; New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1960), pp. 121-175.

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL SAMPLE OF SIXTH-GRADERS BY SOCIAL-CLASS PLACEMENT AND RATINGS ON OCCUPATION OF THE FAMILY HEAD

Social Class	Ratings on Occupations[a]							Total Sub-jects
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Upper Class	10	2						12
Upper-Middle Class	6	8	20	23	9			66
Lower-Middle Class		4	13	91	254	81	29	472
Upper-Lower Class				4	102	105	130	341
Lower-Lower Class					4	11	98	113
Totals	16	14	33	118	369	197	257	1,004
Per Cent	1.6	1.4	3.3	11.7	36.8	19.6	25.6	100

[a]Definition of ratings on occupations: (1) Professionals; (2) Semi-professionals; (3) Lesser professionals, proprietors of small business, contractors, clerks and kindred workers; (4) Above medium-skilled workers; (5) Medium-skilled workers; (6) Semi-skilled workers; (7) Unskilled workers.

evident in Table 3 that 369, the largest number, or 36.8 per cent of the subjects represented family heads whose occupations cluster around medium-skilled workers. The second largest number of 257 or 25.6 per cent was rated 7 and fell in the unskilled category.

The data showed that the largest single groups of occupations represented by the subjects, based on their family heads were as follows: 112 or 11.2 per cent were classified as working in domestic service; 86 or 8.6 per cent were truck, taxi, or bus drivers; 64 or 6.4 per cent were cooks in restaurants or school lunchrooms; 56 or 5.6 per cent were brick and tile workers; 42 or 4.2 per cent were janitors; 34 or 3.4 per cent were railroad, machine shop, and automotive workers; 34 or 3.4 per cent were nurses' aides; 33 or 3.3 per cent were in the United States Army; 30 or 3 per cent were brick masons; 30 or 3 per cent were mill or factory workers; 25 or 2.5 per cent were construction workers; 25 or 2.5 per cent were carpenters, painters, or roofing workers; 20 or 2 per cent were laundry or dry cleaning workers; 16 or 1.6 per cent were teachers; and 16 or 1.6 per cent were yard or golf course workers. The remaining 37.7 per cent of the subjects, based on their family heads, were distributed occupationally, ranging from 0.8 per cent to 0.1 per cent, as follows: barbers, bartenders, beauticians, butchers, business operators of small establishments, cement workers, cotton block workers, counter attendants, doctors, elevator operators, farmers,

foremen, glazers, mail carriers, ministers, molders, piano player for night club, policemen, printer, salesmen, shipping clerks, social workers, tailors, welders, and wood and log cutters. Others were miscellaneous workers dealing with food and dairy products and work at wholesale and retail establishments. Fifteen family heads were unemployed.

The occupational data indicated that of the total sample, 171 or 17.1 per cent had mothers or other female persons as their family heads. Within this group, 30 male heads of the family were reported deceased.

Source of Income.--The source of family income for the total sample of sixth-graders is depicted by the ratings as shown in Table 4. Five hundred eight-one or 58 per cent of the Negro pupils enrolled in Grade 6 received a rating of 5 which indicated that the family heads received wages on an hourly or daily basis. Two hundred thirty-five or 23.5 per cent had income which fell in the category of a fixed salary paid on a monthly or yearly basis. Ninety-three or 9.3 per cent received their income from public welfare and non-respectable sources, 41 or 4 per cent received income from services rendered, 30 or 3 per cent received income from private relief, 19 or 1.9 per cent received income from profits, and 5 or 0.5 per cent had income which resulted from inheritance. Wages paid on an hourly basis were most frequently mentioned by the lower-middle, upper-lower, and lower-lower classes. Fixed salary paid on monthly or yearly basis

TABLE 4

DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL SAMPLE OF SIXTH-GRADERS BY SOCIAL-CLASS PLACEMENT AND RATINGS ON SOURCE OF INCOME OF THE FAMILY HEAD

Social Class	Ratings on Source of Income[a]							Total Sub-jects
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Upper Class	1	5	3	3				12
Upper-Middle Class	2	9	14	26	15			66
Lower-Middle Class	2	5	22	138	286	11	8	472
Upper-Lower Class			2	65	220	15	39	341
Lower-Lower Class				3	60	4	46	113
Totals	5	19	41	235	581	30	93	1,004
Per Cent	0.5	1.9	4.1	23.5	57.7	3.0	9.3	100

[a]Definition of Ratings on Source of Income: (1) Inherited wealth; (2) Earned wealth; (3) Profits and fees; (4) Fixed salary; (5) Wages paid on daily or hourly basis; (6) Private relief; (7) Public welfare and non-respectable income (15 family heads were unemployed).

was mentioned by all five social-classes, but was least mentioned by the upper class and lower-lower class. Incomes from private relief and public welfare or non-respectable incomes were most frequently mentioned by the upper-lower and lower-lower classes.

House Type.--The distribution of the total sample of sixth-graders by social-class placement and rating on house type of the family is shown in Table 5. Inspection of the table shows that the type of houses in which the subjects and their families lived ranged from a rating of 1 or excellent to a rating of 7 or very poor. Three hundred and seven or 31 per cent lived in very good houses, 292 or 29.1 per cent lived in average houses, 149 or 14.8 per cent lived in excellent houses, 74 or 7.4 per cent lived in poor houses, and 37 or 3.7 lived in good houses. The largest number of the Negro pupils enrolled in Grade 6 reported that the type of house in which they lived was in very good condition.

Sixth-graders of each of the five social-classes reported living in excellent houses. The upper class Negroes lived in houses ranging from excellent to very good. The upper-middle group lived in houses ranging from excellent to very good and from average to poor. The lower-middle group lived in houses ranging from excellent to fair. The upper-lower and lower-lower classes lived in houses ranging from excellent to very poor houses.

TABLE 5

DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL SAMPLE OF SIXTH-GRADERS BY SOCIAL-CLASS PLACEMENT AND RATINGS ON HOUSE TYPE OF THE FAMILY

Social Class	Ratings on House Type[a]							Total Sub-jects
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Upper Class	9	3						12
Upper-Middle Class	28	32		4	1	1		66
Lower-Middle Class	97	216	16	128	15			472
Upper-Lower Class	14	52	20	137	68	39	11	341
Lower-Lower Class	1	4	1	23	29	34	21	113
Totals	149	307	37	292	113	74	32	1,004
Per Cent	14.8	30.6	3.7	29.1	11.2	7.4	3.2	100

[a]Definition of Ratings on House Type: (1) Excellent houses; (2) Very good houses; (3) Good houses; (4) Average houses; (5) Fair houses; (6) Poor houses; (7) Very poor houses.

Dwelling Area.--Table 6 presents a picture of the distribution of the total sample of sixth-graders by social-class placement and ratings on dwelling area. The largest number, 256 or 25.5 per cent received a rating of 4 which indicated that they lived in average residential neighborhoods, with no deterioration in the area. The second largest group of 220 or 22.8 per cent reported living in below average areas, beginning to deteriorate, and business entering. The data revealed that the sixth-graders of each social-class socio-economic status group except the upper class reported that they lived in below average areas. Two hundred twenty-one or 22 per cent of the subjects reported that they lived in most desirable dwelling areas. This group included Negroes of each social-class except the lower-lower class. Sixth-graders of the lower-lower class and their families lived in areas ranging from above average, all residential and apartment areas in good condition to areas of very low reputation in the eyes of the scientific observer. The data showed that no dwelling area represented was exclusively occupied by any one social-class group.

Self and Self-Other Concepts

The second question asked, for examination by the research, was what self and self-other concepts do the subjects reveal as measured by Bills' Index of Adjustment and Values? These concepts are considered to be the way they saw

TABLE 6

DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL SAMPLE OF SIXTH-GRADERS BY SOCIAL-CLASS PLACEMENT AND RATINGS ON DWELLING AREA OF THE FAMILY

Social Class	Ratings on Dwelling Area[a]							Total Sub-jects
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Upper Class	1	2		1				12
Upper-Middle Class	40	8	2	7	7		2	66
Lower-Middle Class	148	31	76	130	73	13	1	472
Upper-Lower Class	24	8	39	109	110	47	4	341
Lower-Lower Class			3	9	39	55	7	113
Totals	221	49	120	256	229	115	14	1,004
Per Cent	22.0	4.9	12.0	25.5	22.8	11.4	1.4	100

[a]Definition of Ratings on Dwelling Area: (1) Best residential areas; (2) Better suburbs and apartment house areas; (3) Above average residential areas, larger than average space around houses; (4) Average residential areas; (5) Below average; beginning to deteriorate, business entering; (6) Low; considerably deteriorated; (7) Very low; much deteriorated and run down.

themselves, at the time of the investigation, and the way they believed other members in their peer group accepted themselves, respectively, in terms of the thirty-five IAV "trait" words as reflected through their scores of the IAV. The higher the scores, the more positive the self and self-other concepts were considered to be. Conversely, the low scores indicated negative self and self-other concepts and poor adjustment. A more pointed interpretation of the self and self-other concepts are presented in the section of this chapter dealing with testing the hypotheses.

The IAV was used to measure the following dimensions of the self-concept: (1) "real" self-concept (Column I), (2) self-acceptance (Column II), (3) "ideal" self-concept (Column III), (4) discrepancy between "real" self-concept (Column I) and "ideal" self-concept, (5) self-other concept (Column II) of the IAV "Others" Index, and (6) IAV categories. Tables showing the distribution of scores and frequencies of the upper class, middle class, and lower class socio-economic status groups for the self-concept dimensions listed above are presented in Appendix C, Tables C-1 to C-16.

The directions suggested by Bills were used to determine the subjects' IAV scores. Scores for the subjects' "real" self-concept (Column I), self-acceptance (Column II), and "ideal" self-concept (Column III) were obtained by adding the ratings of each of the columns. For example, in (Column I) the subject took the "trait" word "successful" and

applied it to himself. Then he decided how much of the time this word was like him and then indicated his decision by placing a check mark under the most appropriate one of the three possible answers. The three possible answers were: "Most of the time, I am like this," "About half of the time, I am like this," and "Hardly ever, I am like this." These responses were rated numerically, "3," "2," and "1," respectively. For instance, if the response to the "trait" word "successful" were "1" the subject was saying "Hardly ever am I a successful person." Similar computations were made for the self-other concept (Column II) of the "Others" Index. The sixth-graders' responses to this column, however, were made on the basis of their beliefs about how other members of their peer group accepted themselves. The ratings in (Columns I, II, III), and (Column II) of the "Others" Index were totaled. Their sums indicated the "Real" self-concept, self-acceptance, "ideal" self-concept, and self-other concept scores, respectively. These scores were used as the basis from which the self and self-other concepts were inferred as those revealed by the sixth-graders of this investigation. The minimum possible score and the maximum possible score that could be made, by a subject on each of the columns or self-concept dimensions, were 35 and 105, respectively.

"Real" Self-Concepts

The IAV data indicated that the "real" self-concept (Column I) scores for the upper socio-economic status group ranged from 72 to 105, with a difference of 33 between the lowest and highest score. For the middle socio-economic status group, the range was from the minimum low of 35 to the maximum high of 105, with a difference of 70 between the lowest and highest score. For the lower socio-economic status group, the scores ranged from 51 to the high of 105, with a difference of 54 between the lowest and highest score. The widest difference between the lowest and highest score was shown by the middle socio-economic group. Five pupils of this group made the minimum low score of 35.

Self-Acceptance

The self-acceptance (Column II) scores for the upper status group ranged from 88 to 105, with a difference of 17 between the lowest and highest score. For the middle status group, the range was from 53 to 105, with a difference of 42 between the lowest and highest score. For the lower status group, the range was from 46 to 105, with a difference of 59 between the lowest score and highest score. People with below average self-acceptance scores tend to report more psychosomatic symptoms than people with self-acceptance scores above the average. People with below average self-acceptance scores tend to blame themselves for their unhappiness and failure

whereas people with self-acceptance scores above the average blame circumstances, themselves, and other people.[1]

"Ideal" Self-Concepts

The "ideal" self-concept (Column III) scores for the upper socio-economic status group ranged from 88 to 105, with a difference of 17 between the lowest score and highest score. For the middle socio-economic status group, the range was from 61 to 105, with a difference of 44 between the lowest and highest score. For the lower socio-economic status group, the range was from 50 to 105, with a difference of 55 between the lowest and highest score. The high scores indicated high aspirational levels and the low scores inferred low aspirational levels.

Discrepancy Between "Real" and "Ideal" Self-Concepts

The discrepancy score for any subject was the total of the numerical difference between his "real" self-concept (Column I) ratings and the "ideal" self-concept (Column III) ratings. The discrepancy scores for the upper socio-economic status group ranged from 0 to 32. For the middle status group, the range was from 0 to 43. For the lower status group, the range was from 0 to 40. The discrepancy scores and their frequency of occurrence within the upper, middle,

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[1]Robert E. Bills, Index of Adjustment and Values: Manual for the Adult and High School Senior Form (University: College of Education, University of Alabama, 1964), p. 13.

and lower socio-economic status groups are included in Appendix C. The high discrepancy scores of the sixth-graders inferred a presence of self-concepts that exemplified tendencies to show more Rorschach signs of depression than pupils with low discrepancy scores.[1] Low discrepancy scores indicated greater self-satisfaction.

Self-Other Concepts

The self-other concept (Column II) of the "Others" Index scores for the upper socio-economic group ranged from 78 to 105, with a difference of 27 between the lowest and highest score. For the middle socio-economic group, the range was from 55 to 105, with a difference of 50 between the lowest and highest score. For the lower socio-economic status group, the range was from 64 to 105, with a difference of 41 between the lowest and highest score. The self-other concept (Column II) of the "Others" Index scores for the upper, middle, and lower socio-economic status groups are shown in Appendix C. If the subject's self-other concept scores were above average and similar to his self-acceptance scores, this indicated that his social adjustment was possible. Social adjustment was possible where a subject believed he was adequate in his worth, dignity and integrity, and where he believed that his peers had similar perceptions of themselves as reflected in his above average or positive self-other and

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[1] Ibid., pp. 13, 68.

self-acceptance scores. On the other hand, social maladjustment was possible where a subject perceived himself as more or less adequate than his peers.[1]

Research Subsample

From the basic sample of 1,004 Negroes enrolled in Grade 6 in Public Schools of Richmond County, Georgia, a subsample of 992 was drawn and the data were analyzed statistically in this portion of the investigation. The subsample was obtained by excluding the data of the twelve subjects placed in the upper socio-economic status group according to their characteristics as revealed by Warner's Index of Status Characteristics. The upper socio-economic status group was considered too small to permit sophisticated statistical analysis.

For statistical treatment of the data, the subsample was arranged into two socio-economic status groups as follows: (1) the middle socio-economic status group of 538 subjects comprised of the combined 66 upper-middle and 472 lower-middle class subjects and (2) the lower socio-economic group of 458 subjects comprised of the combined 341 upper-lower and 113 lower-lower class subjects. Table 7 shows the distribution of the subsample by school, number of class sections represented, and socio-economic placement.

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[1] Ibid., p. 6.

TABLE 7

DISTRIBUTION OF THE SUBSAMPLE OF NEGROES ENROLLED IN GRADE SIX IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF RICHMOND COUNTY, GEORGIA BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

Schools	Socio-Economic Placement			
	Number of Class Sections	Middle Class (25-53)[a]	Lower Class (54-84)	Total Sub-jects
Collins	6	102	71	173
Craig	2	31	34	65
Floyd	3	41	57	98
Graham	2	21	38	59
Griggs	2	35	36	71
Hornsby	3	61	14	75
Jenkins	1	15	13	28
Telfair	2	23	25	48
Tutt	2	41	6	47
Walker	5	67	95	162
Weed	2	37	28	65
White	4	64	37	101
Totals	34	538	454	992
Per Cent	100	54	46	100

[a]Figures in parentheses represent the range of weighted total ratings of the four status characteristics.

Testing Hypotheses

Differences Between "Real" and "Ideal" Self-Concepts of Socio-Economic Status Groups

The third question asked by the research was what is the difference between the "real" self-concepts of the middle and lower socio-economic status groups? And the fourth question was what is the difference between the "ideal" self-concepts of the middle and lower socio-economic status groups? To determine the answer to both questions, it was necessary to test the null hypothesis, that mean total scores from the Index of Adjustment and Values would not be significantly different for the two socio-economic status groups. To test this hypothesis, analysis of variance was applied to the self-concept scores for "real" and "ideal" self-concepts of the middle and lower socio-economic status groups. The analysis of variance used is a statistical procedure recommended by Edwards.[1] The F values were utilized in determining significant differences between total mean scores of the middle and lower socio-economic status groups. Because of the statistical technique employed, it was desirable to have an equal number of subjects in each group. Since the smaller group was comprised of 454 subjects, 84 cases from the middle socio-economic group were selected by a table of random

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[1]Allen L. Edwards, Experimental Design in Psychological Research (New York: Rinehart and Company, Incorporated, 1950), pp. 284-296.

numbers and excluded.[1] Tables C-6, C-7, and C-8 in Appendix C show the frequencies of cases selected and excluded from analysis of variance. As shown in Table 8, it was found that the obtained F values between socio-economic status, self-concepts, and the interaction of self-concepts by socio-economic status were of significant values. So it is apparent from an examination of these data that the self-concept means do differ. There is a significant mean difference between the "real" self-concept and "ideal" self-concept of Negro children enrolled in Grade 6 as measured by the IAV. The children possessed a higher "ideal" self-concept than "real" self-concept. The greater mean difference between "real" self-concept and "ideal" self-concept was indicated for the middle socio-economic status group. The discrepancy between the "real" self-concept and "ideal" self-concept was greater for the middle socio-economic status group than for the lower status group. This finding inferred a presence of self-concepts that exemplified tendencies to show higher aspirational levels were evidenced to a greater degree by the middle socio-economic status group than by children of the lower socio-economic status group. This finding confirmed similar findings of class-related trends documented by other studies using white children. Among these are those by Kohn.[2]

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[1] Ibid., pp. 20-22.

[2] Melvin L. Kohn, "Social Class and Parental Values," American Journal of Sociology, LXIV (January, 1959), 352-366.

TABLE 8

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SELF-CONCEPT SCORES OF MIDDLE AND LOWER SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS OF NEGROES ENROLLED IN GRADE SIX

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Totals	209,105.955	1,815		
Between Subjects	130,812.955	907		
Between Middle and Lower Socio-Economic Status	1,544.186	1	1,554.186	10.89*
Error (Residual)	129,258.769	906	142.670	
Within Subjects	78,293.000	908		
"Real" and "Ideal" Self-Concepts	4,050.081	1	4,050.081	50.28*
Self-Concepts by Socio-Economic Status (Interaction)	1,268.899	1	1,268.899	15.75*
Error	72,974.020	906	80.545	

* $P < .01$

It was noted from the data that the lower socio-economic status group did have a higher "ideal" self-concept than "real" self-concept.

Difference in Frequency of Subjects in IAV Categories of Socio-Economic Status Groups

The fifth question asked by the research was what is the difference between the self-other concept of middle socio-economic status and lower socio-economic status groups? And the sixth and final question was how do the subjects compare with respect to IAV categories (+ +), (- +), (+ -), and (- -) when grouped according to socio-economic status? To determine the answers to both questions, the next analyses undertaken were directed at the hypothesis of IAV categorization by socio-economic status. This involved IAV categorical designations of the subjects and an evaluation of the number of subjects who were rated (+ +), (- +), (+ -), and (- -) in terms of performance on the IAV with respect to middle and lower socio-economic status groups.

IAV Categorical Designations.--The self-other concepts of the subjects have meaning, only, in terms of IAV categories. Procedures used in making the IAV categorical designations of the subjects were those outlined by Bills.[1] To determine the IAV categories, the subjects' scores for self-acceptance (Column II) and self-other (Column II) of the

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[1]Bills, loc. cit., p. 10.

"Others" Index were considered together and comparisons were made with the mean or norm of 88.33 which had been established for pupils of Grade 6. The first of each pair of signs representing the IAV categories refers to the self-acceptance (Column II) score. The second sign of the pair refers to the self-other (Column II) score. A (+ +) pupil, in this investigation, has a self-acceptance (Column II) score of 89 or more and a self-other (Column II) score equal to or greater than the self-acceptance score. A (- +) pupil has a self-acceptance (Column II) score of 88 or less and a self-other (Column II) score equal to or greater than the self-acceptance (Column II) score. A (+ -) pupil has a self-acceptance (Column II) score of 89 or more and self-other (Column II) score less than the self-acceptance (Column II) score. A (- -) pupil has a self-acceptance (Column II) score of 88 or less and a self-other (Column II) score less than the self-acceptance (Column II) score. Table 9 shows the distribution of the subjects by socio-economic status and their respective numbers and percentages falling with the IAV categories.

Pupils of the socio-economic status groups in the (+ +) category are considered to be accepting of themselves and feel that others in their peer group are equally or more accepting of themselves. The (- +) pupils in the status groups tend to reject themselves but feel that others in their peer group are more accepting of themselves. Pupils designated as (+ -) tend to be accepting of themselves but

TABLE 9

DISTRIBUTION OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUPS BY NUMBER AND PERCENTAGES IN IAV CATEGORIES

IAV Categories	Socio-Economic Status Groups			
	Middle-Class		Lower-Class	
	N	%	N	%
+ +	149	28	92	20
- +	76	14	102	23
+ -	239	44	186	41
- -	74	14	74	16
Totals	538	100	454	100

feel that others in their peer group are not as accepting of themselves. The (- -) pupils tend not to be accepting of themselves and feel that others in their peer group have similar negative feelings concerning themselves. Data in Table 9 shows that there are 149 or 28 per cent pupils of middle class socio-economic status as compared to 92 or 20 per cent of lower class socio-economic status in the (+ +) category. This finding indicates that more sixth-graders of the middle socio-economic group are accepting of themselves than of the lower status group. Seventy-six or 14 per cent middle status pupils and 102 or 23 per cent lower status pupils are in the (- +) category. This finding shows that more lower status pupils tend to reject themselves than middle status pupils. In the (+ -) category, there were 239 or 44 per cent middle status pupils and 186 or 41 per cent lower status pupils. In the (- -) category, there were 74 or 14 per cent middle status pupils and 74 or 16 per cent lower status pupils.

Comparison of Socio-Economic Status Groups with Respect to IAV Categories.--The differences between the number of subjects who were rated (+ +), (- +), (+ -), and (- -) in terms of performance on the IAV, with respect to middle and lower socio-economic status groups, were evaluated by means of the chi-square tests. The formula employed was $X^2 = \Sigma \frac{(o - e)}{e}$ by Garrett.[1] The (o - e) refer to the difference between the

[1]Henry E. Garrett, Elementary Statistics (2d. ed.; New York: David McKay Company, Incorporated, 1962), p. 148.

observed and expected entry or frequency. The o refers to observed entry; the e refers to expected entry. The e is obtained by the formula $\frac{\Sigma k \times \Sigma r}{\Sigma N}$, k being the sum of columns and r being the sum of rows in the table used. This study utilized a 2 x 4 contingency table of 4 columns and 2 rows. Two additional columns were added for the totals. There were 3 degrees of freedom, df = (4 - 1) (2 - 1) = 3, by Garrett's formula of (k - 1) x (r - 1) = df. A chi-square value of 16.87, which was statistically significant beyond the .01 level of significance, was obtained. This finding suggests that there is a difference between the middle and lower socio-economic status groups in terms of IAV categories. The resuls are summarized in Table 10. The .01 level of significance indicates that the observed distribution of the middle and lower socio-economic status groups in the IAV categories would occur, by sampling error alone, no more than 1 time in 100.

In view of this finding, the frequencies of subjects by category were converted for the middle and lower socio-economic groups were then evaluated by means of the critical ratio. The value of the critical ratio was computed, based on Garrett's[1] formula, as follows:

$$C.R. = \frac{P_1 - P_2}{SE_{P_1 - P_2}} \quad \text{where } P = \frac{N_1P_1 + N_2P_2}{N_1 + N_2} \text{ and } Q = (1 - P)$$

N = number of cases in group 1

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[1] Ibid., pp. 135-138.

TABLE 10

FREQUENCY OF SIXTH-GRADERS IN THE MIDDLE AND LOWER SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUPS BY IAV CATEGORIES

Socio-Economic Classification	IAV Categories				Total
	+ +	- +	+ -	- -	
Middle-Class	149[a]	76	239	74	538
	(130.7)[b]	(96.5)	(230.5)	(80.3)	
Lower-Class	92	102	186	74	454
	(110.3)	(81.5)	(194.5)	(67.7)	
Totals	241	178	425	148	992

[a]Observed frequencies are all numbers not in parentheses.

[b]Expected frequencies are all numbers in parentheses.

$X^2 = 16.87$ (statistically significant beyond the .01 level of significance)

$df = 3$

$P < .01$

N = number of cases in group 2

P = percentage of cases in group 1

P = percentage of cases in group 2

$SE_{P_1 - P_2}$ = standard error of the difference between two independent percentages

The results of this analysis are summarized in Table 11.

The percentage of (+ +) middle socio-economic status pupils is 28 and 20 for the lower status pupils, with a difference of 8 per cent between the percentages for the two socio-economic groups. The percentage of cases in the (+ +) category was found to be significantly larger for the middle socio-economic status pupils than for the lower class group. This data indicated that, to a greater degree, the middle class socio-economic status group exemplifies positive self and self-other concepts. The sixth-graders in this group have a high regard for the dignity, worth, and integrity of people, including themselves, and faith in the efficacy of group action. The finding could mean that the middle socio-economic status pupils tended to demonstrate behaviors that are indicative of self-concepts and concepts-of-others that are based on internalized standards of conduct. Studies by Kohn,[1] as well as others, have explored and documented the view that middle class parents usually emphasize internalized standards of conduct in their children to a greater degree

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[1]Melvin L. Kohn, "Social Class and Parental Values," American Journal of Sociology, LXIV (January, 1959), 337-351.

TABLE 11

FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF CASES BY IAV CATEGORIES AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUPS

IAV Categories	Socio-Economic Status Groups				Difference of %'s	P_1-P_2	C.R.	P
	Middle-Class		Lower Class					
	N	%	N	%				
+ +	149	28	92	20	8	2.73	2.93	.05*
- +	76	14	102	23	9	2.45	3.93	.05*
+ -	289	44	186	41	3	3.13	0.96	NS**
- -	74	14	74	16	2	2.26	0.88	NS**
Totals	538	100	454	100				

* $P < .05$

**Not significant.

than lower socio-economic status parents. The finding of the present study may reflect middle class parental influence upon the middle socio-economic status pupils.

For the (- +) category, the percentage of cases was significantly larger for the lower socio-economic status group. This finding indicated that, to a greater degree, the lower socio-economic status pupils tended to reject themselves but felt that others in their peer group were more accepting of themselves. Because of their negative self-concepts, the (- +) pupils tended not to believe that people are as worthy as do the children of the (+ +) category. These negative self-concepts could result from the impingement of their devalued socio-economic status.

For the (+ -) category, the per cent was 44 for the middle socio-economic status group and 41 for the lower socio-economic class, with a difference of 3 between the percentages of the frequency of pupils in the two groups. The statistical analysis of the data indicated that there was no significant difference between the percentage of middle socio-economic status pupils and the percentage of lower socio-economic status pupils in the (+ -) category. This finding denoted that, to about the same degree, pupils of both socio-economic status groups in this category tend to be accepting of themselves but feel that others in their peer group are not as accepting of themselves.

For the (- -) category, the per cent of cases was 14 for the middle socio-economic status group and 16 for the lower socio-economic group, with a difference of 2 between them. The percentages between the socio-economic groups for IAV category (- -) failed to differentiate significantly. Pupils of both groups, in this category, tended not to accept themselves and felt that others in their peer group had similar negative feelings concerning themselves.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The problem of this study was to examine self-concepts of Negroes enrolled in Grade 6 in Public Schools of Richmond County, Georgia, with respect to socio-economic status. The following subproblems were involved: (1) the determination of the socio-economic status of the subjects, (2) the determination of the self-concepts of the subjects, and (3) the determination of the relationship of self-concepts and socio-economic status of the subjects.

Specifically, as a result of this study, it was hoped that some information could be obtained toward answering the following questions:

1. What is the socio-economic status of the subjects as measured by and inferred from the Warner Index of Status Characteristics?

2. What self and self-other concepts do the subjects reveal as measured by Bills' Index of Adjustment and Values?

3. What is the difference between the "real" self-concepts of middle class and lower class socio-economic status groups?

4. What is the difference between the "ideal" self-concepts of middle class and lower class socio-economic status groups?

5. What is the difference between the self and self-other concepts of middle class and lower class socio-economic status groups?

6. How do the subjects compare with respect to IAV categories (+ +), (- +), (+ -), and (- -) when grouped according to socio-economic status?

The problem was premised upon two basic assumptions. It was assumed that Bills' Index of Adjustment and Values and Warner's Index of Status Characteristics have been sufficiently tested to demonstrate their precision to measure self and self-other concepts and socio-economic status, respectively. Therefore, these instruments were used to collect data for the study. It was further assumed that variations in socio-economic status would affect the proportions of subjects exhibiting certain self and self-other concept categories as indicated by the IAV.

On the basis of these assumptions the following null hypotheses were formulated: (1) There is no statistically significant difference between mean total scores for the middle socio-economic group and the lower socio-economic group on the following dimension of the IAV: "Real" Self-Concept (Column I) and "Ideal" Self-Concept (Column III) and (2) There is no statistically significant difference in the frequency of

subjects falling in the IAV categories (+ +), (- +), (+ -), and (- -) by socio-economic status.

The research was of the normative survey type. It used a basic sample of 1,004 Negroes enrolled in Grade 6, from a population of 1,069. Of the basic sample, a subsample of 992 subjects was drawn. These subjects were separated into the middle and lower socio-economic status groups based on their ISC scores and the data were analyzed statistically.

Analysis of variance, using F values, was used to determine significant differences between mean total scores of the two socio-economic status groups of the study. The probability level used was $P < .01$ level of confidence. Chi-square was used to evaluate the frequency of subjects rated in the IAV categories (+ +), (- +), (+ -), and (- -), with respect to middle and lower socio-economic status. The frequencies of subjects by IAV categories were converted to percentages where critical ratio was used to evaluate the differences between percentages for the middle and lower socio-economic status groups.

Findings

The major findings derived from this study are as follows:

1. The data indicated that the Negroes enrolled in Grade 6 in Public Schools of Richmond County, Georgia, were from differing socio-economic status. The largest number was

lower-middle class. The second and third largest numbers were upper-lower class and lower-lower class, respectively. Proportionately fewer sixth-graders were in the upper class and the upper-middle class, with the smallest number in the upper class.

2. The first, second, and third highest percentages or number of family heads represented by the sixth-graders were classified as medium-skilled workers, unskilled workers, and semi-skilled workers, respectively. Fewer family heads were found in occupations classed as professionals, semi-professionals, business executives, foremen, and clerks.

3. The data showed that the largest single groups of occupations held by the family heads, ranging from the largest to the smallest, were as follows: (1) domestic service workers; (2) truck and taxi drivers; (3) cooks in restaurants or school lunchrooms; (4) brick, tile, and clay products workers; (5) janitors; (6) railroad, machine shop, and automotive workers; (7) practical nurses or aides; (8) United States Army; (9) brick masons; (10) mill and factory workers; (11) construction workers; (12) carpenters, painters, or roofing workers; (13) miscellaneous workers dealing with food and dairy products, and work at wholesale and retail establishments, (14) laundry and dry cleaning workers, (15) teachers; (16) yard and golf course workers; (17) trained nurses; and (18) ministers. Occupations represented by a few family heads were as follows: barbers, bartenders, beauticians, butchers, business

operators of small establishments, cement workers, cotton block workers, counter attendants, doctors, elevator operators, farmers, foremen, glazers, mail carriers, molders, piano player for night club, policemen, printer, salesmen, shipping clerks, social workers, tailors, welders, and wood and log cutters. Fifteen family heads were unemployed.

4. One hundred seventy-one mothers or other females were heads of the families represented by the sixth-graders and important in the labor force, mostly as domestic service workers. Within this group, thirty male family heads were reported deceased.

5. Wages paid on an hourly or daily basis were the most frequently mentioned source of family income represented by the sixth-graders of the lower-middle, upper-lower, and lower-lower classes. Fixed salary paid on monthly or yearly basis was mentioned by each of the five socio-economic status groups, but least mentioned by the upper-class and lower-lower class. Money from private relief and public welfare or non-respectable incomes were most frequently mentioned by the upper-lower and lower-lower socio-economics status groups.

6. The types of houses in which the sixth-graders and their families lived ranged from excellent to very poor, with the largest number living in very good houses or apartment housing projects. Sixth-graders of the upper class, upper-middle class, lower-middle class, upper-lower class, and lower-lower class reported living in excellent houses or

apartments in housing projects. The upper-middle socio-economic status group lived in houses ranging from excellent to very good and from average to poor. The lower-middle group lived in houses ranging from excellent to fair. The upper-lower and lower-lower groups lived in houses ranging from excellent to very poor.

7. There was no dwelling area exclusively occupied by any one socio-economic status group. The largest number of sixth-graders was found to live in average dwelling areas. The second largest number was found to live in below average dwelling areas, beginning to deteriorate, with business entering. With the exception of the upper-class Negroes enrolled in Grade 6, some sixth-graders of the middle and lower socio-economic status groups lived in below average dwelling areas. The lower-lower class group lived in areas ranging from above average, all residential and apartment dwelling areas in good condition, to areas of very low reputation in the eyes of the scientific observer.

8. The findings indicated that "real" self-concepts of the upper-class, middle-class, and lower-class socio-economic status groups of sixth-graders ranged from the more positive views of self or very high self-regard to below average or negative views of self. The widest range of "real" self-concepts was exemplified within the middle class socio-economic group, whose scores ranged from maximum to minimum. No sixth-graders of the upper or lower status groups made the

possible minimum score which indicated the poorest self-regard.

9. Some sixth-graders in each socio-economic status group tended to accept themselves and exemplify as much satisfaction with their concepts-of-self as perhaps people in general. The data indicated that the self-acceptance scores for the upper class Negroes ranged from 88 to the possible high of 105, with a difference of 17 between their lowest and highest scores. For the sixth-graders of middle class status, the range was from 53 to the maximum score of 105, with a difference of 42; and for the lower socio-economic status group, the range was from 46 to the possible high of 105, with a difference of 59 between the highest and lowest score.

10. The data indicated that a difference existed between the "real" self-concepts and the "ideal" self-concepts of the sixth-graders with the greatest significant mean difference noted for the middle class socio-economic group, which showed a larger discrepancy between their "real" self-concepts and "ideal" self-concepts. It was evident that the lower class sixth-graders, as a group, tended to exemplify more self-satisfaction than the middle class.

11. High "ideal" self-concepts or high aspirational levels existed among the sixth-graders of each socio-economic status group. The "ideal" self-concept scores for the upper class pupils ranged from 88 to the high of 105, with a difference of 17 between the scores; for the middle class

sixth-graders, the range was from 61 to 105, with a difference of 44 between the scores; for the lower class socio-economic status group, the range was from 50 to the maximum high of 105. The data showed that while the lowest aspirational level was noted, to a greater degree, among Negroes of the lower socio-economic group, some Negroes of this same group tended to exemplify, by their responses, an aspirational level that rated as high as that of the upper and middle socio-economic status groups.

12. There was a difference between the middle and lower socio-economic status groups in terms of IAV categories. The percentage of cases in the (+ +) category was significantly larger for the middle socio-economic status pupils than for the lower status group. A higher percentage of middle socio-economic status pupils tended to exemplify the more positive self-concept and concept of others in their peer group than the lower socio-economic status pupils. A larger percentage of middle socio-economic status pupils tended to have a high regard for the dignity, worth, and integrity of people, including themselves, and faith in the efficacy of group action than the lower socio-economic status pupils.

13. The percentage of cases in the (- +) category was significantly larger for the lower socio-economic class than for the middle class. To a greater degree, the lower socio-economic status group tended to reject themselves but felt that others in their peer group were more accepting of

themselves. Because of their negative self-concepts, the (- +) pupils tended not to believe that people are as worthy as do the children of the (+ +) category.

14. There was no significant difference between the percentage of middle and lower socio-economic status groups in the (+ -) category. To about the same degree, pupils of both socio-economic status groups in the (+ -) category were accepting of themselves but felt that others in their peer group were not as accepting of themselves.

15. The percentages between the middle and lower socio-economic status groups for IAV category (- -) failed to differentiate significantly. To about the same degree, the Negro pupils of both socio-economic status groups, in this category, rejected themselves and felt that others in their peer group had similar negative feelings concerning themselves.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are supported by the findings derived from this study:

1. This study supports the generally accepted but inadequately tested theory that socio-economic status has a major role in the development of self-concept.

2. The socio-economic background of the subjects is keyed more to lower-middle and lower class standards of living. This conclusion is justified by the fact that the smallest percentage of the Negro children enrolled in Grade 6 were

of upper class socio-economic status. The first, second, and third largest percentage of the sixth-graders were of lower-middle class, upper-lower class, and lower-lower class status, respectively. This may mean "on-going" uncertainty, insecurity, and socio-economic disadvantage of the Negro pupils and their families.

3. Although it was in keeping with the national trend to find the smallest percentage of individuals holding upper class status, it was somewhat surprising to find such a small per cent of 1.2 in the upper socio-economic group discovered in this study. It is generally agreed that the locale of this study is noted for many "old families" among Negroes. It could be inferred from the above finding that the "old families" may be decreasing in numbers and it could mean that some children who represent the "old families" are enrolled in the private school for Negroes of the community or in private schools of neighboring communities. If children from such families are attending private schools, the reason for this fact must be explained. Does the attendance at the private schools serve, primarily, as a status symbol; or is it due to a strong belief that the private schools provide a higher quality of instruction and curricula offerings than are provided by the public schools?

4. The fact that the first, second, and third highest percentages or numbers of the sixth-graders represent family heads whose occupations are classed as medium-skilled

workers, unskilled workers, and semi-skilled workers, respectively, points to the need for professional staffs to place greater emphasis in the future on vocational counseling and encouragement of the students to place a high value on education and what it can do for them. It seems evident that this conclusion could be drawn when considered in light of the generally accepted view that children tend to reflect the occupational and aspirational levels of their parents; in light of the numerous economic resources of Richmond County, the locale of the study; and the opening of the labor market to trained Negro workers as a result of the recent efforts in the civil rights field. These seem to have implications for modern educational arrangements for the youth of Richmond County and for comprehensive vocational programs especially at the high school level and that career counseling and educational advisement be equally available to the students of all ability levels.

5. The fact that 12.3 per cent of the sixth-graders represented family incomes received from private and public welfare and non-respectable sources leads to the conclusion that these families may frequently have difficulty making ends meet and that these sixth-graders may, at times, be denied some of the basic necessities. They may not be in position to contribute toward the betterment of the larger community.

6. The general trend toward very good houses or apartment housing projects lived in by the majority of the pupils enrolled in Grade 6 could provide substantiation that the urban renewal and housing development projects launched, within the locale of this study, have contributed to this good condition.

7. There were relationships between the sixth-graders' self-concepts and socio-economic status. A greater percentage of sixth-graders in the middle socio-economic group tended to exemplify positive self-concepts or self-worth than those in the lower socio-economic group. Research supports the finding that good or positive self-concepts are related to feelings of adequacy and good behavioral adjustment. It is concluded that if the poorer or negative self-concepts which were indicated for some sixth-graders in each of the socio-economic status groups are translated into action, a strong need for acceptance may be evident.

8. A large discrepancy between "real" and "ideal" self-concepts were evidenced by sixth-graders in the middle socio-economic group. Research evidence indicates that people who are highly self-critical--that is, who show a large discrepancy between the way they actually see themselves and the way they would ideally like to be--are less well adjusted than those who are at least moderately satisfied with themselves. Evidence indicates that highly self-critical children are more anxious, more insecure, and possibly more cynical and

depressed than self-satisfied people. They may be more ambitious and driving, however. It is concluded that people generally experience conflict about the traits on which they have the greatest self-ideal discrepancy, and this conflict is usually sharp enough to interfere with learning involving such areas.

9. The larger percentage of sixth-graders in the (+ +) category, which indicated positive self and self-other concepts, was represented by the middle socio-economic status group. This could mean that the middle status group tended to demonstrate behaviors that are indicative of self-concepts based on internalized standards of conduct. This may reflect middle class parental influence and further support the accuracy of the classification of the sample of the study.

10. The fact that the lower socio-economic status group of sixth-graders rejected themselves to a significantly larger degree than the middle class pupils may mean that these negative self-concepts may be resulted from feelings of the impingement of their devalued socio-economic status as members of a minority group.

11. The fact that no significant difference existed between the percentage of middle and lower socio-economic status groups in the self-rejecting (- -) category and in their feeling that others in the peer group were equally as self-rejecting may mean that many of the sixth-graders within both socio-economic status groups probably bear "marks of

oppression" by virtue of being members of a disadvantaged minority group.

12. The largest percentage of sixth-graders holding low aspirational levels was found within the lower socio-economic group. However, some pupils within this same group exemplified aspirational levels and positive self-concepts that rated as high as the highest rating received by the upper and middle socio-economic status groups and people in general. These facts considered together make it evident that the group trend should not be generalized to cover every individual within the status groups.

13. This study has brought into focus some pertinent information which should contribute to a more meaningful understanding of the varied dimensions of self-conceptual development with respect to socio-economic status, especially in the Negroes enrolled in Grade 6 in Public Schools of Richmond County, Georgia. It should be understood that the findings obtained from this study should not be considered as conclusive but rather as insight from which certain conclusions can be drawn in light of the findings. It should be further understood that growth and change in a positive direction or socio-economic deprivation can alter the self-concepts and socio-economic status of the sixth-graders in any future testing.

Recommendations

Suggested recommendations based upon the research findings are that:

1. An awareness of the self-concepts as they exist in the child's mind and influence his behavior is important for educational policy makers, and ultimately to all those who facilitate the process of self-conceptual formation in children.

2. The educational program in the schools, of Richmond County, Georgia should be stepped-up to include the employment of trained guidance workers in the elementary schools, and to include programs with emphasis and planned procedures for coping with the problem of negative or distorted self-concepts which could lead to school "drop-outs." This need seems evident from the fact that negative self-concepts and a high discrepancy between "real" and "ideal" self-concepts existed in a large number of pupils in each of the socio-economic status groups--upper, middle, and lower. The availability of trained guidance workers would seem helpful from an educational and therapeutic standpoint. This need should be of great concern because there is much evidence that all self-concepts are significant in understanding students and assisting all of them toward self-fulfillment. The problem of negative or distorted self-concepts should be of paramount concern because they represent problem areas in the larger society and among disadvantaged groups.

3. Modern educational arrangements for youth should be continued and comprehensive vocational programs, especially at the high school level, and career counseling and educational advisement should be equally available to the students of all ability levels. This need seems justified on the basis that large numbers of pupils of the lower class socio-economic status group exemplified very high aspirational levels. However, these pupils may continue to hold very restricted vocational and educational views regarding opportunities available because of contacts via parents or family heads who represent limited occupational patterns.

4. Teacher-preparation programs should give increased attention to (1) the importance of individualizing teaching, (2) ways of recognizing potential areas of friction in the child's development of self and point up possible factors associated with these areas, and (3) a basic bibliography and materials on the educationally deprived should be provided for pre-service and in-service education programs.

5. The following studies may prove fruitful for education and further research:

a. Studies comparable to the present study, but including Grades 1 to 12.

b. Cross-ethnic or minority group studies of self-concepts with the variable of socio-economic status levels controlled.

c. Studies of the influence of school organization and instructional practices upon self-concepts of Negroes.

d. Comparative studies of the influence of organization and instructional practices in segregated and non-segregated schools upon self-concepts of Negroes.

e. Studies to investigate the effect of group acceptance on the self-concept and adjustment of selected people with low self-esteem.

f. Studies of self-concepts and IAV categories of socio-economic status groups with sex, school, and other selected variables controlled.

g. Studies to determine what self-concepts teachers bring to their classrooms.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SIXTH-GRADERS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF RICHMOND COUNTY, GEORGIA

SCALES FOR RATING STATUS CHARACTERISTICS

REVISED SCALE FOR RATING OCCUPATION

SCALE FOR CONVERTING THE NUMERICAL INDEX OF STATUS CHARACTERISTICS TO SOCIAL-CLASS EQUIVALENTS

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SIXTH-GRADERS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF RICHMOND COUNTY, GEORGIA

To the Teacher or Other Examiners: The Questionnaire for Sixth-Graders in Public Schools of Richmond County, Georgia is devised to aid in establishing an index of socio-economic status and social-class equivalence in accord with the methodology of the Index of Status Characteristics (I.S.C.) by Warner and associates.

The I.S.C. is determined from information about factors such as occupation, source of income, type of house, and dwelling area relative to the head of the family and should be as accurate as possible since all other members of the family, who are unmarried and living in the same house, are assigned the same socio-economic status.

The questionnaire will have value only, if the child gives accurate responses.

Directions: The examiner should do the following:

1. Explain to the child, before administering the questionnaire, that certain family background information is necessary to aid schools and others in providing better programs for them.

2. Tell the child that he should do his best to give an accurate description of himself and others mentioned in the questionnaire and that all information will be kept confidential.

3. Advise the child not to engage in conversation with his peers during the time he is filling-out his questionnaire.

4. Give the child any help he may need to provide an accurate description of himself and others.

5. Before giving all completed questionnaires to your Principal, who will return them to the investigator, please look over them to see that each child's responses are complete and accurate.

6. The Questionnaires will be scored by the investigator.

THANK YOU

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SIXTH-GRADERS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF RICHMOND COUNTY, GEORGIA

This questionnaire is a way of helping us to know you better. It will have value only, if you do your best to give an accurate description of yourself and the person who is head of your family.

Directions: Please answer each question, as honestly as you can, after reading it carefully. Fill in the blanks or place a check (✓) after the sentence or lines that come closest to describing you and the person who is head of your family.

WHAT WE NEED TO KNOW

A. About You

1. What is your name?_____
2. Are you a boy or girl? Boy_____ Girl_____
3. How old are you? Years_____ and months_____
4. What is the name of your school?_____
5. What is your teacher's name?_____
6. What is your home address?_____

_____

B. About Your Parents' Work

1. Please write a short sentence telling what kind of work your parents, or other head of the family person with whom you live, do.

   a. My father_____

   _____

   b. My mother_____

   _____

   c. The other head of the family person with whom I live

   _____

C. About Your Family's Income

1. Please check each line that helps to tell how your parents or other head of the family person get their money for supporting you and the other family members.

   a. From money or wealth inherited (handed-down) from others_____

   b. From money earned from savings, property, etc._____

   c. From money earned from services rendered or from the family business_____

   d. From salary (fixed pay) earned on a monthly or yearly basis for regular work_____

   e. From wages (pay) earned each day, hour, week, or every two weeks for jobs or work done_____

   f. From private relief_____
   old age pension_____

   g. From public welfare (relief)_____

   h. From other sources_____

D. About the Type of House in which You Live

1. Please check the one line that best tells something about the house in which you live.

   a. Large house in good condition_____

   b. Large house in medium condition_____

   c. Medium-sized house in good condition_____

      Medium condition_____ bad condition_____

      very bad condition_____

   d. Apartment in a regular apartment building in

      good condition_____ medium condition_____

      bad condition_____ very bad condition_____

e. Small house in good condition_____

medium condition_____ bad condition_____

very bad condition_____

f. House over a store_____

g. House in a building not intended, in the beginning for homes_____

E. About the Area or Place in which You Live

1. Please check the one line that best tell something about the area in which you live.

a. Very good neighborhood where some of the best houses are located_____

b. The better suburbs and apartment house areas, and houses with large yards, etc._____

c. An all dwelling house area, with larger than average space around houses, and the apartment area is in good condition_____

d. Average residential neighborhood, no run-down buildings in the area_____

e. Area not quite holding its own, beginning to run down_____ close to business district_____

close to railroad_____industry entering_____

f. A very run-down area, houses are set close together, and yards are not well cared for___

g. Slum area, with the poorest reputation in town_____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH.

TABLE A-1

SCALES FOR MAKING PRIMARY RATINGS OF FOUR STATUS CHARACTERISTICS[a]

Status Characteristic and Rating	Definition of the Ratings
Occupation	See Table A-2
Source of Income	
1	Inherited wealth
2	Earned wealth
3	Profits and fees
4	Salary on monthly or yearly basis
5	Wages on daily or hourly basis
6	Private relief
7	Public relief and non-respectable income
House Type	
1	Excellent houses
2	Very good houses
3	Good houses
4	Average houses
5	Fair houses
6	Poor houses
7	Very poor houses
Dwelling Area	
1	Very exclusive
2	High; the better suburbs and apartment house areas, houses with spacious yards, etc.
3	Above average; areas all residential, larger than average space around houses; apartment areas in good condition, etc.
4	Average; residential neighborhoods, no deterioration in the area

TABLE A-1--Continued

Status Characteristic and Rating	Definition of the Ratings
Dwelling Area	
5	Below average; area not quite holding its own, beginning to deteriorate, business entering, etc.
6	Low; considerably deteriorated, run-down and semi-slum
7	Very low; slum

[a]This scale was used by the permission of W. Lloyd Warner, University Professor of Social Research, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan. For a more extended description of these scales and qualifications as to their use see: W. Lloyd Warner, Marchia Meeker, and Kenneth Eells, Social Class in America: Manual of Procedure for the Measurement of Social Status (Harper Torchbook ed.; New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1960), pp. 121-158.

TABLE A-2

REVISED SCALE FOR RATING OCCUPATION[a]

Rating Assigned to Occupation	Professionals	Proprietors and Managers	Business Men	Clerks and Kindred Workers, Etc.	Manual Workers	Protective and Service Workers	Farmers
1	Lawyers, doctors, dentists, engineers, judges, high-school supervisors, students, veterinarians, ministers (graduated from divinity school), chemists, etc. with post-graduate training, architects	Businesses valued at $75,000 and over	Regional and divisional managers of large financial and industrial enterprises	Certified Public Accountants			Gentlemen farmers
2	High-school teachers, trained nurses, chiropodists, chiropractors, undertakers, ministers (some training), newspaper editors, librarians (graduate)	Businesses valued at $20,000 to $75,000	Assistant managers and office and department managers of large businesses, assistants to executives, etc.	Accountants, salesmen of real estate, of insurance, postmasters			Large farm owners, farm owners
3	Social workers, grade-school teachers, optometrists, librarians (not graduate), undertaker's assistants, ministers (no training)	Businesses valued at $5,000 to $20,000	All minor officials of businesses	Auto salesmen, bank clerks and cashiers, postal clerks, secretaries to executives, supervisors of railroad, telephone, etc., justices of the peace	Contractors		
4		Businesses valued at $2,000 to $5,000		Stenographers, bookkeepers, rural mail clerks, railroad ticket agents, sales people in dry goods store, etc.	Factory foremen, electricians (own business), plumbers (own business), carpenters (own business), watchmakers	Dry cleaners, butchers, sheriffs, railroad engineers and conductors	
5		Businesses valued at $800 to $2,000		Dime store clerks, hardware salesmen, beauty operators, telephone operators	Carpenters, plumbers, electricians (apprentice), bricklayers, linemen, telephone or telegraph, radio repairmen, semi-skilled workers	Barbers, firemen, butcher's apprentice, practical nurses, policemen, semi-chefs in restaurant, bartenders	Tenant farmers
6		Businesses valued at less than $800			Machine, semi-skilled workers, assistants to carpenter, etc.	Baggage men, night policemen and watchmen, taxi and truck drivers, gas station attendants, waitresses in restaurant	Small tenant farmers
7					Heavy labor, migrant work, odd-job men, miners	Janitors, scrubwomen, newsboys	Migrant farm laborers

[a]This scale was used by permission of W. Lloyd Warner. It may be found in Social Class in America, Ibid., pp. 140-141.

TABLE A-3

SCALE FOR CONVERTING THE NUMERICAL INDEX OF STATUS CHARACTERISTICS TO SOCIAL-CLASS EQUIVALENTS[a]

Range Weighted Total of Ratings	Social-Class Equivalents
12 - 17	Upper Class
18 - 22	Upper Class probably, with some possibility of Upper-Middle Class
23 - 24	Indeterminate: either Upper or Upper-Middle Class
25 - 33	Upper-Middle Class
34 - 37	Indeterminate: either Upper-Middle or Lower-Middle Class
38 - 50	Lower-Middle Class
51 - 53	Indeterminate: either Lower-Middle or Upper-Lower Class
54 - 62	Upper-Lower Class
63 - 66	Indeterminate: either Upper-Lower or Lower-Lower Class
67 - 69	Lower-Lower Class probably, with some possibility of Upper-Lower Class
70 - 84	Lower-Lower Class

[a]This scale was used with the permission of W. Lloyd Warner, University Professor of Social Research, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan and senior author of Social Class in America (Harper Torchbook Edition, 1960), op. cit., p. 127.

APPENDIX B

THE INDEX OF ADJUSTMENT AND VALUES

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL FORM FOR "SELF"

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL FORM FOR "OTHERS"

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE IAV "SELF" FORM, GRADE 6

There is a need for each of us to know more about ourselves, but seldom do we have an opportunity to look at ourselves as we are or as we would like to be. The Index of Adjustment and Values provide a list of 35 terms that to a certain degree describe people.

Column I

Take each term separately and apply it to yourself by completing the following sentence:

I am a (an)_____person.

The first word in the list is agreeable, so you would substitute this term in the above sentence. It would read--I am an agreeable person.

Then decide How Much of the Time this is like you and then indicate your decision by placing a check mark under the most appropriate one of the three possible answers.

1. Most of the time, I am like this.
2. About half of the time, I am like this.
3. Hardly ever, I am like this.

Place a check on the blank line under the term that suits you best. Example: Under the term Agreeable, check the first line--Most of the time I am an agreeable person.

Column II

Now go to Column II. Use one of the statements given below to tell How You Feel about yourself as described in Column I. .

1. I like being as I am in this respect:
2. I neither dislike being as I am nor like being as I am in this respect.
3. I dislike being as I am in this respect.

Place a check on the blank line under the term that suits you best. Example: In Column II beside the term agreeable, check the first line--I like being as agreeable as I am.

Column III

Finally, go to Column III: Using the same term, complete the following sentence.

I would like to be a (an)_____person.

Name: _____ Sex: Boy____ Girl____
Last First Middle

School: _____

Teacher: _____ Date: _____

IAV Grade 6 "Self" Form

	I I Am Like This			II The Way I Feel About Being As I Am			III I Wish I Were		
	Most of the Time	About ½ of the Time	Hardly Ever	I Like It	I Neither Like Nor Dislike It	I Dislike It	Most of the Time	About ½ of the Time	Hardly Ever
1. agreeable									
2. alert									
3. brave									
4. busy									
5. careful									
6. cheerful									
7. considerate									
8. cooperative									
9. dependable									
10. fair									
11. friendly									
12. generous									
13. good									
14. good sport									
15. happy									
16. helpful									
17. honest									
18. kind									
19. loyal									
20. likeable									
21. obedient									
22. patient									

IAV Grade 6 "Self" Form	I I Am Like This			II The Way I Feel About Being As I Am			III I Wish I Were		
	Most of the Time	About ½ of the Time	Hardly Ever	I Like It	I Neither Like Nor Dislike It	I Dislike It	Most of the Time	About ½ of the Time	Hardly Ever
23. polite									
24. popular									
25. quiet									
26. reliable									
27. sincere									
28. smart									
29. studious									
30. successful									
31. thoughtful									
32. trustworthy									
33. understanding									
34. unselfish									
35. useful									

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE IAV "OTHERS" FORM, GRADE 6

We would like to gain a better idea of what you think other people are like. To do this, we would like for you to first think of other people who are in general like you, for example members of your class, pupils in the sixth-grade. Now take the test and complete it as you think the average person in your sixth-grade class would complete it for himself.

Column I

Take each of the 35 words and use it to complete the following sentence for the average sixth grader in your group.

He or she is a (an)_____person.

Now decide How Much of the Time this statement is like the pupil in your sixth-grade class and rate him as he would answer or rate himself on the following scale.

1. Most of the time, this is the way he sees himself.
2. About half of the time, this is the way he sees himself.
3. Hardly ever, is this like he sees himself.

Place a check on the blank line under the term that suits the average sixth-grade pupil best. Example: Under the Agreeable check the first line--Most of the time, this is the way he sees himself.

Column II

Use one of the statements given below to tell how he usually feels about himself as described in Column I.

1. He like being as he is in this respect.
2. He neither dislikes being as he is nor likes being as he is in this respect.
3. He dislikes being as he is in this respect.

Place a check on the blank line under the term that suits him best. Example: In Column II beside the term Agreeable, check the first line--to indicate that the person likes being as he is in this respect.

Column III

Using the same term, Agreeable, complete the following sentence:

He would like to be a (an)_____person.

Name: _____ Sex: Boy_____
Last First Middle Girl____

School: _____

Teacher: _____ Date: _____

IAV Grade 6 "Others" Form

	I			II			III		
	He Is Like This			The Way He Feels About Being As He Is			He Wishes He Were		
	Most of the Time	About ½ of the Time	Hardly Ever	He Likes It	He Neither Likes Nor Dislikes It	He Dislikes It	Most of the Time	About ½ of the Time	Hardly Ever
1. agreeable	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
2. alert	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
3. brave	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
4. busy	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
5. careful	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
6. cheerful	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
7. considerate	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
8. cooperative	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
9. dependable	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
10. fair	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
11. friendly	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
12. generous	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
13. good	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
14. good sport	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
15. happy	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
16. helpful	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
17. honest	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
18. kind	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
19. loyal	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
20. likeable	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
21. obedient	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
22. patient	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___

IAV Grade 6 "Others" Form	I He Is Like This			II The Way He Feels About Being As He Is			III He Wishes He Were		
	Most of the Time	About ½ of the Time	Hardly Ever	He Likes It	He Neither Likes Nor Dislikes It	He Dislikes It	Most of the Time	About ½ of the Time	Hardly Ever
23. polite	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
24. popular	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
25. quiet	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
26. reliable	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
27. sincere	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
28. smart	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
29. studious	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
30. successful	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
31. thoughtful	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
32. trustworthy	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
33. understanding	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
34. unselfish	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
35. useful	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___

APPENDIX C

IAV SCORES AND CATEGORIES FOR UPPER, MIDDLE, AND LOWER SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUPS

TABLE C-1

DISTRIBUTION OF "REAL" SELF-CONCEPT (COLUMN I) SCORES OF THE UPPER CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 12)

Score	Frequency
105	1
102	1
99	1
95	2
91	1
85	1
81	2
79	2
72	1

TABLE C-2

DISTRIBUTION OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE (COLUMN II) SCORES OF THE UPPER CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 12)

Score	Frequency
105	3
103	1
96	2
95	1
94	2
93	1
89	1
88	1

TABLE C-3

DISTRIBUTION OF "IDEAL" SELF-CONCEPT (COLUMN III) SCORES OF THE UPPER CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 12)

Score	Frequency
105	4
104	3
103	1
101	1
96	1
88	2

TABLE C-4

DISTRIBUTION OF DISCREPANCY SCORES OF THE UPPER CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 12)

Score	Frequency
32	1
25	1
22	1
20	1
19	1
15	1
14	1
10	2
5	1
4	1
0	1

TABLE C-5

DISTRIBUTION OF "OTHERS" (COLUMN II) SCORES OF THE UPPER CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 12)

Score	Frequency
105	2
103	1
99	1
98	1
95	1
93	3
87	1
81	1
78	1

TABLE C-6

DISTRIBUTION OF "REAL" SELF-CONCEPT (COLUMN I) SCORES OF THE MIDDLE CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 538)

Score	Frequency			Score	Frequency		
	A[1]	B[2]	C[3]		A[1]	B[2]	C[3]
105	9	10	1	86	12	14	2
104	3	4	1	85	31	37	6
103	9	10	1	84	14	17	3
102	10	13	3	83	5	7	2
101	3	3	0	82	19	21	2
100	4	6	2	81	18	19	1
99	6	9	3	80	6	6	0
98	13	17	4	79	23	27	4
97	27	31	4	78	5	6	1
96	22	25	3	77	12	16	4
95	16	18	2	76	14	17	3
94	9	13	4	75	3	3	0
93	21	22	1	74	15	17	2
92	18	21	3	72	6	7	1
91	22	26	4	71	8	9	1
90	6	7	1	70	3	3	0
89	19	24	5	68	6	8	2
88	20	21	1	60	1	3	2
87	13	16	3	35	3	5	2

[1]All 454 frequencies in the A column represent the number of cases used for analysis of variance

[2]All 538 frequencies in the B column represent the number of cases in the total Middle Class socio-economic status group.

[3]All 84 frequencies in the C column represent the cases randomly selected by a table of random numbers and excluded from analysis of variance.

TABLE C-7

DISTRIBUTION OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE (COLUMN II) SCORES OF THE MIDDLE CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 538)

Score	Frequency			Score	Frequency		
	A[1]	B[2]	C[3]		A[1]	B[2]	C[3]
105	58	69	11	87	16	20	4
104	14	17	3	86	5	8	3
103	50	63	13	85	9	9	0
102	15	18	3	84	5	6	1
101	29	31	2	83	6	7	1
100	20	26	6	82	9	11	2
99	20	22	2	81	11	14	3
98	14	15	1	79	10	11	1
97	6	6	0	78	19	21	2
96	13	13	0	77	4	5	1
95	16	19	3	76	3	4	1
94	13	14	1	75	5	8	3
93	20	25	5	73	3	3	0
92	5	7	2	71	3	3	0
91	15	18	3	68	3	4	1
90	9	11	2	61	3	4	1
89	8	9	1	53	2	3	1
88	13	14	1				

[1]All 454 frequencies in the A column represent the number of cases used for analysis of variance.

[2]All 538 frequencies in the B column represent the number of cases in the total Middle Class socio-economic status group.

[3]All 84 frequencies in the C column represent the cases randomly selected by a table of random numbers and excluded from analysis of variance.

TABLE C-8

DISTRIBUTION OF "IDEAL" SELF-CONCEPT (COLUMN III) SCORES OF THE MIDDLE CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 538)

Score	Frequency			Score	Frequency		
	A[1]	B[2]	C[3]		A[1]	B[2]	C[3]
105	56	66	10	87	4	4	0
104	24	29	5	86	11	13	2
103	21	25	4	85	14	16	2
102	20	21	1	84	3	4	1
101	14	16	2	83	11	13	2
100	21	25	4	82	7	7	0
99	11	14	3	81	8	10	2
98	5	6	1	80	4	5	1
97	12	15	3	79	7	7	0
96	11	14	3	78	2	4	2
95	36	40	4	77	3	3	0
94	8	8	0	76	15	19	4
93	23	27	4	73	5	7	2
92	13	15	2	72	22	25	3
91	7	10	3	71	10	11	1
90	15	19	4	68	3	3	0
89	4	7	3	64	5	6	1
88	16	19	3	61	3	5	2

[1]All 454 frequencies in the A column represent the number of cases used for analysis of variance.

[2]All 538 frequencies in the B column represent the number of cases in the total Middle Class socio-economic status group.

[3]All 84 frequencies in the C column represent the cases randomly selected by a table of random numbers and excluded from analysis of variance.

TABLE C-9

DISTRIBUTION OF DISCREPANCY SCORES OF THE MIDDLE CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 538)

Score	Frequency	Score	Frequency
43	3	17	18
42	8	16	26
37	3	15	22
33	3	14	14
32	6	13	19
31	9	12	19
30	6	11	10
29	17	10	23
28	10	9	13
27	3	8	13
26	4	7	42
25	18	6	19
24	3	5	12
23	10	4	12
22	14	3	6
21	7	2	41
20	16	1	20
19	12	0	46
18	11		

TABLE C-10

DISTRIBUTION OF "OTHERS" (COLUMN II) SCORES OF THE MIDDLE CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 538)

Score	Frequency	Score	Frequency
105	80	86	19
104	3	84	14
103	27	83	29
102	14	82	20
101	4	81	17
100	24	80	15
99	20	78	2
98	8	77	9
97	10	76	15
96	14	75	4
95	22	74	6
94	6	73	8
93	14	72	7
92	14	70	10
91	16	69	3
90	27	68	4
89	11	65	3
88	13	55	4
87	22		

TABLE C-11

DISTRIBUTION OF "REAL" SELF-CONCEPT (COLUMN I) SCORES OF THE LOWER CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 454)

Score	Frequency	Score	Frequency
105	18	84	15
104	4	83	24
103	3	82	22
102	3	81	19
101	6	80	3
100	11	79	8
99	17	78	7
98	12	77	15
97	15	76	3
96	12	75	15
95	11	74	11
94	16	73	5
93	18	72	5
92	6	71	9
91	32	70	3
90	4	69	2
89	18	67	3
88	25	66	2
87	13	62	1
86	13	52	3
85	20	51	2

TABLE C-12

DISTRIBUTION OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE (COLUMN II) SCORES OF THE LOWER CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 454)

Score	Frequency	Score	Frequency
105	47	86	12
104	16	85	9
103	16	83	11
102	12	82	4
101	11	81	9
100	14	80	5
99	6	79	2
98	20	78	13
97	29	77	7
96	17	76	9
95	17	75	13
94	16	74	12
93	12	73	12
92	8	72	5
91	15	71	12
90	3	70	3
89	20	67	6
88	10	46	2
87	19		

TABLE C-13

DISTRIBUTION OF "IDEAL" SELF-CONCEPT (COLUMN III) SCORES OF THE LOWER CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 454)

Score	Frequency	Score	Frequency
105	29	84	6
104	16	83	13
103	11	82	5
102	3	81	14
101	12	80	3
100	11	79	7
99	24	78	12
98	15	77	3
97	11	76	5
96	10	75	11
95	14	74	13
94	16	73	9
93	15	72	8
92	9	71	6
91	20	70	8
90	7	69	7
89	16	68	6
88	16	67	3
87	14	66	2
86	10	63	2
85	29	50	3

TABLE C-14

DISTRIBUTION OF DISCREPANCY SCORES OF THE LOWER CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUP

(N = 454)

Score	Frequency	Score	Frequency
40	9	19	13
39	2	18	5
38	3	17	13
37	3	16	16
35	5	15	19
34	8	14	13
32	8	13	7
31	5	12	11
30	7	10	19
29	10	9	22
28	13	8	13
27	16	7	9
26	8	6	17
25	2	5	12
24	9	4	9
23	17	3	29
22	12	2	19
21	8	1	15
20	5	0	43

TABLE C-15

DISTRIBUTION OF "OTHERS" (COLUMN II) SCORES OF THE LOWER CLASS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUPS

(N = 454)

Score	Frequency	Score	Frequency
105	39	85	18
104	6	84	16
103	24	83	18
102	11	82	9
101	9	81	10
100	12	80	10
99	13	79	30
98	6	78	4
97	11	77	8
96	2	76	10
95	2	75	9
94	5	74	11
93	12	73	5
92	4	72	9
91	7	70	20
90	24	69	6
89	14	68	2
88	7	67	3
87	20	66	3
86	17	65	3
		64	5

TABLE C-16

DISTRIBUTION OF THE BASIC SAMPLE OF SIXTH-GRADERS BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND IAV CATEGORIES

(N = 1,004)

Socio-Economic Classification	IAV Categories				Total Subjects
	+ +	- +	+ -	- -	
Upper-Class	6	0	5	1	12
Middle-Class	149	76	239	74	538
Lower-Class	92	102	186	74	454
Totals	247	178	430	149	1,004

APPENDIX D

DISTRIBUTION OF NEGROES ENROLLED IN GRADE SIX IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF RICHMOND COUNTY, GEORGIA BY SEX AND SCHOOL

TABLE D-1

DISTRIBUTION OF NEGROES ENROLLED IN GRADE SIX IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF RICHMOND COUNTY, GEORGIA BY SEX AND SCHOOL

Schools	Boys	Girls	Total Subjects
Collins	80	94	174
Craig	35	30	65
Floyd	54	46	100
Graham	24	35	59
Griggs	35	38	73
Hornsby	38	38	76
Jenkins	15	13	28
Telfair	26	24	50
Tutt	22	25	47
Walker	74	91	165
Weed	38	27	65
Levi White	41	61	102
Totals	482	522	1,004