

THE EFFECTS OF CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT AND TEACHER INFLUENCES
ON STUDENT SELF-CONCEPT IN AN ESEA, TITLE I PROGRAM

by

Marcelle Vogel Kilmer

Dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

Educational Administration

APPROVED:

David J. Parks, Chairman

Wayne H. White

Marilyn V. Lichtman

Ann H. Stoddard

Howard O. Protinsky

1976

Blacksburg, Virginia

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband,
and to my son, , and my daughter, , whose love,
understanding, support, and patience have made the completion
of this manuscript possible, and to Mom and Dad who instilled
in each of their children an appreciation for and a desire to
pursue educational endeavors.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer would like to express her thanks and appreciation to the many people who have contributed to the successful completion of this study.

Appreciation is expressed to the members of her doctoral committee--Dr. Marilyn Lichtman, Dr. Harold Protinsky, Dr. Ann Stoddard, and Dr. Wayne White--who willingly gave of their time and expertise to assist in planning, investigating, and completing the study. Special thanks go to _____, chairman of her committee, whose understanding, support, advice, and infinite wisdom made the completion of this work possible.

Thanks are also expressed to _____, and _____, who provided additional statistical assistance, and to _____ and _____ who provided personal insight into the use and implementation of their instruments.

Gratitude is extended to _____ for her assistance in testing the students and for her capable help in editing the study; to _____ and _____ for their valuable assistance in the classroom observations; to _____ for her interest and assistance in obtaining reference material; and to the faculty and students who participated in the study.

Thanks are also extended to _____, friend and mentor, whose encouragement and educational assistance in the

pursuit of this undertaking were invaluable, and to
whose confidence and respect will always be remembered.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Dedication	ii
Acknowledgments.	iii
List of Tables	vii
List of Figures.	ix
 Chapter	
1. BACKGROUND.	1
Statement of the Problem.	3
Theoretical Framework	3
Literature Related to the Problem	4
Conclusions from the Literature	42
Summary of Chapter 1 and Preview of Succeeding Chapters	46
2. FURTHER EVIDENCE RELATED TO THE PROBLEM	48
Hypotheses.	48
Operational Definitions	51
Population and Samples.	54
Descriptions of Classroom Settings.	58
Delimitations	59
Instrumentation	60
Procedures of Data Collection	76
Analysis of Data.	77
3. RESULTS	80
Type of Classroom and Student Self- Concept	81
School Setting and Student Self-Concept	91
Other Relationships	95
Summary of Chapter 3	103
4. SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	106
Summary	106
Results	107

	Page
Discussion	112
Implications for ESEA, Title I Programs.	117
Limitations.	118
Recommendations.	119
Selected Bibliography	121
Appendix A McDaniel <u>Observer Rating Scales</u>	133
Appendix B The Coopersmith <u>Self-Esteem Inventory</u>	144
Appendix C School Socio-Economic Survey	148
Appendix D Resource Classroom Identification List	152
Appendix E Letter Recommending the Coopersmith <u>Self-Esteem Inventory</u>	154
Vita.	156
Abstract	

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1.	Frequency Distribution by Grade, Race, Sex, and SES of Students in Resource and Non-Resource Classrooms 55
2.	Frequency Distributions and Percentages by Race and SES of Students in Resource and Non-Resource Classrooms 56
3.	Median Reading and Mathematics Scores by Grade of Students in Resource and Non-Resource Classrooms 57
4.	Summary of Eigenvalues and Percentages of Variance Accounted for by Each Factor of the Coopersmith <u>Self-Esteem Inventory</u> 64
5.	Rotated Factor Matrix of the Coopersmith <u>Self-Esteem Inventory</u> 65
6.	Factor Loadings, Categories and Corresponding Statements from Rotated Factor Matrix of the Coopersmith <u>Self-Esteem Inventory</u> 67
7.	t-Test Between Resource and Non-Resource Classrooms for Total Student Self-Concept 82
8.	F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between Type of Classroom and the Coopersmith <u>Self-Esteem Inventory</u> 83
9.	F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between Sex and the Coopersmith <u>Self-Esteem Inventory</u> 85
10.	F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between Type of Classroom and the Coopersmith <u>Self-Esteem Inventory</u> for Black Students. 87
11.	F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between Type of Classroom and the Coopersmith <u>Self-Esteem Inventory</u> for Students in Grades 3, 4, and 5. 89

Table	Page
12. F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between Type of Classroom and the <u>Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory</u> for Low Socio-Economic Status Students.	90
13. F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between Classroom Environment (Individualization) and the <u>Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory</u>	92
14. F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between Classroom Environment (Variety) and the <u>Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory</u>	94
15. F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between Teacher Influences (Warmth) and the <u>Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory</u>	96
16. F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between Teacher Influences (Freedom) and the <u>Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory</u>	97
17. F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between Teacher Influences (Feedback) and the <u>Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory</u>	98
18. t-Test Between Resource and Non-Resource Classrooms and School Setting	99
19. Summary of Eigenvalues and Percentages of Variance Accounted for by Each Factor for Self-Concept, Classroom Environment, Teacher Influences, and Personal Variables.	100
20. Rotated Factor Matrix of Personal Variables, McDaniel Variables, and the <u>Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory</u> Subscores	101

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.	Diagram of Variables Related to Student Self-Concept	5
2.	Scree Plot: Eigenvalues by Factors.	63

Chapter 1

BACKGROUND

Since 1965, millions of tax dollars have gone into the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) Title I Program, P.L. 89-10, revised in 1975 in P.L. 93-380. This federal project provides supplementary funds to be used by state and local education agencies in educating students who are identified as educationally disadvantaged.

Through evaluation procedures set up by the federal government, ESEA, Title I programs have been objectively assessed to determine their effect on the cognitive domain of student learning. According to a State Department of Education (1974) document, the ESEA, Title I students in Virginia gained in cognitive learnings slightly more than five months in grade equivalent in one year than would have been expected had they not participated in the ESEA, Title I program. The state department evaluation provides very little information about the affective domain, which involves the student's self-concept--his perceptions, ideas, attitudes, and beliefs about himself. Because a report of progress in the affective areas is not required in the annual program evaluation, less data have been collected in the ESEA, Title I Programs on students' affective behavior.

The ESEA, Title I Program being implemented in Loudoun County, Virginia, centers on a special resource classroom setting. An ESEA, Title I resource teacher and an aide work with the identified students. The resource teacher is an integral member of the school staff.

In this resource classroom program, participating students are grouped according to grade level and achievement. Small groups of no more than twelve students at one time receive individual and small group instruction under the supervision of the teacher and aide. They are in the class a minimum of forty-five minutes and a maximum of one hour and one-half per period for reading instruction. Approximately 95% of the students participate in both reading and mathematics instruction. The ESEA, Title I mathematics program runs for forty-five minutes per day. The remainder of the students' school day is spent in a heterogeneously grouped homeroom.

Since major emphasis in the resource classroom is placed on individualizing programs to meet students' educational needs, the ESEA, Title I program provides supplementary equipment and materials designed especially for that purpose. The resource teachers and aides are given special inservice instruction in using these instructional aids. The inservice is designed to help teachers use materials in ways that students' needs will be met, thus enabling students to work at their own rate on programs that are suitable for their individual needs.

Both administrators and teachers agree that this resource program provides an atmosphere that motivates the learner, causing him to feel his own self-worth in becoming a successful learner. This program has encouraged both administrators and teachers to stress the development of the student's positive self-concept. Through inservice, teachers are helped to understand these culturally different children and encouraged to accept them as they are. Since much emphasis has

been placed on creating a learning environment whereby students can become successful and can feel good about themselves, this researcher was interested in studying the student's self-concept in order to determine if the ESEA, Title I program being offered students in Loudoun County influences their feeling of self-worth.

Statement of the Problem

This study was conducted to investigate whether or not there were differences in self-concept between elementary grade students participating in the ESEA, Title I resource program and those students not participating in this program in Loudoun County, Virginia. Possible differences in student self-concept were identified through the use of the total self-concept score and related factor subscores produced from a factor analysis conducted on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory.

This study also investigated factors in the school setting in order to determine which factors contributed most significantly to the students' self-concept. The factors investigated were classroom environment and teacher influences. The variables relating to classroom environment included (1) individualization, and (2) variety of materials and activities. Variables relating to teacher influences included (1) warmth, (2) provision for freedom, and (3) feedback.

Theoretical Framework

In spite of the problems inherent in studies which attempt to measure attitudes and feelings, a review of literature suggested that

there are many variables that influence student self-concept. In this study a number of the variables associated with student self-concept were examined. These variables, which are given consideration in the ESEA, Title I program, are identified in Figure 1. They include school setting, peer interaction, personal characteristics and family background.

The major area of concentration in this study was school setting consisting of classroom environment and teacher influence. This area was selected because the ESEA, Title I program emphasized the importance of both the classroom environment and the teacher relative to individualizing instructional opportunities to meet student needs. The physical as well as the climatological classroom environment is stressed. This study also gives minor attention to personal variables and family background as they relate to student self-concept.

Literature Related to the Problem

During the last decade much attention has been given to self-concept theory and its relationship to the field of education. Many researchers have defined self-concept with varying viewpoints. The following literature review reports on self-concept as described by authors and researchers who have contributed insights into the self-concept theory and its relevance to education and to the student.

Self-Concept

Self-concept has been defined by many authors in a variety of ways. Coopersmith (1967) defined self-concept as a personal judgment

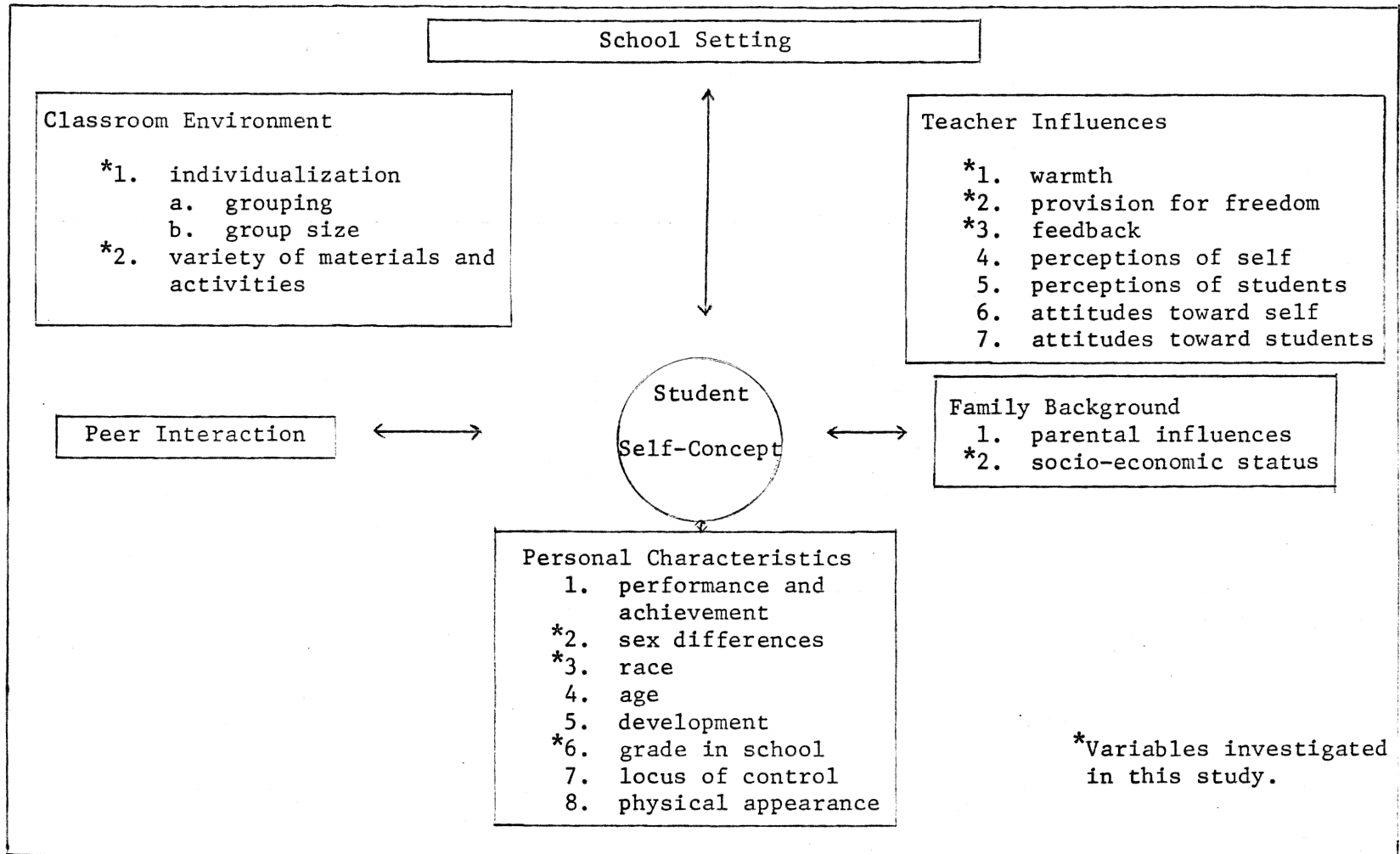


Figure 1

Diagram of Variables Related to Student Self-Concept

of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds toward himself. He believed that self-concept is significantly associated with personal satisfaction and effective functioning. Copper-smith suggested that self-concept may be multifaceted with regard to varying experiences and role-defining conditions such as sex and age. The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) included statements relative to school, family, peers, self, and general social activities in order to determine the extent of differing appraisals of self. Cooper-smith's beliefs are relevant and important to this study because his SEI was used to assess the self-concept of the students involved in the study.

Other writers, such as Felker (1974), emphasized that self-concept is the sum total view which an individual has of himself. The term self-concept, according to Wylie (1961), refers to the individual's perceptions and feelings toward himself. V. C. Raimy defined self-concept as the organized perceptual object resulting from present observation--what a person believes about himself (Dinkmeyer, 1965). Jersild (1960) reported that the self-concept is a composite of a person's thoughts and feelings, beliefs and hopes, fears and fantasies, his views of what he is, what he has been, what he might become, and his attitudes pertaining to his worth. This composite of self-concept is multifaceted and is comprised of many ideas.

Self-concept has been found to have an impact on behavior. Rogers (1973) and Snygg and Combs (1959) among others assigned the self-concept a central place in their personality theories and suggested

that the individual's self-concept is a major factor influencing his behavior. Combs, Avila, and Purkey (1971) maintained that the self-concept is the most important single factor affecting behavior. What people do at every moment of their lives is a product of how they see themselves and the situations in which they find themselves.

One's emotions and how one feels about things also are related to self-concept. A study by William James (Stanchfield, 1975) revealed that we are all creatures of our emotions. He found that people respond 90% of the time in the affective domain and only 10% of the time in the cognitive domain.

According to James, referred to by Simmons and Rosenberg (1973), it is not only a question of how favorably the individual judges himself, but also how much emphasis he has placed on a particular quality. If a person cares little about a certain quality he will not be disturbed by its absence. However, a low self-rating on a quality that is valued highly is likely to be experienced as disturbing. Dinkmeyer (1965) felt that the self-concept is the individual's anticipation of his general acceptance or rejection in a given situation.

Rappoport (1972) referred to G. H. Mead's "looking-glass self," whereby the relevant persons in a child's life each serve him as a kind of mirror. This theory suggests that the child will come to think of himself as these others act toward him. If he is treated with consideration as a valuable person, he will think of himself that way. And if he is treated as a worthless nuisance, he will think of himself that way.

Experiences one has had also tend to influence one's self-concept. Davidson and Lang (1960) suggested that feelings about the self are established early in life but are modified by subsequent experiences. On the other hand, self-concept tends to take new experiences and shape them to conform to established patterns. Thomas (1973) reported that little is known about stability and change in self-concept, although Harris (1971) found scholastic self-concept to be a relatively stable dimension of personality for early and middle adolescents. Engel (1959) concluded that self-concept is relatively stable over time. His study, which extended over a two-year period, also indicated that students who persist in negative self-concepts are more likely to give greater evidence of maladjustment.

Through an extensive review of literature Shavelson et al. (1976) suggested that self-concept becomes less stable when specific situations are considered. They cited the Ludwig and Maehr study which showed that a specific physical achievement might change one facet of a person's self-concept, while not affecting that subject's overall self-concept. Purkey (1970) reported from his literature review that one's self-concept will change if conditions are favorable.

Purkey (1970) further suggested that the total self-concept is made up of fairly well organized subparts which he identifies as small spirals. These small spirals represent countless beliefs one holds about oneself with some being more significant than others. These beliefs, suggested Purkey (1970), may be divided into specific categories such as student, wife, mother, Christian, and attributes such as tall, fat, pretty, and friendly.

Purkey (1970) indicated that the self-concept has been virtually ignored by psychology and largely overlooked by education. Likewise, Simmons and Rosenberg (1973) indicated that knowledge about self-concept is also limited in social psychology.

The researcher defines self-concept as the sum total of a person's experiences. The entire emotional being is employed in one's personal concept of self. The person's self-concept is comprised of many facets or parts, which together make that person what he is and/or hopes to become. Because some of these facets may be influenced more than others by the total school setting, the researcher distinguished between total self-concept and self-concept as it relates to the student. Student self-concept, therefore, refers to the kind of person he is or thinks he is relative to school. With positive reinforcement from the school through such variables as classroom environment and teacher influences the researcher believes that a student's self-concept can be changed affirmatively.

Self-Concept and School

When a child enters school many of his waking hours are spent there. In a sense the school begins to substitute for the parent in many areas of learning including the shaping of the student's attitudes and self-concept. The school sets the tone or the environment for learning, affective as well as cognitive, by the attention given to the individual learner and by the attitude of the faculty toward the students. The following studies indicate that the school can and should play an important role in the development of the student's self-concept.

Authors such as LaBenne and Greene (1969) support the theory that the school is a major contributing agent in shaping the child's conception of self. Mistry (1960) indicated that the school is second only to the home in influencing an individual's attitudes of self-acceptance and self-rejection. According to research by Evans (1972), school can have either a positive effect or a negative effect on student's self-concept. Students who are allowed to make educational choices and who enjoy these choices are more likely to develop a healthy self-concept than students who do not have these opportunities. Students who have less positive self-concepts often experience school failure and anxiety over school work. Evans contends that the student's self-acceptance and acceptance by those around him are the most important factors in his education.

Believing that schools can have an effect on student's self-concept, Combs (1958) indicated that one task in education is to foster fulfillment or realization of the best that one can become. Related to the above statement, writers such as Averch (1971), Holt (1964), Allport (1961), and Havighurst (1963) indicated that schools have a responsibility to create an environment whereby students will grow in their attitudes toward self. Schools often stress cognitive achievement but fail to help students develop a positive self-concept. To experience success, students must feel confident about their relationship to their world and develop positive perceptions about themselves. Moreover, Evans (1972) stressed that schools can help students understand themselves and see themselves in relation to their peers.

Research by Staines (1958) suggested that teaching methods can be adopted to bring more positive student self-concept without loss of academic gain. Staines indicated that teachers can assist students in their positive self-concept development by stressing values and offering them opportunities for self-direction and self-determination. Thomas (1973) reported research that strongly indicates that the choice of school program relates to student self-concept. His research supported the theory that students feel more secure, worthy, and competent when they are in different, experimental, flexible, and adventuresome programs. Moreover, Frankel (1964) reported that self-concept can be modified upward when optimal situations are available. He concluded that this growth in self-concept can be attributed to the experience of living away from home in an academic setting with a group of highly motivated, intellectually oriented peers.

Bloom (1964) suggested that the consequences of repeated success or failure over several school years must have major effects on the student's view of himself. Similarly, Coopersmith (1969) contended that our educational techniques should foster self-esteem, since high self-esteem is correlated with need achievement which proves to be a self-fulfilling prophecy for success. Thus, the more successful a person becomes the more positive will be his self-concept. Authors such as Stanford and Roark (1974) further emphasized, through their research findings, that schools have a responsibility to guard against techniques and experiences that cause students to form negative self-concepts through repeated failure. These authors recognize that some

failures will occur, but stress the importance of balancing these failures with successful experiences.

On the basis of the literature presented the conclusion drawn is that the school has an important role in molding the self-concept of the students. Schools having faculties that encourage educational choices, flexible programs, success experiences, and self-acceptance appear to produce students with positive self-concepts.

Self-Concept and Classroom Environment

Although the school may set the tone for shaping the attitudes of students and for placing emphasis on the affective domain, classroom environment within the school is a major influence in the development of the student's self-concept. Many writers, including Henry (1957), agreed that children's attitudes, behaviors, and self-concept are organized primarily within the classroom. Getzels and Thelen (1960) suggested further that affective aspects of classroom climate, such as positive classroom reinforcement, predict both cognitive and affective learning. Landis (1972) also indicated that an important aspect of the student's frame of reference is the classroom environment in which he operates. According to Landis, students who achieve well in school are reinforced for his behavior by the teacher and should exhibit a substantial self-concept. On the other hand, individuals who achieve poorly do not receive this type of reinforcement and tend to show a lower self-concept. Triandis (1971) revealed that attitude change can occur but it tends to disappear if the environment does not support the behavior that accompanies change.

Other studies, such as those conducted by Newcomb (Stoddard, 1975), suggested that changed attitudes persist when reinforcements for the behavioral expression of the changed attitude are found in the environment. Wylie (1961) reported that the self-concept is developed through a combination of rewards and punishments related to one's actions and characteristics. Similarly, Combs' (1962) research indicated that the child learns about himself not only through his own successes and failures but also from the reactions of people toward him. He discussed the need for a flexible classroom environment, thus providing opportunity for students to expand beyond the "two by four" teaching methods (two meaning the two covers of the book and four the four walls of the classroom). Through empirical research, Thomas (1973) concluded that the type of school, school organization, and teacher-pupil relationships all influence student self-concept.

Research with major emphasis on the school also indicated the importance of classroom environment on the student's self-concept. Such a study was The White House Conference on Children and Youth (1960) that identified the objectives of a good elementary school. This study considered the importance of child guidance in a favorable learning environment and the warm, understanding relationships between teacher and student.

From these studies one might conclude that a student's self-concept may be influenced either positively or negatively by the environment of the classroom. Classroom environments characterized by positive learner reinforcement, flexibility, achievement motivation,

and warm, understanding student-teacher relationships tend to promote the positive self-concept of the students.

Additional research in this area was divided into sections according to Figure 1, page 5. Supporting literature is rather scarce for some of the identified variables, however, the researcher believes that all of the variables in the model do have important roles in influencing the students' self-concept.

Individualization through grouping. Although for many years educators have been concerned about the grouping of students, this still remains a crucial and controversial issue. Lavatelli et al. (1972) referred to a statement by Yates to summarize the constant indecision on grouping: "In arguments about grouping policies one can usually find evidence to support any point of view that one chooses to adopt-- enough evidence to discomfort one's opponent but never enough to overwhelm him."

The researcher contends that low achieving students have a more positive self-concept and receive more encouragement to achieve in the academic aspects of school when they are grouped according to individual needs. This viewpoint is supported by Franseth and Koury (1966). Their research also suggested that learning problems would be greatly alleviated if children on similar levels of ability or achievement could be grouped together for instructional purposes. Likewise, Hillson (Lavatelli, 1972) claims that ability grouping is advantageous for the following reasons: (1) the child has a real chance to succeed as he is challenged at his own level, (2) social success is possible as slow

students have a chance to become leaders in their own groups, and (3) this type of grouping is more similar to real life situations as students compete with those somewhere near their own level.

Other researchers such as Dineen and Gary (1955) maintained that when a student is placed in a school group with others who accept him and respond to him, he can contribute more, feel more positive toward himself, and function better in the group. The Utah Study (Borg, 1966) suggested that slow students have a better chance of gaining peer approval in ability grouped classrooms. The slow student's attitudes toward both the school and teacher were also more favorable in the ability grouping situation. Borg suggested that the ability grouping system provides a more favorable environment for the slow student than does the random grouping treatment. According to Borg, this is due to their improved peer group status. This study indicates, however, that it is easier to measure academic achievement than self-concept.

Researchers such as LaBenne and Greene (1960) acknowledge that research concerning the effect of ability grouping on self-concept is far from conclusive. They contend, however, that through individualized classroom instruction the need for ability grouping and the inherent dangers therein are prevented. Similarly, an experimental study by Goldberg, Passow, and Justman (Lavatelli et al., 1972) suggested that in the absence of carefully planned adaptations of content and method, ability grouping did not necessarily improve the student's academic achievement at any level of ability. On the other hand, a two year study conducted by J. E. Houston (Franseth and Koury, 1966) recognized

the merits of adapting the curriculum to match the students' achievement levels. In the Houston study, first-grade students were grouped according to the readiness levels. While basic reading readiness was begun at once in the first two groups, the third group, which was in need of much pre-readiness work progressed slower but the curriculum was laden with opportunity for experience, development of muscular control, and preparation for reading readiness. The investigators concluded that this method of grouping, in recognizing individual differences in children, reduced grade failure. Although this study does not relate directly to self-concept, it does relate to achievement, which in turn affects self-concept. Thus, the researcher feels this study indirectly supports the theory that ability grouping, which makes use of adaptations in the curriculum, can lead to a more positive self-concept.

Through its design, the ESEA, Title I resource classroom program is actually an extension of the regular classroom. Students in these classrooms are grouped because of similarities in their needs, thereby making it possible for teachers to meet the students' immediate educational as well as their emotional needs. Although research is far from conclusive and evidence is limited as to the effect of grouping on student self-concept, both the available research and the experience of the researcher indicate that low-achieving students may develop a more positive self-concept when grouped with students of similar achievement levels. Current research furthermore implies that

carefully planned methods and content may increase academic achievement in ability grouped classes.

Individualization through group size. Size of the group can encourage or inhibit individualization. A teacher who works with small groups often can better recognize the needs of the students, can help them in their development of a positive feeling of self-worth, and can individualize for their academic strengths and weaknesses.

In the Philadelphia Study (Summers and Wolfe, 1975), low achievers in elementary schools did better, academically speaking, when they were placed in smaller classes of less than 28 students. This study also indicated that all elementary students in the sample, in classes of more than 34 students, experienced negative effects on achievement. This increased as the size of the class increased. Low-income students experienced the greatest negative effects when they were in larger classes.

A recent study by the NESDEC Study Team (1975) concluded that for lower ability students, academic achievement in reading and to a lesser degree in mathematics was positively influenced by smaller class size. Small class size was defined as less than 25 students, and low ability students were defined as those with Otis IQ's below 85. This study also related that non-white students in smaller class sizes made greater academic gains than white students. Also, smaller class size frequently contributed to better teacher morale. This study suggested that teachers with small classes are able to devote more attention to individual needs, both educational and emotional.

The NESDEC Study (1975) emphasizes that research on the effects of class size and student achievement is contradictory and inconclusive. Also, this study reported that none of the research attempted to measure the effect of class size on student progress in the affective domain.

Research dealing with the effects of class size on self-concept is limited. However, the research indicated that low-ability students were positively influenced in their academic work by smaller class size. Also, non-white students and low income students benefited academically in smaller classes. Therefore, low achievers appear to have more positive self-concepts when placed in smaller classes because the increased opportunities for individualized instruction should promote greater gains in achievement, which in turn should promote a more positive self-concept.

Variety of materials and equipment. Through observation and experience the researcher believes that the use of a variety of materials, selected with individual needs in mind, makes a difference in the student's academic achievement as well as the student's growth in self-concept. Combs (1962) has expressed the belief that students need to have available a wide range of instructional materials and equipment to create openness both in affective as well as cognitive learning.

Current research is limited as to the effects of the use of a variety of materials and activities on student self-concept. However, researchers such as Bloom (1976) indicate that some active involvement

of the learner is required if learning is to take place. His research suggests that students can gain in achievement when instruction includes such teaching devices as new materials, additional workbooks, practice exercises, and sound cassettes.

An earlier study by Liddle and Long (Franseth and Koury, 1966) examined the effects of an experimental classroom on a group of eighteen second-grade slow learners from culturally deprived backgrounds. The teacher of the experimental students used a wider variety of materials than the teacher of the heterogeneously grouped classes. Also, the students in the experimental classes were taken through the curriculum at their own speed. At the end of the second year in this program, a growth of 1.75 years for the experimental group was shown, a growth much higher than expected. The students seemed happy and eager to learn, and their contentment led the parents to accept the program. The California Test of Personality was administered to the students and results showed an enhancement of the students' sense of personal worth. The researchers also noted that the students had a stronger feeling of belonging and improved social skills.

The apparent conclusion from this single study is that achievement and self-concept of slow learners may be enhanced by the use of a variety of materials.

Self-Concept and Teacher Influences

Many educators believe that the teacher is the focal point in the classroom. The teacher generally initiates the learning process, creates an atmosphere conducive to motivating the learner, and produces

the environmental setting whereby students feel their own self-worth and are stimulated into becoming successful learners. According to Dinkmeyer (1965), the teacher is active in shaping the student's goals, concepts, convictions, and attitudes. He provides the experiences and environment within which concepts, convictions, and assumptions are formulated.

Felker (1974) maintained that the teacher is the main agent of the school in self-concept development of the students. In order for students to grow in their positive attitudes toward self, teachers must be sensitive and alert to their students' feelings. Researchers, such as Bauer (1971), reported that there is a growing conviction that the teacher's single most important function is that of guiding children and youth in the development of well-balanced, effective personalities. Snygg and Combs (1949) found that teachers can be most influential in helping children develop positive self-concepts.

Studies by Lunn (1970) and Thomas (1971) also indicated the importance of the classroom teacher and his relationship with the individual student in the development of the student's self-concept. Thomas (1973) reported that both Zahran and Pederson showed that the teacher has a significant impact on a student's level of self-concept and can depress or elevate it, thus affecting his level of aspiration and performance.

The following areas of teacher influence, which contribute to positive student self-concept, are dimensions that were identified for observation in this study.

Warmth. In order for students to feel secure and to enjoy the classroom experience, teachers need to demonstrate a warm and friendly behavior toward the students. A number of studies found that a teacher's degree of interpersonal warmth can be a factor in his effectiveness. Research conducted by Cogan (1958), Christensen (1960), and Reed (1962) all support the contention that students having warm, considerate teachers produce higher academic gains and show more interest in their school subjects. Purkey (1967) believed that an educational environment must be characterized by warmth, respect, and a psychologically supportive learning situation in order to encourage students' feeling of self-worth.

Spaulding's (1964) research indicated a significant relationship between the learner's self-concept and the teacher's behavior. His study found positive correlations between self-concept and the degree to which the teachers in his study were calm, acceptant, supportive, and facilitative. He also found negative correlations between student self-concept and dominative, grim, threatening, and sarcastic teacher behavior. Kelly (1973) studied the visually perceived non-verbal behaviors of teachers and the effects of these behaviors on the students' affective responses. His study indicated that both boys and girls preferred teachers who smiled frequently.

Dunkin and Biddle (1974) refer to the global concept of warmth through the categories of teacher praise and teacher acceptance of students' ideas. Extensive research by these authors indicated that the instrument used most often for judging student and teacher behavior in the classroom is the Flanders Interaction Analysis Category (FIAC)

system and its modifications. They further related that the use of praise by teachers can be increased through training. Through the use of FIAC, research indicated that teacher praise is associated with more positive student self-concept (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974).

Studies, such as the one conducted by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), indicated that students benefit more significantly when teachers have favorable expectations of their students. In the Rosenthal and Jacobson study, it was hypothesized that the teacher's tone of voice, facial expression, touch, and posture projected his expectancies to the pupil. Rosenthal's experiments indicated that students show greater intellectual gains when teachers expect gains. Although this study is well known among educators, the method of sampling, data gathering, data analysis, and appropriateness of the conclusions drawn have been widely disputed by such authors as Robert L. Thorndike (1968) and Snow and Elashoff (1971). The authors argue that the inadequacy of statistical summaries in the last chapter of Pygmalion should be clearly specified. In a similar study by Frerichs and Adelman (1974), the experimental teachers, after being told their students were experiencing difficulty in school, viewed them more negatively than did the control teachers who were told the students were normal achievers. Furthermore, McCallon (1967) found that a student who is considered least desirable to teach develops a more positive self-concept when the teacher perceives that student more favorably.

Research indicates that teachers who possess qualities of warmth, consideration, respect, and acceptance of others produce

students who make higher achievement gains and subsequently have more positive self-concepts. Studies also indicate that higher achievement levels are attained by students when teachers viewed them favorably and have favorable expectations of their ability. Further research indicates that teacher praise is associated with more positive student self-concept.

Freedom. Based on personal observation the researcher is of the opinion that students' self-concept is enhanced when teachers provide an atmosphere that facilitates student independence and individual freedom.

Olson (Dinkmeyer, 1965), in reporting studies of the classroom, emphasized that group climate is the most important factor in the child's socialization at school. Further, the teacher is the principal agent in establishing this climate while interpersonal relationships are the method for establishing the socialization.

Pine and Boy (Gazda, 1973) observed that students need a certain amount of freedom in the classroom so that they can rely upon their own capacities and competencies. These researchers suggest that if adults dominate a child's life, spontaneity becomes controlled and the child may lose his individuality and essences as a person. Thus, his self-concept would include feelings of inadequacy, failure, and incompetence.

Although research is limited in the area of freedom, the literature review suggests that one function of the teacher in the classroom is to set the climate for the affective growth of students. This climate should foster such conditions as freedom, which contributes to a child's positive self-concept.

Feedback or interaction. In order for the student's self-concept to be positive in the learning environment, the teacher must communicate to the student in a positive way the acceptability or correctness of his responses. The student can develop a healthy self-concept through the relationship, which is built between him and the teacher via experiences provided in the learning situation, suggested Mattocks and Jew (1973). These authors reported that, in the context of the interaction between the teacher and the child, the self-concept is aided or distorted in its continued development. According to Mattocks and Jew a teacher can contribute to a child's growing self-concept after picking up cues from the child as to how he perceives himself in relation to others and through promoting consistency in the student's self-concept. They also suggested the importance of promoting confidence and integration into the child's perception of self, being aware of body image, assisting the child to learn by doing and thinking, and avoiding unreasonable demands.

In his studies of teacher-pupil interaction, Flanders (1951) found that the students who learned the most and scored the highest on classroom attitude scales had teachers who used flexible interaction styles--patterns of influence that were deemed appropriate to the particular situation encountered. Gazda (1973) suggested that feedback may be either positive or negative in nature. Positive feedback, or interaction, can be a powerful reinforcer for effective behavior. Likewise, Gazda suggests that when negative feedback is well timed and offered with empathy, respect, warmth, and genuineness, it can be an important contribution to the student's growth.

Felker, Stanwyck, and Key (1973) reported that students made important gains in self-concept after their teachers were directly involved in workshops designed to improve their methods of interaction and feedback. These methods were applied in an effort to increase self-rewarding behavior in children. Nimnicht (1969) reported that environmental deprivation, which contributes to a negative self-concept, is often caused by a poor quality of interaction between a child and adults.

Research indicates the important role the teacher has in providing a learning environment which fosters positive interaction and feedback. Interaction may aid or distort a student's self-concept, however, when it is well timed and offered with such teacher influences as warmth and empathy, negative interaction or feedback can be an important contribution to a student's growth. Positive student self-concept is increased by pupil-teacher relationships that provide an open communication of feedback and acceptance.

Other teacher influences. The following research relates to general studies on the subject of teacher influences on student self-concept. Gardner (1974) reported that a given teaching behavior might have markedly different effects on different students depending on their personalities. He found that achievement-pressing teachers tended to have a positive effect upon the student having high achievement motivation, but a relatively harmful effect upon students with very low achievement motivation.

Also important to the student's self-concept is how he perceives his teacher's feelings toward him. Davidson and Lang (1960) reported that the more positive the students' perceptions of teachers' feelings the better are their academic achievements and self-perceptions and the more desirable their classroom behavior as rated by the teacher. This study indicated that girls generally perceive their teachers' feelings more favorably than do boys. Also, children in the advantaged social class groups perceive their teachers' feelings toward them more favorably than do children in the lower class groups. According to Lyon (1971) many of the behavior problems of our classrooms stem from the fact that teachers are not sensitive to feelings or refuse to integrate them with the intellectual content of the classroom. Combs (1969) noted that the teacher's attitudes toward himself and others are as important as his techniques, practices, or materials in the development of student self-concept.

Self-Concept and Peer Interaction

We humans are gregarious beings, and in an effort to achieve internal motivation for success, it does matter how we perceive others and how they perceive us. Research supports the theory that children are greatly influenced by their peer group. Horney, Fromm, and Rogers (Stoddard, 1975) took the position that individuals who feel positive about themselves also tend to feel positive toward others. According to Wylie (1961) theorists assume that positive self-concept will lead to ability to get along better with others, and that acceptance by others will maintain or enhance self-concept. Coopersmith, Zelen, Perkins,

Brownfain, and Turner and Vanderlippe reported significant correlations between self-acceptance and sociometric acceptance of peers (Wylie, 1961). Likewise, Fey's (1954) study suggested that expressed attitudes of self-acceptance are strongly and positively related to expressed attitude of acceptance of others.

Self-concept can also be judged by a person's attitude toward others. From their study, Teigland et al. (1966) concluded that the peers of underachievers tend to reject underachievers in classroom situations as well as in play and social situations. Hoffer (1951) also contended that people who reject others generally have low self-esteem, and the individual who hates himself can only tolerate himself if he attaches himself to a group. Furthermore, the individual who has learned acceptance behavior in relation to himself is more likely to generalize it to other individuals (Felker, 1974).

Research indicates that praise is a great reinforcer for obtaining and maintaining a positive self-concept. Studies by Coons and McEachern (1967) found that self-praise and praise of others are positively related. Other studies reported by Wylie (1961) indicated that persons chosen sociometrically or as friends are seen by the chooser to be more similar to himself and to his own ideal self than are non-chosen or disliked persons.

Conclusions from the literature review indicate that children are influenced by their peer group. Students who accept their peers and are accepted by them have more positive self-concepts than those who are not accepted. Also, individuals who feel positive about

themselves tend to view others more favorably. Research also indicates that underachievers are often rejected by their peer group.

Self-Concept and Personal Variables

Besides school and classroom influences, teacher influences, and peer influences on a student's self-concept, there are several personal variables that influence the student's feelings of self-adequacy and worth. The following variables were identified by the researcher as being important factors in influencing student self-concept.

Performance and achievement. Studies of student self-concept cannot be complete without discussing performance and achievement in school. The researcher believes that a student's self-concept influences his performance; on the other hand, the student's performance influences the way in which he feels about himself. This belief is supported by the researcher's own experiences as well as the review of literature that follows.

The Brookover, Thomas, and Paterson (1964) study concluded that there is a significant and positive correlation between self-concept and performance in the academic role. From his research, Purkey (1967) concluded that academic underachievement is related to concept of self, and that underachievement is likely to occur during the early elementary school years. According to LaBenne and Green (1969) empirical data demonstrates a direct relationship between the student's self-concept and his manifest behavior, perceptions, and academic performance.

Strowig (1970) found that self-concept adds significantly to the prediction of performance even when ability measures are taken into account. Studies by Reeder (1955), Jersild (1952), Stevens (1956), Coopersmith (1967), and Campbell (1967) supported the contention that a student's self-concept is related to his performance in the classroom.

Many studies support the viewpoint that students who are low achievers may also have less positive self-concepts. Felker (1974) concluded that achievement and self-concept interact. Low self-concept can produce lower performance, which in turn feeds the low self-concept, which in turn produces lower performance. The Brunner and Starkey (1974) research failed to support the hypothesis that special-education students have a lower self-concept than students from classes for the emotionally-disturbed, learning disabled, remedial, and academically average. They found that the students with lower self-concepts were the students in the remedial classes.

Caplin (1968) reported that students having more positive self-concepts and higher levels of aspiration have higher academic achievement. Campbell (1967) found that for fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade students there is a positive relationship between performance on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory and achievement scores. He concluded that the general tendency is for a low self-concept to be associated with lowered performance. Similarly, Coopersmith (1959) reported that students who have more successful experiences score significantly higher in their self-evaluation than individuals with fewer successful experiences.

Thomas (1973) reported that seventy per cent of researchers reviewed by Rushton revealed that stability or adjustment is positively connected with academic achievement. Rushton's (1966) own study concluded that well-adjusted 11-year-olds have higher school achievement than 11-year olds who are not as well adjusted. One might hypothesize, suggested Thomas (1973), that children with positive self-concepts achieve better in school than those with negative self-concepts.

Shaw and Alves (1963) reported that low self-concept is characterized by significant underachievement, that is, the individual with a low self-concept does less well than expected when only his ability measures are taken into account. This study suggested that male underachievers have more negative self-concepts than male achievers. Female underachievers are significantly more negative in their perceptions of how others perceive them. According to Kay (1972), individuals with negative self-concepts set their goals either unrealistically low or unrealistically high. Other studies, such as those of Davidson and Greenburg (1967), reported that high achievers are more able to exercise control and to cope more effectively with feelings of hostility and anxiety generated by the environment than are low achievers.

Quandt (1973) believed that many educators and psychologists support the notion that the way a child feels about himself has a great effect upon his ability to learn. This feeling about oneself, the self-concept, is often discussed in relation to reading achievement. Frerich's (1971) study emphasized that good performance in school is associated with high self-esteem. He concluded that teacher grades and

reading level are closely related to the level of self-esteem of the students. Studies by Williams and Cole (1968), Henderson and Long (1966), Carlton (1964), and Lovinger (1967) all indicated a moderate but significant positive correlation between reading achievement and self-concept. Athey (1966) used factor analysis to associate adolescents identified as poor readers with lack of self-confidence, while Zimmerman and Allebrand (1965) and Hake (1969), comparing groups of students, found significant differences in self-concept between achieving and nonachieving readers. On the other hand, Henderson (1965) found no significant difference between reading achievers and non-achievers on another self-devised text of self-concept. Alexander (1964) believed that poor achievement lends itself to continued poor achievement.

Research suggests that a student's self-concept has a great influence upon his ability to learn. Less positive self-concept is associated with lower performance while positive self-concept is associated with higher academic achievement.

Sex differences. Although studies often report conflicting conclusions, the literature strongly suggests that boys and girls do display different perceptions of self. According to Roth and Puri (1967), and Sears (1970), positive relationships between academic achievement and self-concept appear to be stronger in boys than in girls. These research findings indicated that self-concept in boys appears to be more stable and predictable than in girls.

Wylie (1961), reporting on studies conducted by McKee and Sherriffs, Berger, Zuckerman, Baer and Monashkin, and others, concluded that the stereotype concerning the male is more favorable or desirable than that concerning the female. Campbell (1967), using Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory, reported a positive relationship between self-esteem and achievement. His data suggested a higher relationship for boys than for girls, and the relationship decreased at progressively higher grade levels. Campbell (1967) stated that efforts to improve self-concept have a greater chance of affecting the achievement of boys than of girls. Perkins (1958) suggested that among fourth- and sixth-grade children, the girls have significantly greater self-ideal congruence than do boys. Brophy and Good (1974) suggested through their literature review that girls have more favorable perceptions toward school than boys.

In the Thomas (1973) study, Piers and Harris found no consistent sex differences in the self-concepts of school children in grades 3, 6, and 10, while Amatora found that elementary school boys tended to rate themselves lower as compared to their ratings by girls and teachers. On the other hand, girls tended to rate themselves higher on intelligence, sociability, neatness, and quietness than when boys and teachers rated them.

Studies conducted by Combs (1964), Shaw and Alves (1961), Fink (1962), and Shaw, Edson, and Bell (1960) all concluded that male underachievers have more negative self-concepts than do male achievers. Shaw, Edson, and Bell also found that male underachievers have rather

strong negative self-concepts as opposed to their female counterparts. Fink and Shaw and Alves further suggested that this relationship appears to be stronger in boys than in girls.

A more recent study by Kifer (1975), using Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory, reported that girls who are academically unsuccessful in school score lower on all variables of self-concept than do the unsuccessful boys in the study. This study dealt with students in grades two through eight.

Although the literature is at times conflicting on the relationship between sex and self-concept, the majority of the research indicates that self-concept seems to be a better predictor of academic achievement for boys than for girls. While one study suggests that the self-concept of boys is more stable and predictable, other studies indicate that boys tend to have less favorable attitudes toward school than girls. However, underachievement may be a problem for them much earlier than for girls.

Race. Many researchers agree that our society has created an environment that produces negative self-concepts within the black populace. According to Stoddard (1975), the earliest empirical findings concluded that blacks not only possessed negative self-concept but rejected their racial identification to the point of self-hatred. Also, such researchers as Clark, Goodman, Trager and Yarrow, and Hartley (Banks and Grambs, 1972), revealed that most black children have negative evaluations toward their race, thus they develop lower self-concept than do white children. Banks and Grambs (1972) contended that the

perceptions and attitudes that many black children have toward themselves are still alive within a world where to be black produces feelings of shame, despair, and anger.

Banks (Banks and Grambs, 1972) reported that in both subtle and overt ways teachers influence their students' racial feelings and self-perceptions. According to Banks and Grambs (1972), a significant body of research suggests that most white American adults harbor negative racial attitudes toward black and other ethnic groups. They indicated that this same feeling is also harbored by teachers.

Research conducted in the sixties revealed that the average self-reports of blacks did not differ significantly from their average white counterparts (Stoddard, 1975). In fact, the study conducted by Soares and Soares (1969) revealed that the disadvantaged registered a positive self-concept which was higher than the advantaged group. Blacks comprised approximately two-thirds of the disadvantaged sample (Stoddard, 1975). Nancy Arnez (Banks and Grambs, 1972) also reported that a very positive self-concept does exist in black children. Toffler (1974) indicated that the recent movement toward black pride has substantiated the position that American blacks may have a healthy self-esteem despite the presence of oppression. He felt that this is due to the love and constant care from the immediate family.

Early research suggests that black children tend to demonstrate a lower self-concept than white children; however, more recent studies have found either that race is not a determining factor in influencing student self-concept or that the self-concept of black students tends to be higher than that of white students.

Age, physical development, and grade in school. Many studies have concentrated on the age of the learner and its relationship to self-concept. According to Harvey (1975), from the moment children are born they begin to develop positive and negative feelings about themselves. The most important ages for the development of self-esteem are early and middle childhood, ages three to ten. These are the years, reported Harvey, that children concentrate on dealing with their feelings about themselves and their self-worth.

The beginning of self-awareness and self-esteem have their roots in very early childhood, contended Kremer (1972). She believed that in order for early childhood programs to have maximum impact, direct attention must be paid to the development of the self-image, in particular, self-concept. She felt that this is particularly true when considering the disadvantaged child, who often comes to school with a poorly developed self-concept. Gordon (1971) also believed that the origins of self-concept lie in the early years.

Purkey (1967) suggests that chronic underachievement is definitely present in the early grades and probably begins as early as the first grade. Shaw and McCuen and Teigland et al. also suggest the early appearance of this problem (Purkey, 1967). The key periods of change in attitude toward school are found at the end of grade three and at the end of grade six, reported Erhlick (1968). In both of these grades students show a decline in self-concept. Studies by Neale and Proshek (1967) and Lefevre (1966) have indicated a negative trend in attitude toward school as the child grows older. Strickland (1970)

and Neale and Proshev (1967), among others, reported that children like school less as they grow older and progress through the grades.

Other studies, such as the 1960-61 Minnesota Study by Flanders (Flanders, Brode, and Morrison, 1968), indicated a decline in student self-concept during the school year. Results of this study indicated a significant reduction of students' positive attitudes toward their teachers and their schoolwork as the school year progressed. Flanders, Brode, and Morrison (1968), in a similar study in Michigan, reported almost identical results as the earlier study, a decline in their concept of school, school work, and teachers as the year progressed.

Literature suggests that the self-concept begins to develop as soon as a child is born. Adolescence are the key years for self-concept change. Literature also indicates that students tend to have more negative attitudes toward school as they grow older and progress through the grades. Grades three and six are rated as peak years for producing more negative self-concepts. Students also experience a decline in their self-concept as the school year progresses.

Locus of control. The learning theory concerning locus of control, developed primarily by Rotter (1954), refers to the individual's perception of whether his successes or failures are under his control or are controlled by an outside force. Felker (1974) described high internal control as being evident if an individual thinks that his successes and failures are under his control. If he believes that his successes and failures are under the control of some outside force, he is said to have high external control.

Flanders, Morrison and Brode (1968) found that during a school year students with high external locus of control have greater change in the direction of negative attitudes toward school than students with high internal locus of control.

Epstein and Komorita (1971) reported that the black students in their study who scored high on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory were more internal than the low- or moderate-esteem subjects. Furthermore, failure rather than success experiences were attributed to external cases. In a sample of fourth-grade students, the self-concept of the boys had a negative relationship with internal responsibility for failure; that is, the boys with high self-concept tended to put the responsibility for failure on the other person (Felker and Thomas, 1971).

Conclusions drawn from the literature indicate that a student's self-concept can be influenced by his feelings of self-control of a given situation. Students with a high degree of internal locus of control tend to display a more positive self-concept than students who are dependent upon others. External locus of control tends to foster failure rather than success experiences.

Physical appearance. Physical appearance or physical attractiveness has been found to affect an individual's self-concept. If a person has a body that either cannot function normally in order to accomplish physical tasks or is not favorably stereotyped by society, self-concept is likely to be affected (Felker, 1974). Many investigations into physical appearance and self-concept look at the physical dimension of body type. The round, fat body build usually receives

lower self-ratings and generally negative reactions (Caskey and Felker, 1971).

Studies of self-concept in girls [Hall, 1963; Lahiry, 1960; Calden, 1959; and Herman, 1971 (all referred to by Thomas, 1973)], all indicated that girls show considerable dissatisfaction with their physical self and are anxious about their failure to reach an ideal. These studies did not include the self-concept of boys.

Wylie (1961) contended that self-concept theorists agree on the general idea that body characteristics which are lowly valued by the student may be expected to undermine his general self-regard, while highly valued body characteristics should enhance self-regard.

Studies indicate that students with physical handicaps or abnormal physical appearances have more negative self-concepts than their more "normal" peers. Girls generally tend to be dissatisfied with their physical self. Research also suggests that lowly valued body characteristics tend to undermine a student's self-regard.

Self-Concept and Family Background

One important variable which may influence a student's self-concept is family background. This variable is presented from the viewpoint of parental influences and socio-economic status.

Parental influences. Research indicates that a student's self-concept is influenced by those people who are closest to him. Thus, parental influences may have a great effect on the self-concept of the student because the parent is most likely the person closest to him during his pre-school years.

Wylie (1961) believed that the self-concept is a learned constellation of perceptions, cognitions, and values. Because an important part of this learning comes from the persons who are present earliest and most consistently, Wylie contended that a parent can influence the development of the child's self-concept. According to Harvey (1975), parents of low self-esteem children are either openly hostile or indifferent and inattentive in their relationships with their children. On the other hand, parents of high self-esteem children use rewards more often than punishment and are warm and accepting toward their children. The child's achievement, self-concept, and attitude toward school are likely to be influenced by such variables as the richness of the learning environment in the home, parental aspirations for the child, and parental concern for education.

In a study by McDaniel (1973), student attitude toward school and parental aspirations for their child were negatively related. The parent questionnaire used contained items concerning achievement. These items referred to the degree of concern the parents had for their child's academic success in school. McDaniel related the negative correlation to a study by Erhlick (McDaniel, 1973) who observed that high enthusiasm for elementary school seems to be associated with low socio-economic status. Perhaps parents with a high level of concern and aspirations tend to expect too much of their child, which could result in the child's lower attitude toward school and also lower self-concept.

The literature suggests that parents do influence a child's self-concept. Positive parental attitudes toward their children

often result in children having positive self-concepts. Children have a less positive self-concept when their parents have negative attitudes toward them or unrealistically high aspirations for them.

Socio-economic status. The student's self-concept may also be affected by his social class or socio-economic status (SES).

Some studies indicated that socio-economic status predicts both teachers' perceptions of their students and their treatment of them in the classroom. The Davis (1952) and Dixon (1953) research suggested that teachers, as surrogates of middle class values, tend to give preferential treatment to the middle and upper socio-economic class students and to withhold rewards from students who belong to the lower socio-economic class. Furthermore, previous research shows that lower class children do not achieve as well as middle and upper class children. This is due, in part, to lower motivation and less praise and reinforcement.

In a frequently quoted and discussed study, Soares and Soares (1969) found that disadvantaged children living in lower social class areas have higher self-concepts than their middle-class counterparts. They suggested that this might be due to the fact that the low SES students are functioning according to expectations of teachers and parents, and that they are satisfied with themselves. After much research in the area of student self-concept and SES, Trowbridge (1972) reported that low SES students have consistently higher self-concept scores than middle SES students. The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

was used to measure student self-concept. Trowbridge's study included students in grades three through eight.

The Coleman Report (1966) suggested that the self-concept of black students diminishes when they become part of an integrated school system. Zirkel (1971), after an extensive literature review, concluded that ethnic group membership may either enhance or depress the self-concept of the disadvantaged child.

Wylie (1961), from her search of the literature, was not able to draw any concrete conclusions about the relationship between socio-economic status and self-concept. Berk, Rose, and Steward (1970) suggested from their review of literature that the socio-economic status of the American child does not play a significant part in the determination of his attitudes. Their own study confirmed this expectation. Likewise, Neale and Proshek (1967) reported that in a comparison of responses of fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade children attending school in a middle-income area, culturally deprived students do not have negative attitudes toward school and self.

The review of the literature is inconclusive as to the influence of socio-economic status on student self-concept. Although earlier studies suggest that low socio-economic status students tend to have a less positive self-concept, more recent studies indicate that some lower SES students may have higher self-concepts than their middle class counterparts. On the other hand, other studies suggest that low SES may not be an important factor in influencing a student's self-concept.

Conclusions from the Literature

In summarizing the literature review of studies available on self-concept the following general conclusions can be drawn.

School Setting

Self-concept may be related to a number of variables associated with school. Among these are classroom environment and teacher influences.

Classroom environment. The classroom environment is one of the major school related influences on the development of the student's self-concept. A dimension of classroom environment is individualization. The literature review indicated that low-achieving students appear to have a more positive self-concept when they are grouped with students of similar achievement levels, especially when the curriculum is adjusted to meet the achievement levels of the students. Also, limited research pertaining to individualization by means of controlling size of group suggested that low achievers perform at higher academic levels when placed in a smaller class setting. Since achievement relates to positive self-concept, it can be theorized that students, particularly low achievers, have more positive self-concepts when placed in smaller classes.

Another factor which may influence student self-concept is the use of a variety of materials and equipment for individualizing instruction. Research suggested that the self-concept of slow learners is enhanced by the use of a variety of materials.

Teacher influences. Student self-concept is enhanced by such teacher influences as warmth, feedback or interaction, and freedom. Teachers who possess qualities of warmth, respect, and acceptance of others encourage students toward higher academic achievement and toward a more positive self-concept. Also, students who are viewed favorably by their teachers have favorable expectations of their ability, thus their self-concept is enhanced.

Although research was limited in the area of freedom, studies indicated that the climate for affective growth is encouraged and established by the teacher. Through a learning environment which fosters positive interaction and feedback, teachers have the responsibility of assisting the students in attaining a positive self-concept.

Other teacher influences affecting student self-concept are the teachers' perceptions of themselves and their students, and the students' perceptions of the teacher's feelings toward themselves.

Peer Interaction

Research supported the theory that children are greatly influenced by their peer group. Conclusions from the literature review indicated that students who accept their peers and are accepted by them have more positive self-concepts than those who are not accepted. Also, individuals who feel positive about themselves tend to view others more favorably.

Personal Variables

Personal variables, including performance and achievement, sex differences, race, age, development, grade in school, locus of control, and physical appearance, all tend to influence student self-concept. The following conclusions from the literature relate to the identified personal variables in this study.

Performance and achievement. The review of the literature indicated that self-concept adds significantly to the prediction of performance and achievement. Less positive self-concept is associated with lower performance while positive self-concept is associated with higher academic accomplishments.

Sex differences. Although the literature was inconclusive on the relationship between sex and self-concept, the majority of the research indicated that self-concept seems to be a better predictor of academic achievement for boys than for girls. Boys tend to have less favorable attitudes toward school than girls and underachievement may be a greater problem for boys much earlier than for girls.

Race. Again, the research was inconclusive as to the relationship between race and self-concept. Recent studies, however, suggested that race is either not a determining factor in influencing self-concept or that the self-concept of black students tends to be higher, in some cases, than that of white students.

Age, development, and grade in school. The literature suggested that the childhood years are key years for self-concept development. As students progress through the grades their attitudes toward school tend to become more negative. Research indicated that students in grades three and six show the greatest amount of decline in self-concept.

Locus of control. The literature indicated that a student's self-concept can be influenced by his feelings of control over a given situation. Students with a high degree of internal locus of control tend to display a more positive self-concept than students who are dependent upon others. External locus of control tends to foster failure rather than success experiences.

Physical appearance. The physical appearance or attractiveness of an individual has been found to affect his self-concept. Students with physical handicaps or abnormal physical appearances will generally have a more negative self-concept than their more "normal" peers. Also, girls tend to be more dissatisfied with their physical self than do boys.

Family Background

Another variable which may influence a student's self-concept is family background. This variable was presented from the viewpoint of parental influences and socio-economic status.

Parental influences. Research indicated that positive parental attitudes toward their children positively affect self-concept. A child's negative self-concept may be influenced by the parent if the parent has negative attitudes toward the child.

Socio-economic status. The review of the literature was inconclusive as to the influence of socio-economic status on student self-concept. While earlier studies suggested that low SES students tend to have less positive self-concepts, more recent studies indicated that low SES may not play a significant part in influencing a student's self-concept. Other studies indicated that some lower SES students may have a higher self-concept than their middle class counterparts.

Summary of Chapter 1 and Preview of Succeeding Chapters

Chapter 1 contains the background that led to the identification of the problem under study: relationships among classroom environment, teacher influences, and student self-concept. This chapter also contains a review of the literature and research relevant to the variables influencing student self-concept. Of particular interest was research dealing with socio-economically and educationally disadvantaged students and with the influences of teacher and classroom environment on the self-concept of students.

Chapter 2 contains the hypotheses, operational definitions, description of the population and samples, descriptions of classroom settings, research procedures, and identification of the instruments

used, including a discussion of their validity, reliability, and scoring. The data gathering procedures are explained as are the methods used to prepare and analyze the data.

Chapter 3 contains the results of the study; Chapter 4 is comprised of a summary of the study, conclusions, discussion, and recommendations.

Chapter 2

FURTHER EVIDENCE RELATED TO THE PROBLEM

This chapter includes: (1) the operational hypotheses and definitions; (2) a description of the resource classrooms and the non-resource classroom groups of students; (3) a description of the test instruments used for collecting the data and their selection, description, validity, reliability, and scoring; and (4) the procedures of data collection and the analysis of data.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were developed to compare the self-concept of students in the ESEA, Title I resource classrooms with the self-concept of students in the non-resource classrooms.

Hypothesis One:

The self-concept of students attending special resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of students attending only non-resource classrooms.

Hypothesis Two:

The self-concept of girls in resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of girls in non-resource classrooms.

Hypothesis Three:

The self-concept of boys in resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of boys in non-resource classrooms.

Hypothesis Four:

The self-concept of black students in resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of black students in non-resource classrooms.

Hypothesis Five:

The self-concept of students in grade three resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of students in grade three non-resource classrooms.

Hypothesis Six:

The self-concept of students in grade four resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of students in grade four non-resource classrooms.

Hypothesis Seven:

The self-concept of students in grade five resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of students in grade five non-resource classrooms.

Hypothesis Eight:

The self-concept of low socio-economic status students in resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept

of the low socio-economic status students in non-resource classrooms.

Hypotheses were also developed to determine what aspects of the school setting contributed more positively to the students' self-concept. These hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis Nine:

The self-concept of students in classrooms with a high degree of individual instruction will be more positive than the self-concept of students in classrooms with a low degree of individual instruction.

Hypothesis Ten:

The self-concept of students in classrooms with a wide variety of materials and activities will be more positive than the self-concept of students in classrooms with a limited variety of materials and activities.

Hypothesis Eleven:

The self-concept of students in classrooms with a high degree of warmth will be more positive than the self-concept of students in classrooms with a low degree of warmth.

Hypothesis Twelve:

The self-concept of students in classrooms with a high degree of freedom will be more positive than the self-concept of students in classrooms with a low degree of freedom.

Hypothesis Thirteen:

The self-concept of students in classrooms with a high degree of feedback will be more positive than the self-concept of students in classrooms with a low degree of feedback.

Operational Definitions

The terms identified below are defined as used throughout this study.

Resource Classrooms

Resource classrooms are those classrooms that have been designated by the school principals to be used for special educational programs funded through ESEA, Title I. These classrooms are furnished with a wide variety of materials and equipment to help meet needs of educationally disadvantaged students. The resource classrooms were located in six elementary schools in Loudoun County, Virginia. Each school had more than 23% of its enrollment identified as economically deprived. Deprivation was determined by a school economic survey completed by teachers and principals of all schools in the spring of 1975. The criteria used were: (1) nonstandard family conditions, (2) inadequate clothing, (3) inadequate or no lunch, (4) poor health, or (5) on welfare (see Appendix C). Not all of the students in the resource program were identified as economically deprived.

Non-resource Classrooms

The non-resource classrooms are those that are not designed as ESEA, Title I classrooms. These classrooms contain 20-30 students

grouped heterogeneously by grade level. The classroom teacher, who is employed for the regular instructional program of the county, does not have the services of an educational aide. The materials and equipment supplied the classroom are purchased with the average child in mind. No special materials and equipment are extensively supplied.

Classroom Environment

The following dimensions were identified and defined by Ernest McDaniel in his Manual for Observer Rating Scales (McDaniel, 1974), see Appendix A. The scales were rated on a continuum from one to six. For the purpose of this study, points below 3 on the scale were considered low, and points above 4 were considered high. McDaniel specified that the midpoint falls between 3 and 4.

In this study, each of the dimensions was observed under two different conditions: (1) a teacher directed reading lesson where the teacher was involved in instruction, and (2) a classroom reading activity where students were working independently or in small groups and the teacher was available to assist when questions arose (example: variety-1, variety-2).

Individualization referred to the degree to which the teacher provided each student with a level of work that was suited to his particular needs, interests, and abilities. This dimension also referred to the amount of individual assistance provided the student.

Variety of Materials and Activities Usage referred to the extent to which the teacher used a variety of materials and activities.

Teacher Influences

The following dimensions were identified and defined by McDaniel (1974). The same rating and observation procedure as described above pertains to the following dimensions.

Warmth referred to the extent to which the atmosphere of the class was relaxed and comfortable, and the degree to which the teacher maintained positive interpersonal relationships with students.

Freedom referred to the degree to which the teacher provided arrangements that facilitated independence and individual freedom, so that the students can move about and interact freely.

Feedback and Interaction referred to the extent of interaction or communication to the student of information about the adequacy, acceptability, completeness, or correctness of his response.

Race

This study included only white and black races.

Self-Concept

The many facets that constitute one's perception and evaluation of himself, as measured by the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (Appendix B). Coopersmith defined self-esteem as a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds toward himself. In this study self-esteem was used interchangeably with self-concept.

Sex

The characteristic of being male or female.

Socio-Economic Status

The social class one was placed in according to the economic home conditions of the family. This placement was based on Federal standards (Appendix C). Low socio-economic status students were identified in this study as low; all others were placed in a single category identified as not low.

Target Schools

Schools eligible for participation in the ESEA, Title I program were based on economic deprivation, regardless of educational deprivation. Target schools were identified using the ESEA, Title I guidelines. Selection was based on the high percentage of low socio-economic status students.

Population and Samples

The population for this study consisted of all economically deprived students who scored one year below grade level in reading or mathematics on the 1975 SRA Achievement Tests and who were achieving below grade level according to teachers' informal assessments. These students were in grades 3-5 in schools in Loudoun County, Virginia. A frequency breakdown of students in both the experimental classrooms and the control classrooms relative to sex, race, grade level, and socio-economic status is provided in Table 1. Table 2 contains a frequency distribution by race and SES of the students in resource and non-resource classrooms. Table 3 contains median reading and mathematics scores by grade level of the same students.

Table 1

Frequency Distribution by Grade, Race, Sex and SES of Students
in Resource and Non-Resource Classrooms
N = 194

Grade	Race	Low SES		Not Low SES		Total
		M	F	M	F	
Resource Classrooms: N=111						
3	Black	5	5	0	2	12
	White	4	6	12	5	27
4	Black	16	11	0	0	27
	White	12	6	5	1	24
5	Black	6	3	2	1	12
	White	1	1	5	2	9
Totals:	Black	27	19	2	3	51
	White	17	13	22	8	60
Non-Resource Classrooms: N=83						
3	Black	1	1	1	1	4
	White	4	3	11	5	23
4	Black	0	4	1	0	5
	White	2	2	12	5	21
5	Black	2	1	2	0	5
	White	2	5	9	9	25
Totals:	Black	3	6	4	1	14
	White	8	10	32	19	69

Table 2

Frequency Distribution and Percentages by Race and SES of Students
in Resource and Non-Resource Classrooms
N = 194

	Low SES	Not Low SES	Percentages
Resource Classrooms N=111			
Black	46	5	45.9
White	30	30	54.1
Totals:	76	35	
Percentages:	68.5	31.5	
Non-Resource Classrooms N=83			
Black	9	5	16.9
White	18	51	83.1
Totals:	27	56	
Percentages:	32.5	67.5	

Table 3

Median Reading and Mathematics Scores by Grade of
Students in Resource and Non-Resource Classrooms

Grade	Median Reading Score	Median Mathematics Score
Resource Classrooms:		
3	1.9	2.2
4	2.3	3.1
5	3.5	3.8
3,4,5 Combined	2.2	2.8
Non-Resource Classrooms:		
3	2.2	2.1
4	2.7	3.2
5	3.2	3.7
3,4,5 Combined	2.7	3.1

Resource Students

A total of 111 students comprised the resource classroom sample. These students had been in the ESEA, Title I resource program for at least one year and were placed in the program because of an educational need. Although many of the students were also identified as economically deprived, this was not a criterion that determined their inclusion in the program. Eligible students from all six identified schools participated in the ESEA, Title I resource program.

Non-Resource Students

A total of 83 students comprised the non-resource classroom sample. These students attended two elementary schools in Loudoun County, Virginia. Although the economic deprivation in these schools was sufficiently high for inclusion in the ESEA, Title I program, they were omitted because of greater needs in other schools. Students achieving below grade level in these two schools were used as the non-resource classroom, or control group. These students were enrolled in classrooms with other students having higher levels of achievement.

Descriptions of Classroom Settings

Resource Classrooms

The resource classrooms were established by the Supervisor of the ESEA, Title I programs in Loudoun County and were identified on the Resource Classroom Identification list (Appendix D).

The resource classrooms had a resource teacher and an educational aide working full time in the classroom. Major teaching emphasis

was placed on individualizing reading or mathematics skills, and attention was also placed on an affective program of value identification. This program "Self-Expression and Conduct" was published by Harcourt, Brace, and Jovanovich. The students were in the resource class a minimum of forty-five minutes and a maximum of one and one-half hours per period for reading instruction. They were in small groups, numbering no more than 12 at one time. One day a week the reading period was replaced by the affective program. The mathematics program ran for forty-five minutes per day.

Non-Resource Classrooms

The non-resource classrooms were classrooms that were not identified for ESEA, Title I assistance. These classrooms were in schools that did not have resource classrooms, therefore, they were not identified for extra educational assistance through the ESEA, Title I program. They contained an elementary teacher and students numbering anywhere from 20-32. The regular county curricula were offered. Based on observable evidence, materials for individualization were frequently not readily available.

Delimitations

Several delimitations were evident in this study. Each is listed below.

1. All students who were identified for the study were academically disadvantaged.

2. The students were enrolled in only eight schools in Loudoun County, Virginia.

3. The resource students spent the greater portion of their day in the regular classroom, which may have created conflicting effects on their self-concept.

4. Only one self-concept assessment tool was used. The study was limited by the nature of the assessment tool and by what the subjects were willing to reveal about themselves.

5. Only two classroom observations were conducted to assess teacher influences and classroom environment. Results were further limited by the nature of the observation instrument.

Instrumentation

Data Collection Instruments

For the purpose of this study the Stanley Coopersmith (1967) Self-Esteem Inventory was chosen to evaluate the subjects' self-concept. Ernest McDaniel's (1974) Observer Rating Scales were used to measure classroom environment and teacher influences.

Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI)

Selection. After an extensive search for an appropriate inventory to assess student self-concept, the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was selected. Knapp (1973) described the SEI as the most widely known and studied instrument on the subject of self-esteem. Ralph Melaragno of the System Development Corporation recommended

Coopersmith's Inventory to the researcher. He viewed it as the best of a less-than ideal lot (Appendix E).

Description. The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory is a self inventory consisting of fifty-eight items. It asks whether the child perceived a certain attitude or characteristic as being "like me" or "unlike me." The fifty scored items were subdivided into a total of four subscales: general self (26 items), social self-peers (8 items), home-parents (8 items), and school-academic (8 items).

The sample used by Coopersmith was selected from white, middle class, male subjects living in a mid-western community. The researcher's sample, on the other hand, was selected from low-achieving students who attended schools with high percentages of low SES students. Due to different types of students, self-concept subscores pertinent to this sample were obtained through factor analysis and were identified for use. These subscores were identified as self-appreciation, self-assuredness, social adaptability, adequacy in school, and personal adequacy.

The original Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory contained a lie scale of 8 items. These items were not counted in scoring the test because their only purpose was to eliminate non-meaningful responses. The statements of the lie scale are absolute, and few children would answer "like me" to statements such as "I never worry about anything" and "I always do the right thing."

To reduce the number of items to manageable size a factor analysis was performed. Specifically, principal components were extracted

from the correlation matrix (with 1's in the diagonal). All 58 items of each student's test were scored in the direction of a positive self-concept and the eight lie items were removed. A positive self-concept question answered positively was given one point; if answered negatively it was given 0 points. Factors were extracted and orthogonally rotated by using the number of eigenvalues greater than 2.0 as a preliminary indication of the number of subscales that might exist within the 50 items.

Following examination of the factors as well as a scree plot of the eigenvalues (see Figure 2), five subscales of the SEI were identified for further study. Cattell (1966) suggested that the scree test is used by taking the unreduced R matrix, which are the unities in the diagonal, and extracting the latent roots. When successive extracted roots being to fall in a regular way, one is dealing with the common factors.

As a result of the above, five principal components were extracted and orthogonally rotated. Table 4 gives a summary of the first rotated factor analysis with eigenvalues and percentages of variance. The item numbers and loadings making up each factor are found in Table 5. The 50 SEI items and loadings of the factor matrix pattern were examined for loadings of .30 or greater. Each loading that was twice that of the second highest loading for that item was selected for further study. Although the factor ratings were consistent, not all of the items related to the same area of self-concept as defined by Coopersmith. The items were classified under broad dimensions with the factor name identifying the most frequently occurring self-concept area (see Table 6).

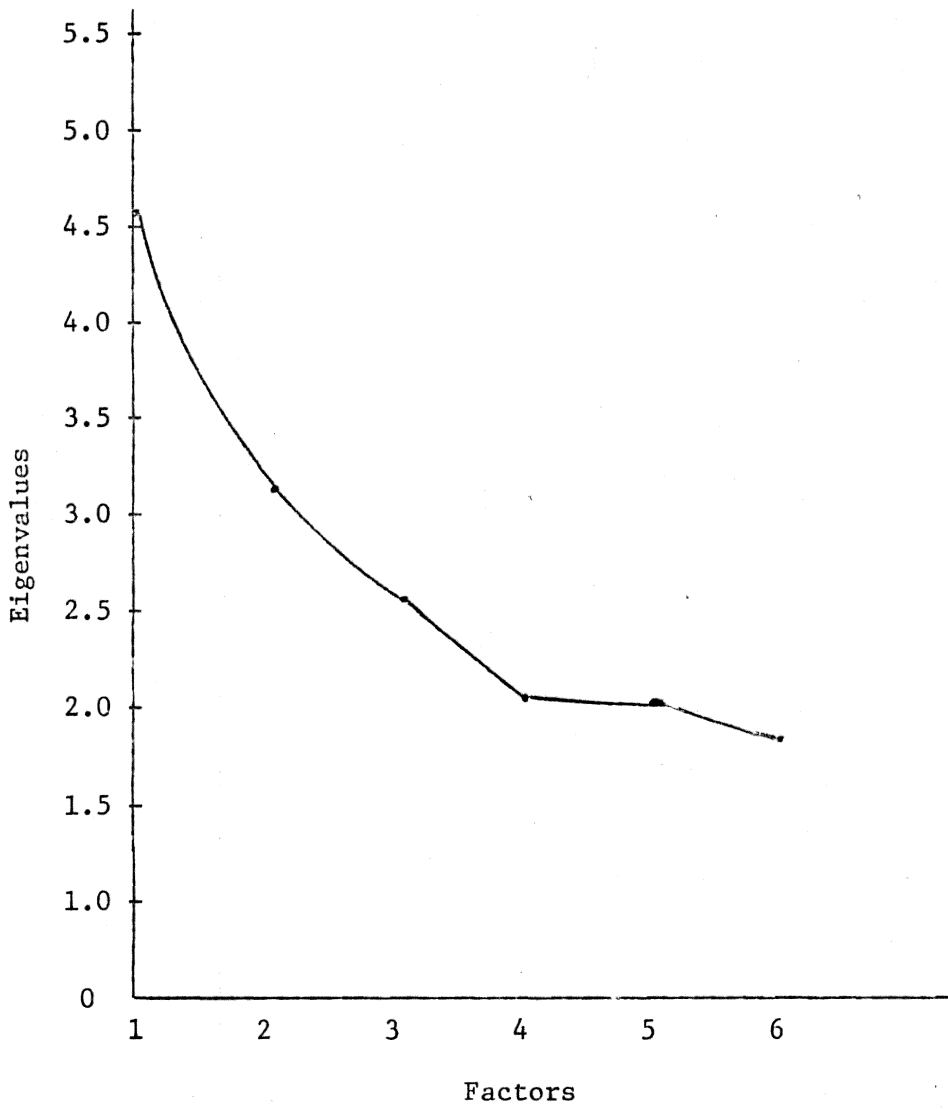


Figure 2

Scree Plot: Eigenvalues by Factors

Table 4

Summary of Eigenvalues and Percentages of Variance
Accounted for by Each Factor of the
Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

Factor	Eigenvalue	Percentage of variance
1 Self-Appreciation	4.53	9.1
2 Self-Assuredness	3.15	6.3
3 Social Adaptability	2.54	5.1
4 Adequacy in School	2.05	4.1
5 Personal Adequacy	2.02	4.0

Table 5

Rotated Factor Matrix of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

Items ^a	Factors				
	I	II	III	IV	V
	Self- Appreciation	Self- Assuredness	Social Adaptability	Adequacy in School	Personal Adequacy
1	<u>44</u> ^b	19	02	03	-06
2	11	<u>46</u>	03	12	15
3	08	11	02	-00	<u>48</u>
4	20	01	<u>39</u>	06	-03
5	02	29	42	-04	39
7	06	27	05	28	-35
8	15	-36	-04	06	31
9	-03	01	-05	-05	<u>32</u>
10	-03	<u>50</u>	00	02	-01
11	-01	-12	<u>61</u>	11	-04
12	-00	00	05	<u>57</u>	27
14	-06	29	<u>40</u>	20	03
15	-22	19	22	20	<u>41</u>
16	19	09	-32	23	00
17	-16	10	-30	35	-00
18	15	18	<u>45</u>	08	-09
19	28	-01	<u>42</u>	-09	01
21	-11	02	<u>48</u>	-02	02
22	05	-05	-24	35	-14
23	-01	26	09	-09	11
24	15	09	<u>59</u>	-15	07
25	23	-10	-13	15	19
26	18	08	-10	17	-02
28	-04	12	21	-02	-20
29	05	<u>46</u>	10	08	35
30	<u>57</u>	13	-13	14	08

Table 5 (Continued)

Items ^a	Factors				
	I Self- Appreciation	II Self- Assuredness	III Social Adaptability	IV Adequacy in School	V Personal Adequacy
31	24	24	05	39	34
32	08	<u>34</u>	14	07	-12
33	39	-03	20	28	23
35	-13	08	-04	<u>54</u>	-22
36	03	<u>52</u>	04	08	06
37	<u>62</u>	-02	07	-28	12
38	11	-11	06	35	42
39	<u>61</u>	-20	04	-12	01
40	28	02	04	19	<u>51</u>
42	11	18	-03	<u>45</u>	09
43	-04	37	-19	43	12
44	11	-01	19	31	<u>-38</u>
45	-20	31	27	-02	-08
46	34	46	03	10	-09
47	20	35	35	-15	17
49	-08	-15	05	<u>64</u>	27
50	<u>44</u>	-03	22	-04	04
51	44	09	-04	31	-15
52	07	24	-07	<u>39</u>	05
53	04	-05	22	<u>50</u>	-15
54	<u>33</u>	12	13	05	10
56	24	28	-24	30	13
57	00	<u>45</u>	-17	02	13
58	34	-16	20	39	10

^aThe item loadings have been rounded to two decimal places and the decimal removed.

^bThe criterion level for selection of significant loadings was set at .30; however, the factor score was identified only if it exceeded twice the value of any other score for that item. These factor scores are underlined.

Table 6

Factor Loadings, Categories and Corresponding Statements from
Rotated Factor Matrix of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

Factor Loading	Item Number	Factor
<u>1. Self-Appreciation</u>		
44	1	I spend a lot of time daydreaming.
57	30	It's pretty tough to be me.
62	37	I really don't like being a boy-girl.
61	39	I don't like to be with other people.
44	50	I don't care what happens to me.
33	54	I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.
<u>2. Self-Assuredness</u>		
46	2	I'm pretty sure of myself.
50	10	I can make up my mind without too much trouble.
46	29	I understand myself.
34	32	Kids usually follow my ideas.
52	36	I can make up my mind and stick to it.
45	57	Things usually don't bother me.
<u>3. Social Adaptability</u>		
39	4	I'm easy to like.
61	11	I'm a lot of fun to be with.
40	14	I'm proud of my school work.
45	18	I'm popular with kids my own age.
42	19	My parents usually consider my feelings.
48	21	I'm doing the best work that I can.
59	24	I'm pretty happy.
<u>4. Adequacy in School</u>		
57	12	I get upset easily at home.
54	35	I'm not doing as well in school as I'd like to.
45	42	I often feel upset in school.
64	49	My teacher makes me feel I'm not good enough.
39	52	I get upset easily when I'm scolded.
50	53	Most people are better liked than I am.
<u>5. Personal Adequacy</u>		
48	3	I often wish I were someone else.
32	9	There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.
41	15	Someone always has to tell me what to do.
51	40	There are many times when I'd like to leave home.
38	44	I'm not as nice looking as most people.

The original inventory, devised by Coopersmith in 1967, is based on a vocabulary level for use with children aged 8-10. In the study presented here the person administering the inventory read the test to each group of students in an effort to minimize the effects of subjects' reading ability on the assessment scores.

The inventory originally was administered to 1,748 children aged 10-12 attending public schools in central Connecticut. It has been administered to other samples in independent studies since Coopersmith's work was published (Knapp, 1973).

Validity. Content validity was established by five psychologists who classified the test items into two groups, those indicative of high esteem and those indicative of low esteem. The test items were based upon items selected from the 1954 Rogers and Dymond scale (Coopersmith, 1967) and were reworded to use with children aged 8-10. Items that seemed repetitious, ambiguous, or about which there was disagreement were eliminated. The final set of fifty items was then tested for comprehensibility with a group of thirty children.

Concurrent validity was established from a sample of 1,748 children by teachers who rated each child on a 13-item, five-point scale on behaviors presumed to be related to self-esteem. The Coopersmith Behavior Rating Form was used. Items in this rating schedule referred to such behaviors as the child's reactions to failure, self-confidence in a new situation, sociability with peers, and the need for encouragement and reassurance. With the teacher ratings Coopersmith was able to select groups differing in self-esteem (Coopersmith, 1967).

Shavelson et al. (1976) observed that only the Dyer Study has systematically examined the subscale interpretation of the SEI. The four subscale (trait) scores used were: self, family, friends, and school. According to Shavelson et al. (1976) the Dyer Study indicated a lack of construct validity of this inventory below the eleventh grade. This study suggested that self-concept may become more differentiated with increasing age. Shavelson et al. (1976) further observed the absence of factor analysis data. They felt that factor analysis data could determine whether the traits are not differentiable or whether the subscales have been inadequately formed.

Discriminate validity was reported by Taylor and Reitz (Coopersmith, 1974) who found correlations of .75 and .44 with the Edwards and the Marlowe-Crowns social desirability scales. Taylor and Reitz also reported a correlation of .45 between the CPI self-acceptance scale and the longer Coopersmith scale. Coopersmith (1967) reported findings of Ziller who found correlations for males of .46 with the Bills' scale, which measures student adjustment and values (Johnson, 1976), and a correlation of .37 was reported with the Cutick scale. Coopersmith (1967) also reported a correlation of .02 with his scale and the Ziller scale. The Ziller scale measures the social self in relation to others (Johnson and Bommarito, 1971). For the above mentioned scales, the correlations for females were .17, .23, and .04, respectively. According to the data presented here, it would appear that the SEI is not highly correlated with the other scales presented.

Reliability. The original Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was administered to two fifth and sixth grade classes of both boys and girls. A test-retest reliability for the original 50 item scale (excluding the lie scale) was reported as .88 over five weeks and .70 over three years (Coopersmith, 1967). Fullerton (Coopersmith, 1974) reported a test-retest reliability of .64 over a twelve month interval.

Scoring. To obtain a positive self-concept assessment, the SEI employs the usual test design of having approximately half of the items requiring an "unlike me" response and half of the items requiring a "like me" response. For example, the item "If I have something to say, I usually say it" would be scored in a positive direction and would be given 2 points if the student answered "like me." Whereas the item "My teacher makes me feel I'm not good enough" would be scored in a negative direction with 0 points if the child answered "like me."

Each of the 50 items has a possible score of 2 points. The maximum possible score representing the highest possible self-concept is 100. The average found by Coopersmith was 71. Although Coopersmith scored the data as described, in this study each of the fifty items had a weight of one, making a possible total score of 50.

McDaniel's Observer Rating Scales

Description. The Observer Rating Scales were designed as tools for research on instructional processes. These scales provide an observation instrument for recording observed teaching behavior on nine dimensions: (1) warmth, (2) enthusiasm, (3) clarity, (4) variety,

(5) individualization, (6) feedback, (7) cognitive demand, (8) freedom, and (9) on-task activity.

Five of the nine dimensions of teaching behavior were selected for use in this study. These dimensions, which were felt to be more related to the topic of this study, were (1) warmth, (2) freedom, (3) individualization, (4) variety, and (5) feedback.

Validity. McDaniel (1974) explains that the Observer Rating Scales have a relatively high degree of construct validity. According to McDaniel, each construct (freedom, warmth, etc.) is described so as to minimize ambiguity. The constructs are further specified by providing definitions of the behaviors that lie at various points along the continuum. By describing these behaviors, the possibility of projecting subjective interpretations into the dimensions has been minimized (McDaniel, 1974).

Several analyses were performed using the Piers-Harris Self Concept Scale, the Meier and McDaniel Attitude Toward School instrument, and the McDaniel Observer Rating Scales in an effort to test the concurrent validity of the instrument (McDaniel, 1976). The first analysis examined the relationships among teaching behaviors and concurrent affective measures; the second analysis examined relationships among teaching behaviors and changes in affective measures; and the third analysis examined the relationships among changes in teaching behavior and changes in affective measures.

According to McDaniel (1976) the findings from these analyses suggest some advantages in designing studies of teaching so that both

teaching behavior and student growth can be analyzed in terms of increments of change. The findings further suggest that warmth, as a teaching behavior, may play an important role in the emerging perceptions of students about themselves as they relate to school.

Reliability. According to McDaniel (1974), reliability coefficients were computed on ratings of filmed teaching behavior. His original raters were trained through the use of four filmed samples of teaching behavior and a training manual which provides ratings and rationale for each of the samples of teaching behavior. The raters who observed the teaching behavior in McDaniel's training films were staff members who had participated in the development and exploratory use of the scales. Reliability coefficients were computed using analysis of variance procedures (Winer, 1971) for an index of reliability among multiple judges. These coefficients were: warmth, .95; variety, .93; individualization, .91; feedback, .94; and freedom, .79.

Training for the use of the rating scales for this study was accomplished through the use of the Observer Training Film and the training manual prepared by Ernest McDaniel at Purdue University, author of the Observer Rating Scales. Training included discussing the nine dimensions, viewing the filmed teaching behavior, rating the teaching samples on each scale, comparing these ratings with the scoring and rationale provided in the manual, and then comparing the two raters' scores.

After the two raters studied the dimensions and viewed and scored the first training film, the researcher discussed, in detail, the

dimensions and their descriptions with the raters. Their ratings on the five dimensions in this study of the McDaniel Observer Rating Scales were as follows:

	<u>Rater 1</u>	<u>Rater 2</u>	<u>Film Response</u>
1. Warmth	4	5	6
2. Freedom	3	3	3
3. Feedback	2	4	4
4. Individualization	4	2	4
5. Variety	2	2	3

The second training film was then viewed, scored, and discussed.

The ratings on this film were as follows:

	<u>Rater 1</u>	<u>Rater 2</u>	<u>Film Response</u>
1. Warmth	6	3	3
2. Freedom	3	3	3
3. Feedback	5	2	3
4. Individualization	5	4	3
5. Variety	2	4	2

After observing the two training films, the raters discussed the films and compared their findings in order to better understand the dimensions. In addition, they observed two of Roberson's (1973) Teacher Self-Appraisal films in an effort to compare their ratings of these filmed teaching techniques. Then, the two raters observed together in four classrooms in order to assess and compare their inter-rater

reliability in an actual classroom setting. The classroom ratings on the five dimensions in this study of the McDaniel Observer Rating Scales were as follows:

Classroom 1

	<u>Rater 1</u>	<u>Rater 2</u>
1. Warmth	3	3
2. Freedom	3	3
3. Feedback	3	3
4. Individualization	3	3
5. Variety	1	2

Classroom 2

	<u>Rater 1</u>	<u>Rater 2</u>
1. Warmth	4	4
2. Freedom	3	3
3. Feedback	4	4
4. Individualization	3	3
5. Variety	2	3

Classroom 3

	<u>Rater 1</u>	<u>Rater 2</u>
1. Warmth	4	4
2. Freedom	3	3
3. Feedback	4	5

Classroom 3 (Continued)

	<u>Rater 1</u>	<u>Rater 2</u>
4. Individualization	3	3
5. Variety	2	2

Classroom 4

	<u>Rater 1</u>	<u>Rater 2</u>
1. Warmth	5	4
2. Freedom	3	2
3. Feedback	5	5
4. Individualization	4	3
5. Variety	2	2

Scoring. The raters used by McDaniel assessed the teaching behavior on a scale from 1-6 with 1 being the lowest point and 6 being the highest, as shown in Appendix A. On the dimension of warmth, a 1 indicated a cold classroom environment and a 6 indicated a warm environment. These were extreme points. Likewise, the extremes on the freedom continuum were 1 for a restricted environment and 6 for an open environment; the extremes on the individualization dimension were 1 for minimal individualization and 6 for maximum individualization.

According to McDaniel (1974), the scales are high inference scales. The rater must observe a wide range of behaviors, sense the impact of the students, and evaluate the major thrust and intent. This task requires a delicate balance between objectivity and the intuitive

perception of subtle meanings and connotations. Appropriate ratings depend on a sensitive monitoring of students' responses as well as raters' careful observance of the definitions.

Procedures of Data Collection

Data collected for this study included: (1) individual student responses on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, (2) classroom observation ratings using the McDaniel Observer Rating Scales, and (3) personal characteristics consisting of grade, chronological age, sex, race, and socio-economic status of each student.

Self-Esteem Inventory

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was administered to both the resource and the non-resource groups of students by an elementary supervisor in Loudoun County, Virginia, in the spring of 1976. Students were tested in small group settings of no more than fifteen students in each testing session. The questions were read to the students, who responded by checking the way they felt about the question. Approximately forty minutes were allowed for each testing session.

Observer Rating Scales

The McDaniel Observer Rating Scales were utilized in this study by two raters, each observing in three of the experimental classes and in five of the control classes. The month of May was set aside for the classroom observations. A total of sixteen classes were observed.

Each class was observed in two 30 minute sessions. The first observation was made during an initial reading presentation by the

teacher who presented a new story to the students. The second observation was made during a reading activity class, where the same students worked independently or in small groups and the teacher assisted when needed. This observation was conducted by the same rater who conducted the first observation.

Teachers' reading schedules were obtained prior to scheduling the observations so that the raters would observe the teachers in the two teaching situations. The observations were conducted in situations as non-threatening as possible, therefore, no video-tapes or tape recorders were used. The raters recorded their observations on a record sheet in a notebook and tabulated their responses after leaving the classroom.

Analysis of Data

Upon completion of the observations and the testing, relevant information was transferred to IBM cards by a key punch specialist. All cards were then validated by a second key punch operator.

Multivariate procedures were employed in analyzing the data. Computer programs utilized for data analysis in this study were obtained from Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), which is an integrated system of computer programs used for analyzing social science data (Nie et al., 1975).

Factor Analysis

According to Rummel (1970) factor analysis is a general scientific method of analyzing data enabling one to uncover the order,

patterns, or regularity in data. Nie et al. (1975) further suggested that the most distinctive characteristic of factor analysis is its data-reduction capability, enabling one to see whether some underlying pattern of relationship exists in the data. The SPSS subprogram FACTOR was used for factor analyzing the data in this study.

A common factor analysis model with orthogonal rotation was selected to investigate the role of the variables in this study. Nie et al. (1975) indicated that orthogonal rotation with varimax criterion is the most widely used method of rotation. Orthogonality assumes independence of variables.

The same procedure was followed when the McDaniel Observer Rating Scales, the student personal variables, and the Coopersmith SEI subscores were factor analyzed.

One-Way Analysis of Variance

The SPSS subprogram ONEWAY was used for analyzing variance. Nie et al. (1975) indicated that through this procedure users may statistically test whether the means of subsamples are significantly different from each other.

An F probability criterion of .05 was established for identifying significant differences among groups.

t-Tests of Significance

The SPSS subprogram t-Test was used for determining significance between means. According to Nie et al. (1975) this subprogram

provides the capability of computing student's t and probability levels for testing whether the difference between two sample means is significant.

Results of the various analysis procedures used in this study may be found in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3

RESULTS

This study was conducted with two groups of students: ESEA, Title I resource classroom students, and non-resource classroom students. The students in both groups were educationally deprived as evidenced by standardized achievement scores and teacher opinions. The ESEA, Title I group consisted of identified students in six schools from six classes and the non-resource group was made up of students in ten classrooms attending two schools.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships among classroom environment, teacher influences, and student self-concept. The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was used to assess student self-concept and the McDaniel Observer Rating Scales were employed to rate teacher warmth, provision for freedom, feedback, classroom variety, and individualization. Data were also collected on race, sex, age, grade, and socio-economic status.

A number of statistical techniques were employed to perform the analyses. These included factor analysis, t-tests between means, and analysis of variance. The following findings are organized around the research hypotheses.

Type of Classroom and Student Self-Concept

Hypothesis One:

The self-concept of students attending special resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of students attending only non-resource classrooms.

The results of the t-Test between resource and non-resource classrooms and total student self-concept indicate that there is no significant difference of student self-concept between the two groups of students (see Table 7). However, by accepting the premise that self-concept is multifaceted, the findings of the one-way ANOVA run between resource and non-resource classrooms for each of the five subscores of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory indicate that students in resource classrooms were significantly more positive on subscores self-assuredness and adequacy in school than students in non-resource classrooms. Students in non-resource classrooms were significantly more positive on self-appreciation (see Table 8). The hypothesis is partially accepted in the areas of self-assuredness and adequacy in school.

The first hypothesis is considered important because of the reported association of self-concept and school achievement. All of the students in the ESEA, Title I program are identified as educationally deprived. If positive self-concept is significantly associated with good academic achievement then it is important to identify types of classrooms, such as resource classrooms, which may contribute to academic

Table 7

t-Test Between Resource and Non-resource Classrooms
for Total Student Self-Concept

Group	Number of cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-value	2-Tailed Probability
Resource	111	28.50	6.23	1.04	.29
Non-Resource	83	27.49	7.00		

Table 8

F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between Type of Classroom and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

Coopersmith Factor	Means		df	F Ratio	F Prob.
	Resource	Non-Resource			
1 Self- Appreciation	3.38	4.53	1/192	29.160	.000
2 Self- Assuredness	3.78	3.33	1/192	4.104	.042
3 Social Adaptability	5.26	5.12	1/192	.369	.552
4 Adequacy In School	2.57	1.66	1/192	15.120	.000
5 Personal Adequacy	2.15	2.39	1/192	1.697	.191

success. Thus, if the student experiences academic success his self-concept may be positively affected. Furthermore, by attaining a more positive self-concept the student may also experience greater academic success.

Hypothesis Two:

The self-concept of girls in resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of girls in non-resource classrooms.

Hypothesis Three:

The self-concept of boys in resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of boys in non-resource classrooms.

The findings of the ANOVA run between sex and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory indicated that girls in resource classrooms have a significantly more positive self-concept relative to self-assuredness and adequacy in school than do girls in non-resource classrooms. Both girls and boys in non-resource classrooms have a significantly more positive feeling of self-appreciation than students in resource classrooms, and boys in non-resource classrooms score more positively in the area of personal adequacy (see Table 9). Boys participating in the resource program did not score more positively than boys in non-resource classrooms on any of the five self-concept subscores.

Table 9

F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between
Sex and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

Coopersmith Factor	Means		df	F Ratio	F Prob.
	Resource	Non-Resource			
Girls:					
1 Self- Appreciation	3.12	4.50	1/77	18.830	.000
2 Self- Assuredness	3.88	3.00	1/77	5.999	.016
3 Social Adaptability	5.37	5.36	1/77	.000	.924
4 Adequacy in School	2.70	1.33	1/77	19.096	.000
5 Personal Adequacy	2.26	2.11	1/77	.236	.634
Boys:					
1 Self- Appreciation	3.54	4.55	1/113	12.467	.001
2 Self- Assuredness	3.72	3.57	1/113	.255	.621
3 Social Adaptability	5.19	4.94	1/113	.632	.434
4 Adequacy in School	2.49	1.91	1/113	3.017	.081
5 Personal Adequacy	2.09	2.60	1/113	5.364	.021

Hypothesis Four:

The self-concept of black students in resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of black students in non-resource classrooms.

According to results of tests of significance run between black students and the five subscores of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory black students in resource classrooms have significantly more positive self-concepts in the areas of self-assuredness and adequacy in school (see Table 10).

Hypothesis Five:

The self-concept of students in grade three resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of students in grade three non-resource classrooms.

Hypothesis Six:

The self-concept of students in grade four resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of students in grade four non-resource classrooms.

Hypothesis Seven:

The self-concept of students in grade five resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of students in grade five non-resource classrooms.

According to results of the ANOVA run between grade and student self-concept resource students in grade 3 are significantly more

Table 10

F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between
 Type of Classroom and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem
Inventory for Black Students

Coopersmith Factor	Means		df	F Ratio	F Prob.
	Resource	Non-Resource			
1 Self- Appreciation	3.61	3.71	1/63	.053	.804
2 Self- Assuredness	3.92	2.71	1/63	6.205	.015
3 Social Adaptability	5.24	4.93	1/63	.329	.576
4 Adequacy in School	2.78	1.57	1/63	6.695	.012
5 Personal Adequacy	2.20	2.00	1/63	.289	.599

self-assured and have a significantly higher self-concept in the area of adequacy in school. Non-resource students in grade 3 have a significantly more positive self-appreciation score than resource students. Non-resource students in grade 4 have a significantly more positive self-concept in the area of self-appreciation and also in the area of personal adequacy.

Results of the ANOVA indicated that fifth grade students in resource classrooms had a significantly more positive self-concept in the areas of social adaptability and adequacy in school than the fifth grade students in non-resource classrooms (see Table 11).

Hypothesis Eight:

The self-concept of low socio-economic status students in resource classrooms will be more positive than the self-concept of the low socio-economic status students in non-resource classrooms.

Results of the ANOVA run between low socio-economic status and the five subscores of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory indicate that low SES students in resource classrooms are significantly more self-assured and have a more positive self-concept in the area of adequacy in school. Low SES students in non-resource classrooms have a significantly more positive self-concept in the area of self-appreciation (see Table 12).

Table 11

F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between
Type of Classroom and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem
Inventory for Students in Grades 3, 4, and 5

Coopersmith Factor	Means		df	F Ratio	F Prob.
	Resource	Non-Resource			
Grade 3					
1 Self- Appreciation	2.79	3.96	1/64	10.450	.002
2 Self- Assuredness	4.08	3.08	1/64	6.818	.011
3 Social Adaptability	4.85	4.81	1/64	.005	.902
4 Adequacy in School	2.79	1.74	1/64	7.024	.010
5 Personal Adequacy	2.44	2.37	1/64	.051	.806
Grade 4					
1 Self- Appreciation	3.43	4.81	1/75	14.016	.000
2 Self- Assuredness	3.78	3.50	1/75	.648	.429
3 Social Adaptability	5.41	5.62	1/75	.278	.606
4 Adequacy in School	2.57	2.04	1/75	1.750	.187
5 Personal Adequacy	1.88	2.65	1/75	6.241	.014
Grade 5					
1 Self- Appreciation	4.33	4.80	1/49	2.145	.146
2 Self- Assuredness	3.23	3.40	1/49	.111	.737
3 Social Adaptability	5.66	4.97	1/49	4.385	.039
4 Adequacy in School	2.14	1.27	1/49	4.208	.043
5 Personal Adequacy	2.29	2.17	1/49	.122	.726

Table 12

F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between
Type of Classroom and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem
Inventory for Low Socio-Economic Status Students

Coopersmith Factor	Means		df	F Ratio	F Prob.
	Resource	Non-Resource			
1 Self- Appreciation	3.32	4.30	1/101	7.439	.008
2 Self- Assuredness	3.76	3.00	1/101	4.160	.042
3 Social Adaptability	5.25	4.81	1/101	1.228	.270
4 Adequacy In School	2.63	1.63	1/101	8.081	.005
5 Personal Adequacy	2.11	2.41	1/101	1.374	.242

School Setting and Student Self-ConceptClassroom Environment*Hypothesis Nine:*

The self-concept of students in classrooms with a high degree of individual instruction will be more positive than the self-concept of students in classrooms with a low degree of individual instruction.

Hypothesis Ten:

The self-concept of students in classrooms with a wide variety of materials and activities will be more positive than the self-concept of students in classrooms with a limited variety of materials and activities.

The results of one-way ANOVA used to determine the role of classroom environment and its relationship to student self-concept indicate that students in classrooms with high individualization-1 have a significantly more positive self-concept in the areas of self-assuredness and adequacy in school. Students in classrooms with low individualization-1 have a significantly higher self-concept in the area of self-appreciation. Students who attend classrooms ranked high in individualization-2 show significantly more positive adequacy in school scores, while low individualization-2 classrooms seem to produce students with significantly higher self-appreciation and social adaptability scores (see Table 13).

Table 13

F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between
Classroom Environment (Individualization)
and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

Coopersmith Factor	Means		df	F Ratio	F Prob.
	Low Individuali- zation	High Individuali- zation			
Individualization-1					
1 Self- Appreciation	4.56	3.47	1/192	24.294	.000
2 Self- Assuredness	3.30	3.76	1/192	3.918	.047
3 Social Adaptability	5.30	5.15	1/192	.395	.538
4 Adequacy In School	1.83	2.38	1/192	5.058	.024
5 Personal Adequacy	2.45	2.14	1/192	2.928	.085
Individualization-2					
1 Self- Appreciation	4.46	3.46	1/192	21.250	.000
2 Self- Assuredness	3.74	3.48	1/192	1.239	.266
3 Social Adaptability	5.63	4.90	1/192	10.110	.002
4 Adequacy In School	1.86	2.40	1/192	5.091	.024
5 Personal Adequacy	2.30	2.22	1/192	.201	.659

Classrooms with wide variety-1 show significantly more positive student self-concept in the area of self-assuredness and social adaptability. Classrooms rated in the direction of a limited degree of variety-2 show significantly more positive student self-concept in the area of social adaptability. No significant results were reported on the dimension of limited variety-1 or wide variety-2 (see Table 14).

Teacher Influences

Hypotheses Eleven:

The self-concept of students in classrooms with a high degree of warmth will be more positive than the self-concept of students in classrooms with a low degree of warmth.

Hypothesis Twelve:

The self-concept of students in classrooms with a high degree of freedom will be more positive than the self-concept of students in classrooms with a low degree of freedom.

Hypothesis Thirteen:

The self-concept of students in classrooms with a high degree of feedback will be more positive than the self-concept of students in classrooms with a low degree of feedback.

Results of ANOVA run between student self-concept and teacher influences indicate that student self-appreciation is significantly more positive in classrooms with a low degree of teacher warmth-1 and feedback-1. Student adequacy in school is significantly more positive

Table 14

F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between
Classroom Environment (Variety) and the
Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

Coopersmith Factor	Means		df	F Ratio	F Prob.
	Limited Variety	Wide Variety			
Variety-1					
1 Self- Appreciation	3.86	3.92	1/192	.059	.796
2 Self- Assuredness	3.46	3.99	1/192	4.141	.041
3 Social Adaptability	5.02	5.73	1/192	7.618	.006
4 Adequacy In School	2.09	2.45	1/192	1.720	.188
5 Personal Adequacy	2.34	2.00	1/192	2.784	.093
Variety-2					
1 Self- Appreciaton	4.03	3.70	1/192	2.152	.140
2 Self- Assuredness	3.62	3.55	1/192	.111	.736
3 Social Adaptability	5.43	4.96	1/192	4.268	.038
4 Adequacy In School	2.10	2.27	1/192	.504	.485
5 Personal Adequacy	2.36	2.14	1/192	1.503	.219

in classrooms with a high degree of teacher warmth-1. The areas of warmth-2, freedom-1, freedom-2, and feedback-2 show no significant differences between student self-concept and teacher influences (see Tables 15, 16, and 17).

Other Relationships

Following the statistical analysis employed to test the hypotheses, an additional t-test was used to investigate whether or not there were significant differences in type of classroom and school setting (see Table 18).

The results of this t-test indicated that resource classrooms have significantly higher scores on the classroom environment variables individualization and variety than do non-resource classrooms. Also, resource classrooms scored significantly higher than non-resource classrooms on the teacher influences variables warmth and feedback. The variable freedom-1 was significant in favor of resource classrooms, however, freedom-2 was not significant.

The use of a common factor analysis model with orthogonal rotation was also employed to investigate the role of all of the variables in this study. Following examination of the eigenvalues, seven factors were identified for further study (see Tables 19 and 20).

The variables investigated included: (1) classroom environment--individualization and variety of materials and activities; (2) teacher influences--warmth, freedom, and feedback; (3) personal variables--sex, race, grade, age, and socio-economic status; and (4) student self-concept.

Table 15

F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between
Teacher Influences (Warmth) and the
Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

Coopersmith Factor	Means		df	F Ratio	F Prob.
	Low Warmth	High Warmth			
Warmth-1					
1 Self- Appreciation	4.86	3.75	1/192	9.663	.002
2 Self- Assuredness	3.67	3.58	1/192	.059	.795
3 Social Adaptability	5.10	5.21	1/192	.101	.746
4 Adequacy In School	1.38	2.28	1/192	5.580	.018
5 Personal Adequacy	2.43	2.23	1/192	.480	.497
Warmth-2					
1 Self- Appreciation	3.87	3.87	1/192	0.000	.937
2 Self- Assuredness	3.23	3.66	1/192	1.964	.159
3 Social Adaptability	5.19	5.20	1/192	.000	.951
4 Adequacy In School	2.19	2.18	1/192	.002	.915
5 Personal Adequacy	1.93	2.31	1/192	2.465	.114

Table 16

F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between
Teacher Influences (Freedom) and the
Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

Coopersmith Factor	Means		df	F Ratio	F Prob.
	Low Freedom	High Freedom			
Freedom-1					
1 Self- Appreciation	3.92	3.72	1/192	.574	.456
2 Self- Assuredness	3.64	3.43	1/192	.569	.458
3 Social Adaptability	5.24	5.09	1/192	.307	.587
4 Adequacy In School	2.23	2.02	1/192	.549	.466
5 Personal Adequacy	2.30	2.09	1/192	1.091	.298
Freedom-2					
1 Self- Appreciation	3.82	3.94	1/192	.263	.615
2 Self- Assuredness	3.77	3.34	1/192	3.528	.059
3 Social Adaptability	5.24	5.15	1/192	.166	.686
4 Adequacy In School	2.29	2.04	1/192	1.065	.304
5 Personal Adequacy	2.34	2.13	1/192	1.316	.251

Table 17

F Ratios and Probabilities for Relationships Between
Teacher Influences (Feedback) and the
Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

Coopersmith Factor	Means		df	F Ratio	F Prob.
	Low Feedback	High Feedback			
Feedback-1					
1 Self- Appreciation	4.75	3.79	1/192	5.570	.018
2 Self- Assuredness	3.38	3.61	1/192	.318	.581
3 Social Adaptability	5.00	5.22	1/192	.276	.606
4 Adequacy In School	1.75	2.22	1/192	1:171	.280
5 Personal Adequacy	2.44	2.24	1/192	.392	.539
Feedback-2					
1 Self- Appreciation	4.30	3.85	1/192	.782	.381
2 Self- Assuredness	2.90	3.63	1/192	2.028	.152
3 Social Adaptability	5.30	5.20	1/192	.040	.823
4 Adequacy In School	2.30	2.17	1/192	.054	.801
5 Personal Adequacy	2.60	2.23	1/192	.839	.364

Table 18

t-Test Between Resource and Non-Resource Classrooms
and School Setting

School Setting Variable	Means Resource	Means Non-Resource	Standard Deviation Resource	Standard Deviation Non-Resource	t Value	2-Tailed Probability
<u>Classroom Environment</u>						
Individualization-1	4.60	3.14	.49	.35	22.96	.000
Individualization-2	4.34	3.24	1.23	.43	7.79	.000
Variety-1	3.23	2.01	.78	.53	12.19	.000
Variety-2	3.92	2.71	1.08	1.03	7.79	.000
<u>Teacher Influences</u>						
Warmth-1	4.95	4.12	.80	.88	6.85	.000
Warmth-2	4.96	4.14	1.17	.96	5.14	.000
Freedom-1	3.47	3.00	.78	1.14	3.39	.002
Freedom-2	3.65	3.53	.77	1.06	.86	.391
Feedback-1	4.64	4.18	.48	.73	5.24	.000
Feedback-2	4.95	4.59	.52	.70	4.07	.000

Table 19

Summary of Eigenvalues and Percentages of Variance
Accounted for by Each Factor for Self-Concept,
Classroom Environment, Teacher Influences,
and Personal Variables

Factor	Eigenvalue	Percentage of variance
1	4.67	35.6
2	2.33	17.8
3	2.08	15.9
4	1.43	10.9
5	1.12	8.6
6	.79	6.0
7	.68	5.2

Table 20

Rotated Factor Matrix of Personal Variables, McDaniel Variables,
and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory Subscores

Items	Factors ^a						
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
Grade	05	00	03	<u>91</u>	-05	-07	-01
Age	02	-12	-19	<u>84</u>	-10	01	04
Sex	-03	-02	-03	-02	-09	-08	17
Race	-16	01	-06	-05	-02	<u>57</u>	-04
SES	-04	05	-16	03	06	<u>60</u>	-14
Type of Classroom	-32	-09	<u>-68</u>	23	-11	<u>48</u>	08
McDaniel, Warmth-1	<u>78^b</u>	50	14	-07	-01	-15	23
McDaniel, Warmth-2	<u>36</u>	26	09	06	36	-21	<u>59</u>
McDaniel, Freedom-1	11	<u>82</u>	14	-35	-03	03	16
McDaniel, Freedom-2	21	<u>82</u>	07	16	-13	12	-07
McDaniel, Feedback-1	<u>56</u>	-43	15	-21	-05	-25	30
McDaniel, Feedback-2	<u>82</u>	09	18	33	10	02	-03
McDaniel, Individualization-1	13	-03	<u>93</u>	-14	02	-29	-04
McDaniel Individualization-2	21	<u>60</u>	21	-22	-11	-24	<u>-53</u>
McDaniel, Variety-1	05	26	<u>93</u>	-04	10	02	-01
McDaniel, Variety-2	<u>75</u>	25	00	-11	-08	-30	-25
Factor 1. Self-appreciation	-02	-00	-21	<u>40</u>	31	25	-04
Factor 2. Self-assuredness	11	-11	12	-03	<u>41</u>	04	09
Factor 3. Social adaptability	-02	-06	13	13	32	10	05
Factor 4. Adequacy in school	-01	-01	09	-18	<u>45</u>	-24	-14
Factor 5. Personal adequacy	-08	05	-18	-05	<u>52</u>	-00	-09

^aThe variable loadings have been rounded to two decimal places and the decimal removed.

^bThe criterion level for selection of significant loadings was set at .40 or the highest value for that item in the factor matrix. These loadings have been underlined.

The student self-concept variables used were the five subscores from the factor analysis conducted on the SEI. The self-concept categories were identified as (1) self-appreciation, (2) self-assuredness, (3) social adaptability, (4) adequacy in school, and (5) personal adequacy.

As a result of the factor analysis employed to investigate the role of all of the variables in the study, several additional relationships were examined. Although some of these relationships were not stated through hypothesis they were identified and reported below.

Classroom Environment and Student Self-Concept

No relationships indicated.

Teacher Influences and Student Self-Concept

No relationships indicated.

Personal Characteristics and Student Self-Concept

Grade and Self-Appreciation

Age and Self-Appreciation

Personal Characteristics and Teacher Influences

No relationships indicated

Classroom Environment and Teacher Influences

Warmth-1, Warmth-2, and Variety-2

Feedback-1, Feedback-2, and Variety-2

Freedom-1, Freedom-2, and Individualization-2

The following relationships among variables within the major categories of variables were also identified with factor analysis.

Student Self-Concept

Self-Assuredness, Adequacy in School, and Personal Adequacy

Personal Characteristics

Grade and Age

Race and Socio-Economic Status

Classroom Environment

Individualization-1 and Variety-1

Teacher Influences

Warmth-1, Feedback-1, and Feedback-2

Freedom-1 and Freedom-2

Summary of Chapter 3

Results of the statistical techniques used to test significant mean differences between student self-concept and the related variables in this study indicated the following relationships significant at the .05 level of probability.

Students participating in the ESEA, Title I resource program had significantly more positive self-concept scores on the subscores self-assuredness and adequacy in school than did the non-resource students. Upon closer examination, girls, black students, students in grade 3, and low socio-economic status students attending resource classrooms had significantly more positive self-concepts on the subscores self-assuredness and adequacy in school than did the non-resource students. Students in grade five resource classrooms also scored higher on the

subscores social adaptability and adequacy in school than did the non-resource students in grade five.

The ANOVA further indicated that the non-resource students had significantly more positive self-concept scores than the resource students on self-appreciation. Further breakdown of the non-resource students indicated that girls, boys, students in grade 3 and 4, and low socio-economic students had significantly more positive feelings of self-appreciation than did the same breakdown of students in resource classrooms. Also, all boys and all grade 4 students in non-resource classrooms were significantly more positive on the self-concept sub-score personal adequacy than resource students.

Upon examination of the influences of school setting on student self-concept the ANOVA indicated that students attending classroom environments rated high in individualization had a more positive self-concept on the subscores self-assuredness and adequacy in school than did students in classrooms rated low in individualization. Also, students attending classrooms rated wide in variety had a more positive self-concept on the subscore self-assuredness than did students in classrooms rated limited in variety. The subscore social adaptability had contradictory findings as students' self-concepts were more positive in classrooms rated wide in variety-1 and limited in variety-2. Students in classrooms rated low in individualization had more positive self-concepts on the subscores self-appreciation and social adaptability.

On the variables of teacher influences, students' self-concepts were more positive on the subscore adequacy in school in classrooms

rated high in warmth. Students with a significantly more positive self-concept subscore self-appreciation attended classrooms rated low in teacher warmth and feedback.

Results, discussion, implications, limitations, and recommendations will be presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter included a summary of the research project, results of the study, discussion, implications for ESEA, Title I programs, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

Summary

This study investigated whether or not there were differences in self-concept between elementary grade students participating in the ESEA, Title I resource program and those students not participating in this program in Loudoun County, Virginia. Possible differences in student self-concept were identified through the use of the total self-concept score and related factor subscores produced from a factor analysis conducted on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory.

This study also investigated factors in the school setting in order to determine which factors contributed most positively to the students' self-concept. The factors investigated were classroom environment and teacher influences. The variables relating to classroom environment included (1) individualization, and (2) variety of materials and activities. Variables relating to teacher influences included (1) warmth, (2) provision for freedom, and (3) feedback.

Students selected for the sample in this study were identified as educationally disadvantaged on the basis of scoring at least one

grade below their grade level on the SRA Achievement Tests in the specific areas of reading and/or mathematics. They were further identified by their teachers as students who could benefit from such a program.

The resource or experimental group of students attended participating ESEA, Title I schools and had participated in the ESEA, Title I program for one or more years prior to this study. The non-resource or control group of students attended non-participating ESEA, Title I schools and participated only in the regular county educational program. A total of 194 students comprised the sample for the study. The resource or experimental group sample consisted of 111 students; the non-resource or control group sample consisted of 83 students.

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was used to assess student self-concept and the McDaniel Observer Rating Scales were used to rate classroom environment and teacher influences.

Results

Major questions this study sought to answer are provided below:

Relationship Between Type of Classroom and Student Self-Concept

Is the self-concept of students attending resource classrooms more positive than the self-concept of students attending only non-resource classrooms?

The results of this study indicated that although no significant relationship was found between the composite student self-concept score and type of classroom, tests of significance using self-concept subscores indicated two aspects of self-concept that may be influenced by resource classrooms and one by non-resource classrooms. The ESEA, Title I resource classroom may have a more positive effect than non-resource classrooms on student self-concept relative to adequacy in school and self-assuredness; on the other hand non-resource classrooms may have a more positive effect on student self-appreciation.

Relationship Between Type of Classroom and Self-Concept of Students by Sex

Is the self-concept of girls and of boys in resource classrooms more positive than the self-concept of girls and of boys in non-resource classrooms?

The self-concept of girls in resource classrooms was significantly more positive on the subscores self-assuredness and adequacy in school than girls in non-resource classrooms. However, the boys in resource classrooms as compared with boys in the non-resource classrooms, did not display a more positive self-concept on any of the subscore areas. Boys in non-resource classrooms, however, were significantly more positive on the self-concept subscores self-appreciation and personal adequacy. Girls in non-resource classrooms also displayed a more positive self-concept on the self-concept subscore self-appreciation.

Relationship Between Type of Classroom and Self-Concept for Black Students

Is the self-concept of black students in resource classrooms more positive than the self-concept of black students in non-resource classrooms?

The self-concept of black students attending resource classrooms was significantly more positive on the SEI subscores self-assuredness and adequacy in school. Black students in non-resource classrooms did not reveal a more positive self-concept on any of the self-concept subscores.

Relationship Between Type of Classroom and Self-Concept for Students by Grade Level

Is the self-concept of students attending resource classrooms in each of grades three, four, and five more positive than the self-concept of students attending non-resource classrooms in each of the respective grades?

Students attending resource classrooms in grades three and five displayed a more positive self-concept on the subscore adequacy in school than did non-resource students in these grades. Also, resource students in grade three had a significantly more positive self-concept on the subscore self-assuredness than non-resource students in grade three. The ANOVA also indicated that grade five resource students had a significantly more positive self-concept on the subscore social adaptability than did non-resource students in grade five.

Tests of significance showed that third and fourth grade non-resource students scored significantly higher on the self-concept

subscore self-appreciation than did resource students. Also, fourth grade non-resource students scored higher in personal adequacy than did non-resource students. The resource students in grade four did not display a more positive self-concept than the non-resource students on any of the self-concept subscores.

Relationship Between Type of Classroom and Self-Concept for Low Socio-Economic Status Students

Is the self-concept of low socio-economic status students in resource classrooms more positive than the self-concept of low socio-economic status students in non-resource classrooms?

The self-concept of low SES students in resource classrooms was significantly more positive on the subscores adequacy in school and self-assuredness than was the self-concept of low SES students in non-resource classrooms. Tests of significance also revealed that low SES students in non-resource classrooms scored significantly higher on the self-concept subscore self-appreciation than did low SES students in resource classrooms. There were no significant differences between the two groups on the remaining three self-concept subscores.

Relationship Between Degree of Classroom Environment and Student Self-Concept

Is the self-concept of students in classroom environments with a high degree of individual instruction and a wide variety of materials and activities more positive than the self-concept of students in classrooms with a low degree of individual instruction and a limited variety of materials and activities?

Individualization. Students attending classrooms that were rated high in individualization had significantly more positive self-concepts on the subscores self-assuredness and adequacy in school. Students attending classrooms that were rated low in individualization were more positive on the self-concept subscores self-appreciation and social adaptability.

Variety. The self-concept of students attending classrooms that were rated wide in variety showed more positive on the subscore self-assuredness than did the self-concept of students in classrooms rated limited in variety. The ANOVA that was run on the self-concept subscore social adaptability had contradictory findings as it was significant among students in classrooms rated wide in variety-1 and limited in variety-2.

Relationship Between Degree of Teacher Influence
and Student Self-Concept

Is the self-concept of students in classrooms with a high degree of teacher influences of warmth, freedom, and feedback more positive than the self-concept of students lacking these positive teacher influences?

Warmth. Tests of significance indicated that while students in classrooms rated high in teacher warmth had more positive self-concepts on the subscore adequacy in school, students in classrooms rated low in warmth had higher self-concepts on the subscore self-appreciation.

Freedom. The ANOVA that was run between the variable freedom and student self-concept revealed no significant difference in self-concept between students attending classrooms rated high in freedom or low in freedom.

Feedback. Tests of significance showed that the feedback variable, related to teacher influences, was significantly different only on the self-concept subscore self-appreciation. Thus, self-concept of students attending classrooms rated low in feedback was more positive on the subscore self-appreciation.

Discussion

The review of the literature indicated that although one's total self-concept is relatively stable, facets of the total self-concept may fluctuate with differing influences. Thus, subparts of the self-concept may undergo changes even though the total self-concept remains fairly constant. This study suggests that even though the total self-concept of the experimental group of students was not significantly different from the self-concept of the control group, significant differences were evident in some of the subscores of the SEI. The subscores were produced by a factor analysis conducted on this inventory. The majority of differences were found in the subscores self-appreciation, self-assuredness, and adequacy in school.

The relationships between student self-concept, broken down by personal characteristics and type of classroom, were also investigated in this study. The personal characteristics included sex, race, grade,

and socio-economic status. While research is inconclusive as to the influence of sex, race, and SES on student self-concept, researchers such as Erhlick (1968) indicated that there is a decline in self-concept as students progress through school. Furthermore, research indicated that key periods of change in attitude toward school are found at the end of grade three and at the end of grade six. This study indicated differences in self-concept of students in grades three and five, however no difference was found in the self-concept of students in grade four.

The investigation of these personal characteristics and their relationship to type of classroom indicated that students in resource classrooms revealed a more positive self-concept on the subscores self-assuredness and adequacy in school than did non-resource students. Of lesser significance was the subscore social adaptability, which indicated that only resource students in grade 5 had more positive self-concepts on this subscore. Possibly these low achieving students feel more adequate in school when given individual instruction in classes of small numbers of students who are grouped according to individual achievement. Likewise, the subscores self-assuredness may be more positive in resource classrooms because teachers are encouraged to provide warmth, freedom, and feedback. This perhaps encourages independence of the learner, causing him to be more sure and positive about his capacity.

Students in non-resource classrooms demonstrated more positive self-concepts on the subscores self-appreciation and personal adequacy.

Perhaps the non-resource students scored higher on these subscores because they have not been singled out for extra help and thus have not been given cause to question their own ability or learning capacity. The fact that these self-concept subscores related significantly to non-resource students may also be associated with deprived socio-economic status. Research by Davis (1952) and Dixon (1953) suggested that teachers have a tendency to give preferential treatment to students having higher SES. Perhaps the feeling of self-appreciation by non-resource students is being reflected in this study due to preferential treatment by the regular classroom teacher.

Research reported by Wylie (1961) and others indicated that children are greatly influenced by their peers. However, the subscore social adaptability, which related most closely to peer relationships in this study, showed significance only as it related to resource students in grade 5. Perhaps due to their age and station in school, these students feel more positive about their relationships with their peers.

Researchers such as Landis (1972), Triandis (1971), and Spaulding (1964) indicated that school factors such as classroom environment and teacher influences may affect student self-concept. The effects of these variables on student self-concept were also investigated in this study. The investigation of these variables made use of the total sample without differentiating between resource and non-resource students. The results of the ANOVA between self-concept subscores and individualization and variety, the variables related to

classroom environment, indicated a significant relationship between classroom environment and the student self-concept subscores self-appreciation, self-assuredness, adequacy in school, and social adaptability. Of these, the self-concept subscores self-assuredness and adequacy in school were significantly more positive among students attending both resource and non-resource classrooms that rated high in individualization and variety. On the subscore self-appreciation, students attending classrooms rated low in individualization had a more positive self-concept. On the subscore social adaptability, contradictory findings were noted among students in classrooms rated wide in variety-1, limited in variety-2, and low in individualization-2. The data implies that students who attend classrooms with more flexible environments are more self-assured and feel a greater sense of school adequacy. Maybe environments not conducive to individualization cause students to be more adaptable and more reliant upon their own resources.

Following the ANOVA used to study the effects of classroom environment on student self-concept, a t-test was employed to test differences in mean scores of resource and non-resource students on the variables relating to classroom environment. Results indicated a significant difference between the two groups, in favor of the resource classrooms. Perhaps the ESEA, Title I program, through its academic design which emphasizes individualization and offers a variety of materials, is positively affecting the learning environment of its students.

ANOVA run on student self-concept subscores and teacher influences of warmth, freedom, and feedback indicate some relationships between these variables. Students who feel adequate in school tend to have teachers who are rated high in warmth. Students who score higher in self-appreciation tend to have teachers rated low in warmth and feedback. Perhaps while positive teacher influences such as teacher warmth produce students who feel good and confident about school, teachers with less positive influences or teachers rated low in warmth and feedback cause students to rely more upon themselves. This self-reliance or self-appreciation variable may be explained by the theory of locus of control developed by Rotter (1954), which refers to the individual's perceptions of whether his successes or failures are under his control or are controlled by an outside force. High internal control is evident, according to Felker (1974), if an individual thinks that his successes and failures are under his control. Research by Flanders, Morrison, and Brode (1968) indicate that students with a high degree of internal locus of control tend to display a more positive self-concept than students who are dependent upon others. Perhaps by being in classrooms with teachers rated low in warmth and feedback these students develop a more internal locus of control and thus are more self-appreciative.

The t-tests run to test differences in mean scores on teacher influence variables indicated a significant difference in favor of resource classrooms on the variables warmth, and feedback, and freedom-1.

Freedom-2 showed no significant difference between the two types of classrooms on student self-concept. Again, teacher influences appear to be positively affected by the resource program.

As discussed above, the ESEA, Title I resource classroom program provides an environment for learning that was designed to be different from the environment of the non-resource classroom. Furthermore, teachers are given special inservice training in order to better meet the cognitive as well as the affective needs of these low-achieving students. Emphasis is placed on the emotional welfare of the students attending resource classrooms through such means as an affective program designed to help students better understand themselves. This study implies that through the use of an affective program which stresses positive teacher influences and classroom environment, the participating students can experience a more positive self-concept in school as measured by related subscores.

Implications for ESEA, Title I Programs

The researcher suggests that more evidence is needed on evaluation of ESEA, Title I resource classroom programs relative to the affective domain before final conclusions can be drawn as to program effectiveness in this area. Much research, however, indicates that students, especially low achieving students, will attain greater academic success in school if they can develop a positive self-concept especially on variables related to school. This study indicates that students participating in resource classroom programs have more positive

self-concepts relative to school. Therefore, the researcher suggests that the ESEA, Title I program continue emphasizing both the cognitive learnings of students and their affective needs. With this combined emphasis the self-concept of these students will be enhanced, thereby paving the way for increased achievement.

Limitations

This study was limited in that the experimental students participating in the ESEA, Title I resource classroom program were in these classrooms only for a maximum period of one and one-half hours per day. The combined effect of a short time in the resource program and a longer period of time in non-resource classrooms could be the cause of conflicting results, or results which are inconsistent. Also, the limited carry-over from self-concept enhancement programs in resource classrooms to non-resource classrooms is a limiting factor in self-concept.

Because the teacher is an important influence when considering student self-concept, a second limitation in this study concerns the circumstances under which ESEA, Title I teachers are employed. Although the program has established criteria for teacher selection, the personnel office does not adhere to them when employing ESEA, Title I teachers. Also, perhaps specific interview techniques are needed to identify teachers who possess qualities of warmth and other qualities conducive to stimulating positive student self-concept. Consideration should be given to teachers with special training in providing and stimulating positive self-concepts of learners.

Another limitation of this study is the lack of comparability between groups. Although the samples had an established criteria for selection, that being educational deprivation, the groups were not comparable on the basis of race and SES.

The McDaniel Observer Rating Scales, being relatively new, have not been used enough to be validated in varying situations. Their capacity to directly assess teacher influences and classroom environment may be limited. Adequate studies have not been made to directly assess student self-concept and its relationship to this observation instrument.

A final limitation might be the actual self-concept assessment instrument. This instrument may have been limited in its capacity to assess school variables because of an insufficient number of items relating directly to school. Self-concept assessment is limited to the scope of the instrument and to the willingness of the subjects to reveal their feelings of self.

Recommendations

Future research should refine an instrument that can be used to assess self-concept as it relates to school related variables. Such an instrument should include identified subscores as well as total self-concept score. The refinement of a teacher and classroom observation instrument that can be related to student self-concept is also needed. Such an instrument has not been fully validated.

Finally, research should be conducted on the development and testing of a complete self-concept model. Although this researcher developed a model showing factors which influence self-concept of learners, further research is needed using all elements of such a model.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

- Allport, G. et al. Study of Values (Rev. Ed.): Manual of Directions. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1961.
- Banks, J. A., and Grambs, J. D. Black Self-Concept. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1972.
- Barker, Robert G. Ecological Psychology. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1968.
- Bloom, B. S. Human Characteristics and School Learning. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1976.
- Bloom, B. S. Stability and Change in Human Characteristics. New York: Wiley, 1964.
- Borg, Walter R. Ability Grouping in the Public Schools. Madison, Wis.: Dembar Educational Research Services, Inc., 1966.
- Brophy, Jere E., and Good, Thomas L. Teacher-Student Relationships. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1974.
- Cattell, Raymond B. Handbook of Multivariate Experimental Psychology, Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1966.
- Combs, Arthur. Florida Studies in the Helping Professions. Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1969, pp. 3-9.
- Combs, A., Avila, D. L., and Purkey, W. W. Helping Relationships: Basic Concepts for the Helping Professions. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1971.
- Coopersmith, Stanley. The Antecedents of Self-Esteem. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Company, 1967.
- Davidson, Helen and Greenberg, Judith. Traits of School Achievers from a Deprived Background. New York: City College of the City University of New York, May, 1967, pp. 133-134.
- Davis, A. Social Class Influences Upon Learning. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1952.
- Dinkmeyer, Don C. Child Development. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.
- Dunkin, Michael and Biddle, Bruce. The Study of Teaching. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1974.

- Evans, K. M. Attitudes and Interests in Education. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1972.
- Gazda, George M. Human Relations Development. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1973.
- Harvey, Geraldine. Child Psychology, for Self-Study of Classroom Use. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1975, pp. 141-150.
- Hoffer, E. The True Believer: Thoughts on the Nature of Mass Movements. New York: Harper, 1951.
- Holt, J. How Children Fail. New York: Delta Books, 1964.
- Jersild, A. T. Child Psychology. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960.
- _____. In Search of Self. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952.
- _____. When Teachers Face Themselves. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955.
- Johnson, O. G. Tests and Measurements in Child Development: Handbook II. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers, 1976.
- Johnson, O. G., and Bommarito, J. W. Tests and Measurements in Child Development: A Handbook. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers, 1971.
- LaBenne, W. D., and Greene, B. I. Educational Implications of Self-Concept Theory. California: Goodyear Publishing Company, Inc., 1969.
- Lavatelli, C. S., Moore, W. J., and Kaltsounis, T. Elementary School Curriculum. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1972.
- Lunn, J. C. Streaming in the Primary School. Slough: NFER, 1970.
- Lyon, Harold C., Jr. Learning to Feel--Feeling to Learn. Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1971.
- McDaniel, Ernest. Manual for Observer Rating Scales. Indiana: Purdue Educational Research Center, April, 1974.
- Purkey, W. W. Self-Concept and School Achievement. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970.

- Rappoport, Leon. Personality Development. Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1972, pp. 166-183, 237-255.
- Rosenthal, R. and Jacobson, L. Pygmalion in the Classroom. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968.
- Rotter, J. B. Social Learning and Clinical Psychology. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1954.
- Rummel, R. J. Applied Factor Analysis. Evanston: Northwestern University Press, 1970.
- Snow, Richard E. and Elashoff, Janet D. Pygmalion Reconsidered. Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones Publishing Company, 1971.
- Snygg, D., and Combs, A. Individual Behavior (Rev. Ed.). New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1959.
- Spaulding, Robert L. "Achievement, Creativity and Self-Concept Correlates of Teacher-Pupil Transactions in Elementary Schools." Readings in Child Behavior and Development, Editor C. B. Stendler (2nd Ed. Rev.). New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964, pp. 313-318.
- Stanford, Gene and Roark, Albert E. Human Interaction in Education. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1974.
- Thomas, J. B. Self-Concept in Psychology and Education. Great Britain: NFER Publishing Company, Ltd., 1973.
- Triandis, H. C. Attitude and Attitude Change. New York: Wiley, 1971.
- Winer, B. J. Statistical Principles in Experimental Design. (2nd Ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1971.
- Wylie, Ruth C. The Self Concept. Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1961.

Government Documents

- Coleman, James S. et al. "Equality of Educational Opportunity." Washington, D.C.: Office of Education. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1966, p. 743.

- Combs, Arthur. "Perceiving Behaving, Becoming: A New Focus for Education." Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1962, p. 84.
- Franseth, Jane, and Koury, Rose. Survey of Research on Grouping as Related to Pupil Learning. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966.
- Lovinger, Sophie L. "The Interplay of Some Ego Functions in Six-Year-Old Children," USEO Cooperative Research Project, #5-8457-24-12-1, New York: New York University, 1967.
- State Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia (1973-74). Title I in Action, Evaluation Summary Data.
- White House Conference on Children and Youth. Implications for Elementary Education, a follow-up on the 1960 Conference. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1961.

Periodicals

- Alexander, E. D. "The Marking System and Poor Achievement," Teachers College Journal, 36 (December 1964), 110-113.
- Bauer, J. J. "Differences in Personality Traits Among Most Preferred and Least Preferred Students in Grades 10, 11, and 12." Journal of Educational Research, 65 (1971), 65-70.
- Berk, Laura; Rose, Marion; and Steward, D. "Attitudes of English and American Children Toward Their School Experience." Journal of Educational Psychology, 51 (1970), 33-40.
- Brookover, W., Thomas, S., and Paterson, A. "Self-Concept of Ability and School Achievement." Sociology of Education, 37, No. 3 (Spring 1964), 271-278.
- Campbell, P. B. "School and Self Concept." Educational Leadership, 24 (1967), 510-513.
- Caplin, Morris. "Self Concept, Level of Aspiration, and Academic Achievement." Journal of Negro Education, 37 (1968), 435-439.
- Caskey, S. R. and Felker, D. W. "Social Sterotyping of Female Body Image by Elementary School Age Girls." Research Quarterly, 42 (1971), 251-255.

- Christensen, C. M. "Relationships Between Pupil Achievement, Pupil Affect-Need, Teacher Warmth, and Teacher Permissiveness." Journal of Educational Psychology, 51 (1960), 169-174.
- Cogan, Morris. "The Behavior of Teachers and the Productive Behavior of Their Pupils." Journal of Experimental Education, (December 1958), pp. 89-124.
- Combs, Charles F. "Perception and Self Scholastic Underachievement in the Academically Capable." The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 18, No. 1 (September 1964), 47-51.
- Coons, W. H. and McEachern, D. L. "Verbal Conditioning, Acceptance of Self and Acceptance of Others." Psychological Reports, 20 (1967), 715-722.
- Coopersmith, Stanley. "A Method of Determining Types of Self-Esteem." Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 59 (1959), 84-94.
- Dineen, M. A. and Gary, R. "Effects of Sociometric Seating on a Classroom Cleavage." Elementary School Journal, 56 (1955), 358-362.
- Dixon, N. R. "Social Class and Education." Harvard Education Review, 23 (1953), 330-338.
- Engel, Mary. "The Stability of the Self Concept in Adolescence." Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 58 (1959), 211-215.
- Epstein, Ralph, and Komorita, S. S. "Self-Esteem, Success-Failure, and Locus of Control in Negro Children." Developmental Psychology, 4 (January 1971), 2-8.
- Felker, Donald W., Stanwyck, D. J. and Kay, R. S. "The Effects of a Teacher Program in Self-Concept Enhancement of Pupils' Self-Concept, Anxiety, and Intellectual Achievement Responsibility." The Journal of Educational Research, 66, No. 10 (July-August, 1973), 443-445.
- Felker, Donald W. and Thomas, S. J. B. "Self-Initiated Verbal Reinforcement and Positive Self-Concept." Child Development, 42 (Oct. 1971), 1285-1287.
- Fey, W. F. "Acceptance of Self and Others, and Its Relationship to Therapy Readiness." Journal of Clinical Psychology, 10 (1954), 269-271.
- Fink, M. B. "Self-Concept as it Relates to Academic Underachievement." California Journal of Educational Research, 13 (Feb. 1962), 57-62.

- Flanders, N. A. "Personal-social Anxiety as a Factor in Experimental Learning Situations." Journal of Educational Research, 45 (1951), 100-110.
- Flanders, Ned; Morrison, B. M.; and Brode, E. L. "Changes in Pupil Attitudes During the School Year." Journal of Educational Psychology, 50, No. 5 (1968), 334-338.
- Frankel, Edward. "Effects of a Program of Advanced Summer Study on the Self-Perceptions of Academically Talented High School Students." Exceptional Children, 30, No. 5 (February 1964), 245-249.
- Frerichs, Allen H. "Relationship of Self-Esteem of the Disadvantaged to School Success." The Journal of Negro Education, 40 (1971), 117-120.
- Gardner, P. L. "Research on Teaching Effects: Critique of a Traditional Paradigm." The British Journal of Educational Psychology, 44, Part 2 (June 1974), 123-130.
- Getzels, J. W. and Thelen, H. A. "A Classroom as a Unique Social System." N. B. Henry (Ed.) National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960.
- Gordon, Ira J. "The Beginnings of the Self: The Problem of the Nurturing Environment." Phi Delta Kappan, 50, No. 7 (March 1971), 375-378.
- Hake, James M. "Covert Motivations of Good and Poor Readers." The Reading Teacher, 22 (May 1969), 731-738.
- Harris, C. M. "Scholastic Self-Concept in Early and Middle Adolescence." Adolescence, 6, No. 23 (1971), 269-278.
- Henderson et al. "Self-Social Constructs of Achieving and Non-achieving Readers." The Reading Teacher, 19 (November 1965), 114-118.
- Henry, J. "Attitude Organization in Elementary School Classrooms." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 27 (1957), 117-133.
- Kifer, Edward. "Relationships Between Academic Achievement and Personality Characteristics: A Quasi-Longitudinal Study," American Educational Research Journal, 12, No. 2 (Spring 1975), 191-210.
- Lefevre, C. "Inner-City-School--As the Children See It." The Elementary School Journal, 67 (October, 1966), 8-15.

- Mattocks, A. L. and Jew, C. C. "The Teacher's Role in the Development of a Healthy Self-Concept in Pupils." Education, 92, No. 2 (Nov./Dec. 1973), 200-204.
- McCallon, E. L. "Self-Ideal Discrepancy and Correlates Sex and Academic Achievement." Journal of Experimental Education, 35 (1967), 45-49.
- Morrison, Thomas L. and Thomas, J. Duane. "Self-Esteem and Classroom Participation." The Journal of Educational Research, 68, No. 10 (July/August 1975), 374-377.
- Neale, D. C. and Proshek, J. M. "School Related Attitudes of Culturally Disadvantaged Elementary School Children." Journal of Educational Psychology, 58 (1967), 238-244.
- Perkins, H. V. "Factors Influencing Change in Children's Self-Concepts." Child Development, 29 (1958), 221-230.
- Purkey, W. W. "The Self and Academic Achievement." Florida Educational Research and Development Council, Research Bulletin, Gainesville, Florida, 3, No. 1 (Spring, 1967).
- Purkey, W. W. et al. "Self-Perceptions of Pupils in an Experimental Elementary School." Elementary School Journal, 71, No. 3 (December 1970), 166-171.
- Quandt, Ivan. "He Just Thinks He Can't Read." Childhood Education, (May 1973), pp. 438-439.
- Radke-Yarrow, M., Trager, H. G. and Davis, H. "Social Perceptions and Attitudes of Children." Genetic Psychology Monographs, 40 (1949), 327-447.
- Reed, Horace. "Implications for Science Education of a Teacher Competence Research." Science Education (December 1962), pp. 473-486.
- Rogers, Carl. "My Philosophy of Interpersonal Relationships and How It Grew." Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 1 (1973), 135-152.
- Rogers, Carl. "The Characteristics of a Helping Relationship." The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 37, No. 1 (September 1958), 6-16.
- Roth, R. M. and Puri, P. "Direction of Aggression and the Non-Achievement Syndrome." Journal of Counseling Psychology, 14 (1967), 277-281.

- Rushton, J. "The Relationship Between Personality Characteristics and Scholastic Success in Eleven-Year-Old Children." British Journal of Educational Psychology, 36 (1966), 178-184.
- Sears, R. R. "Relation of Early Socialization Experiences to Self-Concepts and Gender Role in Middle Childhood." Child Development, 41 (1970), 267-289.
- Shaw, M. C. and Alves, G. J. "The Self-Concept of Bright Academic Under-Achievers." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 42 (1963) 401-403.
- Shaw, M. C., Edson, K. and Bell, H. M. "The Self-Concept of Bright Under-Achieving High School Students as Revealed by an Adjective Checklist." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 39 (1960), 193-196.
- Simmons, Roberta G. and Rosenberg, Florence. "Disturbance in the Self-Image at Adolescence." American Sociological Review, 38 (October 1973), 553-568.
- Soares, Anthony and Soares, Louise. "Self-Perceptions of Culturally Disadvantaged Children." American Educational Research Journal, 6, No. 1 (January 1969), 31-45.
- Staines, J. W. "Self-Picture as a Factor in the Class-Room." British Journal of Educational Psychology, 28 (June 1958), 97-111.
- Stevens, P. H. "An Investigation of the Relationship Between Certain Aspects of Self-Concept Behavior and Students' Academic Achievement." Dissertation Abstracts, 16 (1956), 2531-2532.
- Strowig, R. W. et al. "Non-Intellective Self-Report Variables as Predictors of Scholastic Achievement." Journal of Educational Research, 63 (1970), 364-366.
- Teigland, John J. et al. "Some Concomitants of Underachievement at the Elementary School Level." The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 44, No. 9 (May 1966), 950-955.
- Thorndike, Robert L. "Review of Pygmalion in the Classroom." Educational Research Journal, 5 (1968), 708-711.
- Trowbridge, Norma. "Self-Concept and Socio-Economic Status in Elementary School Children." American Educational Research Journal, 9, No. 4 (Fall 1972), 525-537.
- Williams, Robert L. and Cole, Spurgeon. "Self-Concept and School Adjustments." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 46 (January 1968), 478-481.

Zimmerman, I. L. and Allebrand, G. N. "Personality Characteristics and Attitudes Toward Achievement of Good and Poor Readers." Journal of Educational Research, 59 (1965), 28-30.

Zirkel, Perry A. "Self-Concept and the 'Disadvantage' of Ethnic Group Membership and Mixture." Review of Educational Research, 41, No. 3 (1971), 211-222.

Unpublished Sources

Brunner, Joan C. and Starkey, John. "Interpersonal Relationships and the Self-Concept." Northern Illinois University, ERIC document ED 089 515, 1974.

Carlton, Jessie. "A Report on Self-Directive Dramatization in the Regular Elementary School Classroom and Relationships Discovered with Progress in Reading Achievement and Self-Concept Changes." In Dissertation Abstracts, Ann Arbor, Mich.: University Microfilms 21 (1964) 3124-3143.

Coopersmith, Stanley. "Implications of Studies on Self-Esteem for Educational Research and Practice." ERIC document ED 033 742, February 1969.

Erhlick, V. "The Dimensions of Attitude Toward School of Elementary School Children in Grades 3-6." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbia University, 1968.

Frerichs, Allen H. and Adelman, Stan I. "Labelling of Students by Prospective Teachers." ERIC document ED 088 827, April, 1974.

Havighurst, Robert J. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Philadelphia, December 30, 1962; Integrated Education, (April 1963), p. 5.

Kay, R. S. "Self-Concept and Level of Aspiration in Third and Fourth Grade Children." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University. Ann Arbor, Microfilms, (1972), No. 73-6054.

Kelly, Joseph R. "Visually Perceived Nonverbal Behaviors of Teachers and Their Relationship to Affective Responses of Students." ERIC document ED 080 309, March, 1973.

Knapp, Joan. "A Selection of Self Concept Measures." U.S. Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC document ED 080 534, 1973.

- Kremer, Barbara. "Self Concept Development: An Abstract Bibliography." U.S. Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC document ED 063 015, December, 1972.
- Landis, H. John. "A Validity Study of the Self-Esteem Inventory." ERIC document ED 060 392, April, 1972.
- McDaniel, Ernest D. "Longitudinal Study of Elementary School Effects: Design, Instruments, and Specifications for a Field Test." ERIC document ED 100 945, Vol. 10, No. 5, May, 1973.
- Mistry, Z. D. "A Study of the Self-Picture as Held by Selected Groups of Adolescent Girls, Prior to, and After School Leaving Age." Unpublished masters thesis, University of London, 1960.
- Nimnicht, Glen. "Environmentally Deprived Children." U.S. Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC document ED 039 937, July, 1969.
- Reeder, Thelma. "A Study of Some Relationships Between Level of Self-Concept, Academic Achievement and Classroom Adjustment." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, North Texas State College, 1955.
- Stanchfield, Jo. "Sex Differences in Learning to Read." Speech given at the Third Annual Reading Conference for Elementary Classroom Teachers, Roanoke, Virginia, February 22, 1975.
- Stoddard, Ann H. "The Effects of Integrated History Materials on Black Secondary Students' Attitude Toward Self and Others." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia, 1975.

Other Sources

- Averch, H. A. et al. How Effective is Schooling? (A critical review and synthesis of research findings.) California: Rand, 1971.
- Henderson, Ed. H. and Long, Barbara H. "An Exploratory Study of Reading-Thinking Patterns Among Children of Varying Abilities." USEA Project, S-374. Newark: University of Delaware, 1966.
- New England School Development Council. Class Size and Teacher Load. Massachusetts: NESDEC, 1975.
- Nie, Norman H. et al. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., 1975.

Roberson, E. Wayne. A Manual for Utilizing the Teacher Self-Appraisal Observation System. Arizona: Educational Innovators Press, 1973.

Strickland, G. "Development of a School Attitude Questionnaire for Young Children." Center for the Study of Evaluation, Los Angeles, California (July 1970), Report No. 59.

Summers, Anita and Wolfe, Barbara. "Which School Resources Help Learning? Efficiency and Equity in Philadelphia Public Schools." Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia Business Review (February 1975).

APPENDIX A

McDaniel Observer Rating Scales

Observer Rating Scale
by Ernest McDaniel

Coding Sheet

School _____ Teacher _____ Grade _____

Date _____ Time in _____ Time out _____

Observer _____

Complete the ratings at the end of the observation period. Circle the rating for each dimension.

- | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. warmth | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. freedom | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. individualization | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. variety | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. feedback | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

Observer Rating Scales
by Ernest McDaniel

Warmth

This dimension refers to the extent to which the atmosphere of the class is relaxed and comfortable or tense and uncomfortable. It also encompasses the degree to which the teacher maintains positive interpersonal relationships with pupils.

A classroom that is warm is one in which the teacher is positive to the students, demonstrating friendly and warm behavior. The children show signs of feeling secure and appear to like or enjoy the classroom experience. There is an atmosphere of acceptance of students. This teacher demonstrates sensitivity to students. The teacher is sensitive to the private lives of his students, and concerned about the personal and social growth of each student. Students are praised and reasoning is used rather than punishment. The teacher smiles and uses physical contact and humor in a positive way.

A classroom that is cold is one in which the teacher is demeaning to students. The teacher is critical and stern. The atmosphere is one of apparent insensitivity to students. This teacher seems to think of students as "things" or "objects" to be dealt with. Verbal or physical punishments are given for misbehavior. Sarcastic humor may be used to degrade or ridicule. There may be some differential treatment of students. Students exhibit feelings of insecurity and tension.

Rate this classroom on a warmth continuum.

1	2	3	4	5	6
cold					warm

1. A cold teacher treats students in a rejecting way. This teacher rejects not only undesirable behavior, but the students as well. By using negative words and a harsh tone of voice when correcting students, a cold teacher leaves students feeling "bad" or guilty. His speech is commanding or scolding. Sarcasm may be used to ridicule or degrade students. If he touches students, it is for disciplinary purposes. This teacher has an angry or cross disposition and a frowning appearance.
2. This teacher is formal and distant in his relationships with students. He is insensitive to students' feelings. Students do not approach him with their problems. This teacher is lesson-centered to the extent that getting the job done takes priority over responding to students in a tactful or considerate way.

3. This teacher is not always aware of students' feelings or may ignore them. While the teacher tries to temper the tone of his corrections, the child still senses the negative overtones.
4. This teacher is business like and intent on getting the academic job done. He tries to be friendly and is interested in his students. If this teacher disapproves of student behavior, he is tactful and understanding when correcting students. In general, he uses more praise than criticism.
5. This teacher is sensitive to students' feelings. He uses positive words when correcting students, leaving the students feeling secure even when corrected. This teacher is helpful and supportive. Students approach him with their problems. He frequently praises and compliments.
6. A warm teacher treats all students in an accepting way. He responds to each student as a person. When a student's behavior is undesirable, this teacher remains accepting of the student but rechannels the behavior or suggests an alternate behavior in a positive way. He uses positive words and his tone of voice is gentle. He feels free to touch students in a guiding and encouraging manner. This teacher has a pleasant disposition and a smiling appearance.

Freedom

This dimension refers to the degree to which the teacher provides arrangements which facilitate independence and individual freedom.

A classroom that is open provides an atmosphere in which students can move about freely and interact freely. Few teacher-dictated restraints are placed on student behavior. The student is given maximum responsibility for deciding what and when to study. Students are given verbal freedom in expressing their opinions and are permitted to question or challenge the teacher.

A restricted atmosphere is one in which the students are not given any verbal or physical freedom within the classroom. The teacher is the one who determines what activities will take place and when. The teacher makes most of the decisions. Conformity to rules is highly valued.

Rate this classroom on a freedom continuum.

1	2	3	4	5	6
restricted					open

1. In the restricted classroom, student behavior is strictly controlled by the teacher. The students look to the teacher to direct their every move and may frequently turn to the teacher to ask "What should I do next?" There are an abundance of dictatorial rules. Students must ask permission to perform routine tasks such as going to the restroom, sharpening pencils, getting supplies, etc. The student is not allowed to express his own opinions nor to question the teacher's point of view.
2. Classroom activities and decisions are structured and dominated by the teacher. If students are allowed to make decisions, they concern matters of minor importance to the teacher. Students are not given the opportunity to diverge from the given assignments. The teacher accepts only expressions of attitudes compatible with her own. Obedience to rules is expected. The classroom appears to be "in order."
3. Classroom activities are structured by the teacher, but pupils have some verbal freedom of expressions and physical freedom of movement. The students may even be seen walking freely about the classroom, talking to each other or to the teacher. The atmosphere may seem very relaxed. However, the teacher is clearly in charge of decision making.

4. The teacher sometimes presents opportunities for the students to make major decisions in the academic domain, but the choices are usually limited to such things as selecting a topic, choosing a story, opting for the even or odd problems, or selecting optional problems. The teacher does not refrain from taking the lead if there is a lull or lag in student response. The decision making roles regarding class rules and leisure time activities are shared between the teacher and the students.
5. The students are consistently offered freedom of choice in the academic domain, but the teacher sets definite limits. For example, the content area for study may be specified in terms of time spent, but the student is allowed to choose what to do from a predetermined list of activities, or how long to spend on a given assignment, or the order in which he prefers to perform activities. There is limited reference to rules. Rather, the emphasis is on student awareness of the appropriateness of his own behavior. Students are free to express opinions.
6. In an open classroom, the teacher provides freedom of choice not only in terms of when and how long to study, but also in terms of subject matter, and method of inquiry. There are learning centers around the room and students are free to move from one activity to another or to create their own learning experiences. There is a noticeable lack of specific assignments or direction giving. The teacher functions primarily as an information resource or sounding board. There may be considerable cooperation and conversation between students. Students are given individual responsibility for their behavior. There is little reference to rules. Free expression of ideas prevails and students are free to challenge the teacher's ideas.

Individualization

This dimension refers to the degree to which the teacher provides students with different levels of work that are suited to their particular needs, interests, and abilities, and to the amount of individual assistance provided.

The teacher whose classroom is individualized shows an awareness of individual differences. He makes different plans for different ability levels. This teacher makes use of special talents and interests of students in planning activities. Different students or groups of students are working on different assignments.

The teacher whose classroom is not individualized uses the entire class or large groups as the primary instructional unit. He displays little awareness of individual abilities or interests. All students generally work on the same assignment for the same period of time. No provisions are made for students at different ability levels. Many students experience stress due to time pressure.

Rate the instruction in this classroom on an individualization continuum.

1	2	3	4	5	6
not					individualized
individualized					

1. All students use the same materials and work on identical assignments. Time allowed to complete assignments is the same for everyone.
2. All students use the same materials and work on identical assignments, but some individual assistance is available and time requirements are somewhat flexible.
3. Pupils are grouped according to ability level. The same materials are used by all groups, but each group works at a different pace. One group may be far ahead of another.
4. Pupils are grouped according to ability level, but each group receives different assignments and materials based on the needs of the group. The pace varies between groups.
5. Pupils are grouped according to ability level. Groups work with different materials and individuals within groups receive supplementary enrichment or remedial materials as needed.

6. Each student works at his own pace on an individual assignment designed to meet the needs of each individual student. Individual assistance is available to aid a student in accomplishing his assignment.

Variety

This dimension refers to the extent to which the teacher uses a variety of materials and activities.

The teacher with variety uses many activities and a variety of materials within the lesson. A variety of activities could include reading orally, listening to a story, watching a movie, and discussing. A variety of materials could include flashcards, pictures, movies, TV, records, magazines, puzzles, blocks, displays, posters, in addition to the traditional classroom materials (blackboard, textbooks, and workbooks). These materials may either be used by the teacher in instruction or may be available for use by students during the lesson.

The teacher who lacks variety uses few materials within the lesson. Children work on the same task for most of the lesson. The teacher's approach seems to be rigid and predictable.

Rate this teacher on a variety continuum.

1	2	3	4	5	6
lack of variety					variety

1. This teacher relies exclusively on textbooks or workbooks. The class schedule is routine and predictable. Children work on the same task for the duration of the lesson. The teacher does not vary his approach to meet unexpected situations.
2. In addition to text and workbooks, this teacher uses worksheets, blackboard, charts and flashcards. Children complete written work or recite for the teacher.
3. This teacher uses text material, worksheets, charts, maps, flashcards. Recitation is supplemented with discussion, instructional games, or other activities which enrich the usual "question-answer" format.
4. This teacher makes uses of specially selected supplementary books, commercial kits, film strips, movies, games. Children's activities are built on these materials and may include student-student interaction as well as student-teacher interaction.
5. Materials in use go beyond commercially prepared instructional aids. Instruction may be built around field trip materials, special displays, exhibits, class activities or experiments. Pupils may be planning, observing, describing, exploring, experimenting, playing, acting, discussing or writing.

6. This teacher uses a wide variety of activities and a diversity of materials during the lesson. He brings unique materials into the classroom and makes ingenious use of the physical resources available to him. The children work on many different activities and have access to an abundance of materials and equipment. The class schedule is flexible and adaptable.

Feedback

This dimension refers to the extent of communication to the student of information about the adequacy, acceptability, completeness, or correctness of his response.

Effective feedback indicates to the student the specific characteristics of the response that make it adequate or inadequate, correct or incorrect.

Ineffective feedback does not provide the student with specific information about his response and therefore has little or no effect on improving performance. Feedback is ineffective if it is very general, inconsistent or unclear.

Rate this teacher on a feedback continuum.

- | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| ineffective
feedback | | | | | effective
feedback |
1. This teacher does not frequently respond to his pupils' written or oral work. He may keep a record of pupil performance for term grading purposes, but such information is rarely communicated to the student.
 2. This teacher responds to pupils' written and oral work with a general response, such as "B," "O.K.," or "Good" without going into detail about what is good and bad about it.
 3. This teacher gives a general response, with some specific comments about the overall quality of the work.
 4. This teacher lets pupils know which responses or answers are right or wrong without indicating what is right or wrong about them.
 5. This teacher lets pupils know which answers are right or wrong and tries to be as specific as possible, pointing out those parts that are well done and those parts that need improving.
 6. This teacher uses materials or methods which provide the pupil with a constant step by step check on whether each answer is right or wrong.

APPENDIX B

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

School	Teacher	Grade	Name
--------	---------	-------	------

COOPERSMITH-SELF ESTEEM INVENTORY (SEI)

Please mark each statement in the following way:

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

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

There are no right or wrong answers.

	Like Me	Unlike Me
1. I spend a lot of time daydreaming.	_____	_____
2. I'm pretty sure of myself.	_____	_____
3. I often wish I were someone else	_____	_____
4. I'm easy to like	_____	_____
5. My parents and I have a lot of fun together.	_____	_____
6. I never worry about anything	_____	_____
7. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.	_____	_____
8. I wish I were younger.	_____	_____
9. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could	_____	_____
10. I can make up my mind without too much trouble	_____	_____
11. I'm a lot of fun to be with.	_____	_____
12. I get upset easily at home	_____	_____
13. I always do the right thing.	_____	_____
14. I'm proud of my school work.	_____	_____
15. Someone always has to tell me what to do	_____	_____
16. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.	_____	_____
17. I'm often sorry for the things I do.	_____	_____

	<u>Like</u> <u>Me</u>	<u>Unlike</u> <u>Me</u>
18. I'm popular with kids my own age.	_____	_____
19. My parents usually consider my feelings	_____	_____
20. I'm never unhappy	_____	_____
21. I'm doing the best work that I can.	_____	_____
22. I give in very easily	_____	_____
23. I can usually take care of myself	_____	_____
24. I'm pretty happy.	_____	_____
25. I would rather play with children younger than me	_____	_____
26. My parents expect too much of me.	_____	_____
27. I like everyone I know.	_____	_____
28. I like to be called on in class	_____	_____
29. I understand myself	_____	_____
30. It's pretty tough to be me.	_____	_____
31. Things are all mixed up in my life.	_____	_____
32. Kids usually follow my ideas.	_____	_____
33. No one pays much attention to me at home.	_____	_____
34. I never get scolded	_____	_____
35. I'm not doing as well in school as I'd like to. .	_____	_____
36. I can make up my mind and stick to it	_____	_____
37. I really don't like being a boy -- girl	_____	_____
38. I have a low opinion of myself.	_____	_____
39. I don't like to be with other people.	_____	_____
40. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.	_____	_____
41. I'm never shy	_____	_____

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Unlike</u>
	<u>Me</u>	<u>Me</u>
42. I often feel upset in school.	_____	_____
43. I often feel ashamed of myself.	_____	_____
44. I'm not as nice looking as most people.	_____	_____
45. If I have something to say, I usually say it. . .	_____	_____
46. Kids pick on me very often.	_____	_____
47. My parents understand me.	_____	_____
48. I always tell the truth	_____	_____
49. My teacher makes me feel I'm not good enough. . .	_____	_____
50. I don't care what happens to me	_____	_____
51. I'm a failure	_____	_____
52. I get upset easily when I'm scolded	_____	_____
53. Most people are better liked than I am.	_____	_____
54. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me. .	_____	_____
55. I always know what to say to people	_____	_____
56. I often get discouraged in school	_____	_____
57. Things usually don't bother me.	_____	_____
58. I can't be depended on.	_____	_____

APPENDIX C

School Socio-Economic Survey

Federal School Program
ESEA, Title I
30 W. North Street
Leesburg, Virginia 22075

March 18, 1975

Department of Instruction
Memo No. 92

TO: Loudoun County Public School Principals

FROM: Marcelle V. Kilmer, ESEA, Title I Supervisor
, Director of Instruction

SUBJECT: Title I Survey of Economically Deprived Children

We need a list of pupils in your school whom you feel are economically deprived.

The following characteristics which are most common among economically deprived children should be used as a guide in determining these children:

1. Personal knowledge of family conditions
2. Inadequate clothing
3. Inadequate lunch, no lunch, free lunch
4. Poor health
5. On welfare

On the enclosed form please list these pupils according to grade. Please check the categories used in identifying these economically deprived children. From the survey you will make, we also need the totals for all grades. Please return completed forms to us by April 2, 1975.

MVK:sws

Information:

Directors
Supervisors

School _____

Principal _____

Date _____

SURVEY OF CHILDREN FROM LOW INCOME FAMILIES

Grade	Number of Children in Grade	Number of Children in Grade from Low Income Families
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
11		
12		

Please return this form by March 25, 1975 to:

Federal School Program
ESEA, Title I
30 W. North Street
Leesburg, Virginia 22075

APPENDIX D

Resource Classroom Identification List

Federal School Program
ESEA, Title I
Leesburg, Virginia 22075

September, 1975

Research Classroom Identification List

<u>School</u>	<u>Teacher</u>
Aldie	
Arcola	
Ashburn	
Banneker	
Emerick	
Lincoln	

APPENDIX E

Letter Recommending the Coopersmith

Self-Esteem Inventory

**System
Development
Corporation**

October 29, 1975

Ms. Marcelle V. Kilmer

Dear Ms. Kilmer:

In your letter of October 15 concerning affective instruments to be used in the Sustaining Effects Study you indicate that your dissertation will deal with self-concept. With that as a focus, I'll describe some of our considerations and decisions.

We investigated the possibility of measuring self-concept in the study, including the examination of a number of existing self-concept scales. A panel we convened recommended the use of the "Self-Esteem Inventory" developed by Stanley Coopersmith of the University of California, Davis. However, that recommendation was tempered with some concerns, notably that the instrument might be inappropriate for primary grade students and would receive a fair amount of the limited time available for administering affective measures. In effect, the "Self-Concept Inventory" was viewed as the best of a less-than-ideal lot.

Subsequently, we decided to attend primarily to attitudes toward mathematics and reading, and chose the new "Survey of School Attitudes" published by Harcourt Brace Jovanovich. We plan now to measure self-concept in the school setting by adding a five-item scale to the SSA with such questions as "I can learn things quickly." Of course, this brief scale does not have known reliability and validity, although the reading and mathematics scales do.

Should you be interested in exploring the "Self-Esteem Inventory" further, you may want to look at Coopersmith's The Antecedents of Self-Esteem (W. H. Freeman, 1967). Its use in a recent study is described in Edward Kifer, "Relationships between Academic Achievement and Personality Characteristics," American Educational Research Journal, 1975, 12, 191-210.

I hope this is helpful to you. If there is anything else I can provide you, please contact me.

Yours truly,

Studies & Evaluation Department

cc:

**The vita has been removed from
the scanned document**

THE EFFECTS OF CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT AND TEACHER INFLUENCES
ON STUDENT SELF-CONCEPT IN AN ESEA, TITLE I PROGRAM

by

Marcelle Vogel Kilmer

(ABSTRACT)

This study was conducted to investigate whether or not there were differences in self-concept between elementary grade students participating in the ESEA, Title I resource program and students not participating in this program in Loudoun County, Virginia. Possible differences in student self-concept were identified through the use of the total self-concept score and related subscores produced from a factor analysis conducted on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. These subscores were self-appreciation, self-assuredness, social adaptability, adequacy in school, and personal adequacy. Further relationships between self-concept and types of classroom were investigated through analyzing student data according to these personal characteristics: sex, race, grade, and socio-economic status.

This study also investigated factors in the school setting to determine which factors contributed most significantly to the student's self-concept. Factors investigated were classroom environment and teacher influences. Variables relating to classroom environment included (1) individualization, and (2) variety of materials and activities. Variables relating to teacher influences included (1) warmth, (2) provision for freedom, and (3) feedback.

Students selected for the sample in this study were third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade educationally disadvantaged students enrolled in eight elementary schools in Loudoun County, Virginia. The resource or experimental group of students had participated in the ESEA, Title I resource program for at least one year, while the non-resource or control group participated only in the regular county educational program.

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) was used to assess student self-concept. The McDaniel Observer Rating Scales were used to assess classroom environment and teacher influences.

Significant differences ($p < .05$) were observed through the use of ANOVA and t-Tests. Results indicated that the self-concept of resource students was significantly more positive on the subscores self-assuredness and adequacy in school; on the other hand, the self-concept of non-resource students was significantly more positive on the subscores self-appreciation and personal adequacy. In addition, the self-concept subscores self-assuredness and adequacy in school were significant only in classrooms rated high in individualization, wide in variety, and high in teacher warmth; the subscores self-appreciation and personal adequacy were significant only in classrooms rated low in individualization and teacher warmth and feedback.