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POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPT.

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SCHOOL ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES THAT INFLUENCE  
POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPT

by

Mary Belle McCorkle

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GRADUATE COLLEGE

I hereby recommend that this dissertation prepared under my  
direction by Mary Belle McCorkle  
entitled SCHOOL ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES THAT INFLUENCE POSITIVE  
SELF-CONCEPT  
be accepted as fulfilling the dissertation requirement of the  
degree of Doctor of Education

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SIGNED: Mary Belle McCook

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## ABSTRACT

This study is concerned with answering two questions:

1. Does a school administered as an open school have a greater influence in helping children develop good self-images than the school administered as a conventional school?
2. Are some administrative practices linked more strongly with the production of positive self-concepts than others?

Seventy-nine children in each of three elementary schools identified as similar in population and size were given Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory. These children had attended their particular school four to six years. The observable administrative practices of the three schools and an adaptation of Mario Fantini's Alternatives on a Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum were used to categorize one school as administered as an open school and two schools as administered as conventional schools.

It was hypothesized that children attending the school administered as open would score significantly higher on Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory than children in either of the two schools administered as conventional. This same hypothesis was held for each of the three

subtests, "General Self," "Social Self/Peers," and "School-Academic." It was hypothesized there would be no significant differences in the scores on the subscale, "Home-Parents."

Two-way analysis of variance plus the Tukey Test were used to analyze the data. On the total Coopersmith Test, the children in the school administered as open scored significantly higher than the children in the schools administered as conventional.

On the subtest, "General Self," there was a statistically significant difference between the school administered as open and one of the schools administered as conventional. This hypothesis was partially verified.

On the subtests, "Social Self/Peers" and "School-Academic," no significant differences were found in the means of the three schools. The hypotheses were not verified. However, the means of the school administered as open were higher than the means of the schools administered as conventional.

On the subtest, "Home-Parents," no significant differences were found in the means of the three schools substantiating the hypothesis that the children came to school from the three neighborhoods with approximately the same variations in self-concept.

Because the children attending the school administered as open showed a significantly higher level of

self-concept than those attending the schools administered as conventional and since items on Coopersmith's Inventory relate to the administrative practices of these schools, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. Positive self-concepts can be better taught in the school administered as open than in the two schools administered as conventional.
2. The administrative practices of the school administered as open were linked to the production of positive self-concepts. The practices are evaluating children on the basis of goals using no letter grades; giving personal meaning to learning through choices of what and how to study; emphasizing helping relationships through cross-age grouping, team teaching and parent involvement; emphasizing real life confrontation and problem solving; and choosing teachers on their abilities to be accepting, warm, loving and their beliefs in these practices.

This study supports the following recommendations:

1. Implementation of the administrative practices of the open school be made in schools interested in building positive self-concepts.
2. Administrators be trained in the development and implementation of open administrative practices as well as conventional.

3. Instruments be developed to measure self-concept which are appropriate for pre-schoolers, which are validated in open schools, and which are independent of the child's self-report.
4. Instruments be constructed to distinguish more clearly the open and conventional school settings.
5. Longitudinal studies be made beginning when children enter school to distinguish the home's influence from the school's.

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

#### Introduction

Authors concerned with education have been writing prodigiously over the last ten years with an emphasis on the importance of affect in the curriculum. It does matter if our schools produce individuals possessing high cognitive skills yet lacking feelings of confidence, self direction and positive identification with society. Schools have been portrayed in Silberman's (1970) Crisis in the Classroom as "grim, repressive, and joyless" (p. 208). He goes on to explain that there is no evil intent or ignorance on the part of school people but "mindlessness" pervades the educational scene--a failure to think deeply about the purposes or consequences of education. "Schools can be humane and still educate well" (p. 208). Jackson (1968) in Life in the Classroom reports on Tenenbaum's study in New York City's schools. Twenty per cent of the students have serious misgivings about school, and the great majority possess an attitude of neutrality or passivity. Jackson further proposes that the school is a receiver of attitudes, not a creator of them. Rubin (1973) in Facts and Feelings in the Classroom writes, "As a result of our reluctance to

allow young people to examine alternate beliefs and values, a near tragedy has come to pass--the tendency on the part of young people to deny the credibility of education" (p. 14).

Moustakas (1971) in Personal Growth is concerned about the child becoming programmed by parents' and school's goals and being alienated from his real self. He quotes Frederick Weiss,

Early he begins to move away from his self, which seems not good enough to be loved. He moves away from what he is, what he feels and what he wants. Later he idealizes his self-effacement as goodness, his aggression as strength, his withdrawal as freedom. Instead of developing in the direction of increasing freedom, self-expression and self-realization, he moves toward safety, self-elimination and self-idealization (p. 2).

Moustakas says:

Original self-awareness becomes self-deception and the individual no longer realizes he has abnegated his real self in favor of a substitute. Desensitization and separation occur where one is treated as an object, where skills and subject matter are more significant than learners; where goals must be pursued regardless of the real wishes, aspirations and capacities of persons; where rationalizing, explaining and analyzing takes the place of spontaneity, humanistic experience and natural feeling (p. 4).

Grave dissatisfaction with the educational status-quo has led Bremer (1973) and Illich (1972) to advocate the de-schooling of American society. Bremer speaks of the anxiety felt by the high school student; this anxiety is attributed to the "non-relationship" (p. 449) of the big school. The student sees himself as a piece of data lost

in a crowd characterized by hostility, destructiveness, and drugs. Illich feels strongly that enforced instruction deadens for most people the will for independent learning and that a man must recover the sense of personal responsibility for what he learns and touches. Only then can alienation of learning from living be overcome.

All of these authors have a common thread running throughout their writings--a grave concern that the individual be personally touched by the educational process and that the child as a result or partial result of his life in school may become a fully functioning or adequate person. The concern for affect must become a fundamental part of the curriculum. "Reason and emotion are of a piece and the proper function of schooling is to make human beings better" (Rubin, 1973, p. 17).

Combs and Snygg (1959) in Individual Behavior give three major characteristics of adequate persons:

1. They perceive themselves in generally positive ways.
2. They are capable of accepting perception into themselves.
3. They are capable of wide identification of selves with others.

Kelly in Combs' (1962) Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming says that the fully functioning personality thinks

well of himself and others, sees his stake in others and views himself as a part of a world in movement in a process of becoming. Having a positive view of self comes through strongly in both of the preceding definitions of the fully functioning person. The self-concept, those perceptions about self most vital to the individual himself, the very essence of the person, becomes the basic ingredient for this study.

"People learn who they are and what they are from the ways in which they have been treated by those who surround them in the process of growing up" (Combs, 1962, p. 53). Combs and Snygg (1959) further postulate:

What effects might we be able to produce by providing experiences that build adequate concepts of self in children and adults? What difference in the richness and variety of perception might result from a generation of people with "I can" rather than "I can't" conceptions of themselves? What possibilities of increased perceptions and hence increased intelligence might accrue to such a program (p. 225).

The open school is an organizational scheme to meet the goal of developing a fully functioning person. Vincent Rogers in Nyquist and Hawes (1972) in the Open Education Sourcebook lists these characteristics of the open school:

1. It is a place for children to live more fully and richly now.
2. Little curriculum is considered basic. There is effort to understand the nature of the broad

academic fields and regard them as possibilities rather than prescriptions.

3. There is concern for learning rather than teaching.
4. Process is more important than product.
5. There is concern with developing responsibility.
6. Children are to be listened to and learned from.  
A real caring for children is evidenced.

Vermont's Design for Education (Nyquist and Hawes, 1972) includes these objectives for open education:

1. Success is vital to prospering.
2. Individuality of the learner must be maintained.  
Learner works according to his abilities and individual expectations.
3. Learner must develop a personal set of values.
4. Learners learn from each other.

The open school is also characterized by a deep involvement by children in learning the properties of things, causal relationships, concepts of size, volume, and texture. "To know an object is to act upon it" (Piaget, in Nyquist and Hawes, 1972, p. 321). To know is to modify and transform the object, to understand the process of transformation and as a consequence to understand the way the object is constructed. Kelly (cited in Combs, 1962) speaks of another kind of involvement as being important to the development of an adequate person. "The growing self

must feel that it is involved, that it is really part of what is going on, that in some degree it is helping shape its own destiny together with the destiny of all" (p. 17).

In open education, the child is given opportunity to make decisions and choices which determine the course of his day in school. These assumptions about children's learning written by Roland Barth support the relationships of the open school, self-confidence, decision and choice making to each other and to children's learnings. They appear in the book, Open Sesame (Carswell and Roubinek, 1974, p. 120):

1. The child will display natural exploratory behavior if he is not threatened.
2. Confidence in self is highly related to the capacity for learning and for making important choices affecting one's learning.
3. Children have both the competence and the right to make significant decisions concerning their own learning.
4. Children will be likely to learn if they are given considerable choice in the selection of materials they wish to work with and in the choice of questions they wish to pursue with respect to those materials.

There are open teachers and classrooms in conventional schools, and conventional teachers and classrooms in open schools. It is therefore difficult to find schools that are purely "open" or "conventional." These variations exist because the administrative regulations of the particular school allow them to be. Administrative practices would also encourage either open or conventional behaviors depending upon their content. This study will stress the importance of administrative characteristics both in determining open and conventional settings and in helping produce positive self-concepts.

#### Statement of the Problem

This study proposes to find out whether the school administered as an open school does provide experiences and the environment in which adequate self-concepts of children are built. This paper will be concerned with two problems. Does the school administered as an open school have a greater influence in helping children develop good self-images than the school administered as a conventional school? Are some administrative practices linked more strongly with the production of positive self-concepts than others?

### Significance of the Study

It seems that the characteristics and administrative practices of the open school lend credence to the ideas that such a system might better produce an individual with a positive self-concept than the characteristics and administrative practices of the conventional school. If true, this information should be most significant in determining the kinds of schools built, administrators and teachers trained, and administrative practices and teaching methods employed. Moreover, the specific facts within the open school setting which are productive of positive self-concepts must be isolated so that such conditions may be reproduced in all kinds of schools.

Another factor bearing on the significance of this study is the lack of research available as to affect in any school setting. The open school has been lauded for its efforts in this area, and this study will provide some solid evaluation.

### Hypotheses to be Tested

1. The scores of children attending the school administered as an open school will be significantly higher on Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory than the scores of children attending either of the two schools administered as conventional schools.

2. The scores of children attending the school administered as an open school will be significantly higher on the subscale entitled "General Self" of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory than the scores of children attending either of the two schools administered as conventional schools.
3. The scores of children attending the school administered as an open school will be significantly higher on the subscale entitled "Social Self/Peers" of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory than the scores of children attending either of the two schools administered as conventional schools.
4. The scores of children attending the school administered as an open school will be significantly higher on the subscale entitled "School-Academic" of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory than the scores of children attending either of the two schools administered as conventional schools.
5. There will be no significant difference in scores of children in the three schools on the subscale entitled "Home-Parents" of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory.

#### Assumptions Underlying the Research Problem

This study assumes that affect and feelings are measurable traits and

1. They are influenced differently in open and conventional school environments.
2. They are influenced by the administrative characteristics of the school environment.
3. They can be reflected in the self-reports of the subjects.
4. They are characterized by some consistency.
5. They are influenced to the greatest extent by the home environment and relationships within the family.

#### Delimitations of the Study

The findings of this investigation will be limited to the following:

1. A population of fourth, fifth, and sixth graders attending one of two schools four to six years assumed to be representative of children attending conventional schools.
2. A population of intermediate-age children attending an open school four to six years assumed to be representative of children attending open schools.
3. The three schools chosen are similar in mobility rate, socioeconomic status, military influence, but the amount of variance among the three schools' population characteristics is unknown.

4. The reliability and validity of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory, the only standardized measure being utilized.
5. Studies of self-concept here reported were done in conventional schools.

#### Definitions of Terms Used

1. Self-concept is defined as a complex and dynamic system of beliefs which an individual holds true about himself. Each belief has a corresponding value. It is one of the vital ingredients of the fully functioning person.
2. The open school in this study is characterized by five administrative practices:
  - a. Evaluation of children and adults is based on goals held for children by the children themselves, parents, and teachers. No letter grades are used and children are not retained a second year at the same grade level.
  - b. Personal meaning is given to learning through giving choice of what and how to study and providing high involvement activities.
  - c. Helping relationships are emphasized through cross-age grouping, team teaching, and parent involvement.

- d. Real-life confrontation and problem-solving are emphasized through directed freedom.
  - e. Teachers are chosen on the basis of their abilities to be accepting, warm, loving, and their belief in the first four distinctives.
3. The conventional school is characterized by five administrative practices:
- a. Use of letter or number grades to evaluate children's work.
  - b. Textbook oriented curriculum prescribed by teachers based on graded expectations of children's needs.
  - c. Helping relationships mainly dependent on one adult, the teacher.
  - d. School environment characterized by rules and routines that sublimate problems.
  - e. Teachers chosen on the basis of proficiency in curricular skills as strongly as on their personalities or philosophies.
4. Phenomenal self is defined as the organization of all the ways a person has of seeing self--the perceived self.
5. "Self-actualization is the
- a. Acceptance and expressions of the inner core or self, i.e., actualization of these latent capacities and potentialities, 'full functioning,' availability of the human and personal essence.

- b. Minimal presence of ill health, neurosis, psychosis, of loss or diminution of the basic human and personal capacities" (Combs, 1962, p. 36).
6. The fully functioning personality
- a. thinks well of one's self;
  - b. thinks well of others and sees a stake in others;
  - c. sees one's self as a part of a world in movement in the process of becoming;
  - d. develops, holds, and lives according to one's human values; does not shift behavior depending on the kind of people nearest one;
  - e. is cast in a creative role; life means discovery and adventure;
  - f. sees the value of mistakes; and
  - g. is becoming integrated--the distinctions between the "role" self and "real" self are growing less (Combs, 1962).

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### Characteristics of Self-Concept

In studying the literature, three characteristics of the self-concept thrust forward as significant. First, man's basic need is for adequacy. Combs and Snygg (1959) speak of the great, driving force in each of us by which we are continually seeking to more adequately cope with life. Man seeks maintenance and enhancement of organization, and this organization is a familiar one--his phenomenal self. Purkey (1970) believes there is a tendency toward self-actualization as long as the environment permits it. Combs (1962) believes people are always motivated to maintain and enhance the perceived self.

Secondly, Purkey (1970) asserts that the self strives for consistency--that because it is organized it demands order, harmony, and stability. Closely held beliefs about oneself are difficult to change. "A student who considers himself a failure at school will reject or distort evidence which contradicts his perceived self, no matter how flattering the information may be or how helpful it may appear from another person's point of view" (Purkey, 1970, p. 11). Purkey (1970) quotes Jersild, "The child is active

in the maintenance of the self-picture even if by misfortune the picture is a false and unhealthy one" (p. 11).

Students who did poorly but expected to do so were more satisfied and contented than those who did well but had not expected to do so. And so the self resists change as much as possible in order to enjoy a consistent, organized world. Combs and Snygg (1959) speak of this self-consistency as a goal in itself; an individual will seek the type of experience which confirms and supports the unified attitude. Mead says that the individual guards himself against a loss of self-esteem, and the ability to do this is important in maintaining a high level of esteem (Combs and Snygg, 1959). And so the self resists change.

Thirdly, the self is learned--it is the product of our social interactions with others. People develop feelings that they are liked, wanted, acceptable and able from having been liked, wanted, accepted and from having been successful (Combs, 1962). Combs and Snygg (1959) speak of the individual's learning to define the world in terms of the culture into which he is born. "A child can only see himself in terms of his experience and the treatment he receives from those responsible for his development" (p. 93). If then the self is learned, a positive self is teachable. What is learned can be taught (Combs, 1962). And such teaching in order to influence students must be done by a significant other in their lives according to

Moustakas (1971). The individual comes to respond to himself and develops self-attitudes consistent with those expressed by significant others in his world. Combs and Snygg (1959) speak of the everyday interactions among family members as being of greater significance than traumatic happenings.

The following characteristics lend much additional understanding:

1. Negative feelings are not absent in the total organization of the adequate personality, but they do not distort the entire concept. In fact the admission of the existence of unflattering truth is the first step toward more effective behavior (Combs and Snygg, 1959). Purkey (1970) believes that success and failure are generalized throughout the self-concept.
2. Combs and Snygg (1959) state that realistic acceptance of self is essential. The production of adequate self-concepts requires the teacher to assume the equally important responsibility of assisting the child to see himself accurately and realistically (Combs, 1962).
3. Perceptions of self do not stop with descriptions alone; evaluative terms (good, bad) are included (Combs and Snygg, 1959). Coopersmith (1967) speaks of the pervasiveness of evaluative English words;

over one-half the terms employed in common usage have evaluative connotations and this holds true for other languages.

4. Coopersmith (1967) believes that there are four types of experiences by which an individual may define his success.
  - a. Power--the ability to influence and control others.
  - b. Significance--the acceptance, attention and affection of others.
  - c. Virtue--the adherence to moral and ethical standards.
  - d. Competence--successful performance in meeting demands for achievement.

His study indicates that significance and competence are more important factors than power or virtue.

5. Even though the self strives for consistency, the individual is continually discovering who he is, and some perceptions of self become more basic.  
Concepts of self vary in sharpness or clarity.  
Clinical experiences in psychology indicate that change can be brought--not by the rejection of self nor by longing for that which is beyond achievement but through acceptance of self as one is. Beginning from whatever self-acceptance the individual has, change in self-concept becomes possible through the

kinds of experiences he thereafter selects choosing those standing a reasonable chance of success (Combs and Snygg, 1959). And so the self possesses a kind of fluidity.

6. Coopersmith (1967) studied the amount of latitude an individual has in selecting self-values, the relationship between these values and his competencies and how value saliences are related to self-judgments. If individuals are free to vary in their choice of standards, we would reasonably expect them to select and focus upon those areas in which they believed themselves to excel. This would lead to high esteem for everyone. Coopersmith asked his subjects to indicate which values were important to them in a list of forty-three. He found no significant differences in the responses of boys with high, medium, or low esteem. He was led to conclude that self-value preferences are circumscribed and defined by one's social group. Individuals are not free to choose areas of competency. An interesting fact related to this study is that the children's responses differed from their parents; the low esteem children's parents espoused values of accommodation and the high esteem parents favored achievement. Strongest value orientation was found in the middle esteem

group. To be in the middle is a more ambiguous position and may induce a greater need to structure one's world.

7. Coopersmith's (1967) studies of aspiration indicate that the low and high esteem children are equally desirous of success. The person with low esteem is as likely to set lofty goals as high esteem persons, but the high esteem subjects expect to accomplish the goals. Coopersmith (1967) speaks of Rosenberg's research in which persons of low esteem were shown to be as desirous of success but were far less likely to believe that success would actually occur. Pessimism increases the likelihood of aborted, half-hearted efforts. William James' formula for success supports these ideas (Coopersmith, 1967):

$$\text{Success} = \frac{\text{Success}}{\text{Expectations}} \text{ rather than } \frac{\text{Success}}{\text{Pretensions}}$$

8. Combs and Snygg (1959) describe the physical body as the most constant aspect of our experience. A smooth running body gives feelings of enhancement of self, adequacy and competency. Adler according to Coopersmith (1967) proposes that feelings of inferiority may develop around certain organs (withered arm) or patterns of physical behavior (non ability to jump rope) in which the individual

is indeed inferior. Adler goes on to state that feelings of inferiority are an inevitable occurrence of childhood because the size and strength of adults make children conclude they are weak. Coopersmith learned that persons with low self-esteem are more prone to internalize reactions to anxiety thus suffering from digestive, eliminative and respiratory troubles. He also found that present physical attractiveness is unrelated to child's self-esteem but does not know whether such attractiveness was important at an earlier period. He also concluded that great height is not necessarily enhancing, and that lack of height does not necessarily result in lowered feelings of worth. Coopersmith (1967) felt that bed-wetting, thumb sucking and extended illnesses were significantly related to self-esteem. However, trauma from birth, accident or illness were found to be unrelated suggesting that it takes prolonged mistreatment to affect self-concept.

9. Several studies of children at different grade levels have shown a positive relationship between levels of the self-concept and school achievement. Bennett's (cited by Gardner, 1972) study of sixth grade boys showed a high correlation between achievement and self-concept and concluded that learning deficits were not due to lack of ability

but to conceptions of inadequacy and inability. Coopersmith (1967) found correlations between subjective high self-esteem and intelligence (also academic achievement) to be statistically significant. He concludes that ability and academic performance are associated with feelings of personal worth but cannot say these conditions are the major or overwhelming influences in developing self-esteem. Purkey (1970) raises the question of whether children see themselves negatively because of poor school performance or whether the poor self-concept causes the low achievement.

10. Coopersmith (1967) cites Rosenberg's attitude survey administered to over 5,000 high school students. He found social class only weakly related to self-concept and ethnic group affiliation unrelated. Coopersmith (1967) himself concluded that persons of all levels and confidence are equally likely to join social groups, but there is considerable difference in the roles they play within. High esteem persons are more willing to express themselves in such groups. No significant differences were found between the three major religious faiths and self-esteem.
11. Combs and Snygg (1959) stress the restrictive effect on perception by threat. Threat is accompanied by

decreased efficiency and the fundamental need to defend against attack. Threat is referred to as the perfect tool for a regimented society as it restricts "looking" and provides a means by which human beings can be prevented from exploring widely while at the same time attention is held to the events the manipulator desires people to look at. Threatened people are synonymous with inadequate personalities. Threat brings about distortions and attempts to make events less threatening by bringing them in line with existing concepts of self. This results in adjustive behavior like the sour-grapes reaction, rationalization, compensation. However, Combs and Snygg (1959) point out that the feeling of personal adequacy derived from any accomplishment is enhanced if there is a possibility of failure. Things we know we can do are less challenging than those we have yet to try. Challenge offers opportunities for the experience of adequacy.

12. Coopersmith's (1967) studies indicate that mothers of high esteem children tend to be high in self-esteem. Mothers of low esteem children tend to have low self-concepts and are apt to be emotionally unstable. Mothers of high esteem children tend to view childbearing in a direct realistic manner as a

natural event, express no preference for children of either sex and are more accepting of the consequences of maternity for their own social activities and the greater physical effort motherhood requires than low-esteem mothers. Mothers of high self-concept children are more in agreement with their husbands' definition of parental role as close, congenial relationships with definite limits. Interaction between husband and wife in families of children with high esteem is marked by greater compatibility and ease than low esteem families. High esteem families establish clearer patterns of authority and areas of responsibility. The father or the mother make the major decisions with little tendency to share decision making equally. However mothers of high esteem children play an active role in carrying out decisions related to child rearing.

There seems to be no relationship between the occupations of fathers and self-esteem of sons except with sons of men engaged in authoritarian or violent occupations such as the police force or armed services. According to Coopersmith's (1967) studies findings indicate that children perceiving their fathers unemployed have less likelihood of positive self-esteem. There seems to be no relationship between frequency of mother's working and self-esteem.

However the length of mother's employment is positively related to the child's self-concept. The higher the child's esteem the more probable it is that his mother has been regularly employed more than one year.

Coopersmith (1967) found that previous marriages occurred with greater frequency in backgrounds of subjects with low self-esteem. He learned that children who hold family positions that receive more attention (first born and only) are likely to be higher in self-esteem. A large percentage of high-esteem children in families with more than one child reported that siblings stuck closely together. This suggests high esteem is more likely to develop where there is mutual support among brothers and sisters.

13. Combs and Snygg (1959) warn against judging adequacy on the basis of traits. "Behavior is always a function of the individual's total field at the moment of action, and similar perceptions in the fields of different people will not necessarily result in identical behaviors" (p. 249). However, these authors do list some very general characteristics of the adequate person:
  - a. Efficient behavior.
  - b. Spontaneity and creativity.
  - c. Autonomy.
  - d. Compassion--the feeling of oneness with others.

Coopersmith (1967) concludes that high esteem persons are expressive of affect, happy and relatively free of anxiety. He believes that there is a positive relationship between self-esteem and mental health. The high esteem person is more creative and more willing to innovate or show social independence. Coopersmith goes on to say:

From self trust required for socially independent and creative expression stems the ability to reject opinions that are popular and to ignore social conventions of correctness. In the self-trusting innovator such acts of rejection are less acts of internal rebellion than they are a personal affirmation of his own perceptions, not intended to rebuke or criticize generally accepted views. Without trust in his own powers the person seeking improved solutions or alternative theories has no basis for distinguishing the significant and profound innovation from one that is merely different. To explore ideas and strike out in new directions requires the belief that one can discriminate between sense and nonsense and that one can impose order where disorder apparently exists (pp. 58-59).

He can venture into new areas without fear of losing his direction or respectability (Coopersmith, 1967).

14. Combs and Snygg (1959) warn that the self-concept is a useful approximation of a larger organization but is not synonymous with it. The self-concept is never a sufficient explanation of behavior by itself.

Conditions Producing Positive Self-Esteem

Coopersmith (1967) in his introduction to Antecedents of Self-Esteem synthesizes the ideas of previous theorists and investigations into four main factors which contribute to the development of positive self-concept:

1. The amount of respectful, accepting and concerned treatment that an individual receives from significant others--we value ourselves as we are valued.
2. The history of successes and the position we currently hold in the world.
3. The ability to live up to aspirations in areas the individual regards as personally significant.
4. The manner in which the individual responds to devaluation.

In his comprehensive study of several hundred boys in the Connecticut public schools Coopersmith (1967) came up with a general statement about the antecedents of self-esteem in terms of these conditions:

. . . total or nearly total acceptance of the children by their parents; clearly defined and enforced limits; and respect and latitude for individual action existing within the defined limits. In effect we can conclude that the parents of children with high self-esteem are concerned and attentive toward their children, that they structure the worlds of their children along lines they believe to be proper and appropriate, and that they permit relatively great freedom within the structures they have established (p. 236).

This combination of conditions reveals some relationships between child-rearing practices and self-esteem particularly in areas of parental behavior and consequences of rules that parents establish. Coopersmith continues,

These relationships indicate that definite and enforced limits are associated with high rather than low esteem; that families which establish and maintain clearly defined limits permit greater rather than less deviation from conventional behavior and freer individual expression than do families without such limits; those families which maintain clear limits utilize less drastic forms of punishment and that the families of children with high esteem exert greater demands for academic performance and excellence (p. 236).

Should teachers take over the parent's job when the parents are failing? Ashley Montagu (cited by Howes, 1970) says,

Without question and in bounden duty. The one thing the developing human being must not be failed in is the sustenance and support he expects and has a right to inherit. This requires teachers who are themselves able to love--for it is by being loved that one learns to love, just as one learns to speak by being spoken to (p. 22).

Teachers need to value themselves and have the ability to love; it is their function to enable the individual to negotiate successfully the journey in search of self (Howes, 1970). Maslow (in Rubin, 1973) says, "The best helpers of other people are the most highly evolved, healthiest, strongest most fully developed people" (p. 168). One of Coopersmith's (1967) suggestions for psychological treatment is having the patient model after an effective, assured,

competent individual to see how this model deals with anxiety, resolves ambiguities, makes decisions, deals with failure and insults. In Self Concept and School Achievement (Purkey, 1970) Combs' ideas are expressed which indicate that the teacher's attitudes toward himself and others are as important, if not more so, than his techniques, practices or materials. There seems then to be general agreement that the teacher needs to have positive and realistic attitudes about himself and his abilities, before he is able to reach out to like, respect or influence others. The teacher must possess the fully functioning personality.

Moustakas (1971) emphasizes the role of the teacher as a resource. "Sometimes adults program the child's life with incentives and rewards, so that he progresses step by step toward their expectations and standards. In the process the unique child is canceled out and what emerges is a social robot that takes its directions from external judgments and cues" (p. 60). Adults serve the growing child through confirmation (valuing, trusting, saying yes to the child's way of being in the world), through authentic presence, and by providing resources (as invitations not as manipulative arrangement of environment). Moustakas reinforces his position with these words:

Here I am and here with me are some of the resources I have found of value. You may find these materials significant; test them, explore them, use them, share them, work with them--alone, with others--use them to pursue your interests in science,

literature, music, art, dance. I wish to listen, to speak, to relate, to know, to encourage, to enable you to grow more and more freely, to assist you in developing your talents and resources and find genuine life here for myself (p. 44).

The most important factor in producing positive self images is success. Rubin (1973) in Facts and Feelings in the Classroom quotes Maslow, "School must provide the child limitless chances to survive failure until success materializes--'unrestricted time and opportunity to actualize'" (p. 168). Rubin relates Bloom's ideas of the relationship of the individual's perception of his adequacy in school learning to the development of related interests, attitudes and self-concept. Continued evidence of success or failure have major effects on the individual's personality and mental health. "If the school environment provides the individual with evidence of his adequacy over a number of years and especially in the first six years, there is some evidence that this provides a type of immunization against mental illness for an indefinite period of time" (p. 142). Glasser (1971) in The Effect of School Failure on the Life of a Child examines how an individual arrives at "I am a success" identification. He speaks of two basic pathways called success-need pathways.

The upper pathway leading to positive identity is the pathway of love. Practically everyone whose identity is a success has someone who cares for him, someone who loves him. Equally important he has an ability to care for someone else. Also,

if we are on the lower success pathway, we believe that what we are doing in the world is worthwhile and we have some confidence that others in the world also believe that what we are doing is worthwhile (p. 3).

Combs and Snygg (1959) describe an atmosphere for learning in which the positive self would be the major goal. It would be characterized by:

1. Freedom from threat.
2. Atmosphere of acceptance (an attitude of willingness to look at and consider facts).
3. Existence of limits ("A stable structure has important positive values in providing expectancies against which to judge one's behavior" [p. 390]).

They further describe the process of encouraging and assisting the exploration of meaning.

1. Remember that exploration takes time.
2. Learn to listen to what the student is expressing and hold up the crucial aspects of events he is exploring for the student to examine.
3. Accept mistakes.
4. Appreciate the new and different. In this learning environment students are not seen as objects to do things to but as people to interact with. The teachers are more concerned with experience less with telling, with questions less than with answers, and more of we and less of I.

Such schools provide opportunities for pupils to think of themselves as responsible citizens and contributing members of society (democratic classrooms with cooperative activities); provide wide variety of opportunities for success and appreciation through achievement (diversification of activities and choice); and provide a maximum of challenge and a minimum of threat.

Rubin (1973) proposes curriculum changes which emphasize rational consideration of controversial issues, equipment of the child to become an adept decision maker even when a limited amount of evidence is available, and acquisition by the child of the delicate art of self negotiation.

This is Rubin's warning in regard to the school environment: "Our view of intellect as verbally mediated thought penalizes those whose talents or interests lie elsewhere and creates a self-fulfilling prophecy that reassures us of the correctness of our original view" (p. 200). He advises the use of role playing, the dramatic and visual arts--use of new types of media that communicate through modalities other than verbal. He believes fantasizing should be routine in school; children should be encouraged to dream, speculate and envision. Spencer (1970) in Reading Reading, supports Rubin's ideas, "Giving recognition for effective reading performance in areas other than reading printed symbols boosts the reader's

self-image and stimulates him to improve his less adequate performance" (p. 80).

Moustakas (1971) believes that the educational situation that most effectively promotes significant learning is one in which external threats to the self of the learner such as rejection, criticism, evaluation, reward and punishment are at a minimum while at the same time the individuality and the uniqueness of the person are valued, respected and trusted. The learner is free to explore the materials and resources that are available to him in the light of his own interests, potentialities and readiness.

Coopersmith (1967) brings out Rogers' argument for a permissive atmosphere which permits free expression of ideas and affect and does not resort to harsh or frequent evaluative comparisons. This enables the individual to know and accept himself. Conflicts can be avoided if parents and significant others accept the views and values of the child although they need not necessarily agree with him. They must be willing to accept differences and trust children.

LeFevre (1970) in Linguistics, English and the Language Arts, talks of language being the central attribute of man--his most distinctive attainment. The individual's language is the socio-psychological bond that makes him one with his culture. Anyone who attacks dialect is understood to be attacking the person himself. Such behavior should be

avoided in a curriculum aimed at developing the fully functioning individual.

Coopersmith (1967) relates White's ideas that a child experiences a biologically given and pleasurable sense of efficacy (power to produce effects), and this becomes the basis for intrinsic motivation in achieving greater competence. If this be true, then choice and involvement in pursuing that choice become crucial to the optimum environment. Purkey (1970) cites self-selection as a way to improve the self-concepts of poor readers. Haynes (1972) further supports this with the idea that freedom of choice in the content and sequence of learning helps establish healthy value judgments and individual styles of learning throughout life. A corollary of this assumption is that such independence of thought and life-style is related to positive self-concept.

Table 1 relates the characteristics of and conditions producing positive self-concepts gained from the background reading with the administrative practices existing in the open and conventional schools. It is designed to display this information in such a manner that comparisons and conclusions could be made regarding which characteristics and conditions would be enhanced by which of the practices. Does the literature concerning self-concept support the practices of the open school or those of the conventional?

Table 1. Summary of Literature and Administrative Practices

Open School	Literature	Conventional School
<p>Evaluation of children and adults based on goals held for children by the children themselves, parents, and teachers. No letter grades are used and children are not retained a second year at the same grade level.</p>	<p>Failure and threat of failure is kept to a minimum. Successful experiences breed more successful experiences (Coopersmith, 1967; Combs and Snygg, 1959; Purkey, 1970).</p>	<p>Evaluation is characterized by the use of letter or number grades to evaluate children's work.</p>
<p>Personal meaning is given to learning through giving choices of what and how to study and providing high involvement activities.</p>	<p>The student needs to feel a sense of efficacy and have chances to experience success repeatedly (Purkey, 1970; Glasser, 1971; Rubin, 1973; Coopersmith, 1967).</p>	<p>The curriculum is textbook oriented prescribed by teachers based on informal diagnosis of children's needs.</p>
<p>Helping relationships are emphasized through cross-age grouping, team teaching and parent involvement</p>	<p>Experience is needed in feeling compassion for others and being accepting of individual differences. Significant others influence students (Combs and Snygg, 1959; Moustakas, 1971; Purkey, 1970).</p>	<p>Helping relationships are mainly dependent on one adult, the teacher.</p>
<p>Real-life confrontation and problem-solving are emphasized through directed freedom.</p>	<p>Spontaneity, creativity are valued. Limits exist, but there is flexibility within them (Coopersmith, 1967).</p>	<p>The school environment is characterized by rules and routines that sublimate problems.</p>

Table 1.--Continued

Open School	Literature	Conventional School
Teachers are chosen on the basis of their abilities to be accepting, warm, loving and their belief in openness.	There is someone who cares and believes what students are doing is worthwhile, who gives a considerable amount of respectful and concerned treatment when needed, who acts as a resource rather than a programmer, and who becomes a significant other (Moustakas, 1971; Purkey, 1970; Combs and Snygg, 1959).	Teachers are chosen on the basis of proficiency in curricular skills as strongly as on their personalities or philosophies.

The major authors on self-concept contributing to this chapter gained their information from a variety of sources. Some conducted their own research and case studies or read extensively getting ideas and drawing conclusions from other authors. Table 2 shows where these major authors gained their information, ideas and conclusions.

Table 2. Sources from Which Major Authors on Self-Concept Gained Information

Author	Research Studies	Case Studies	Quotes and Ideas from Other Authors
Coopersmith (1967)	xx	x	x
Combs and Snygg (1959)	x	x	x
Glasser (1971)		x	x
Moustakas (1971)		x	x
Purkey (1970)	x	x	x
Rubin (1973)	x	x	x

xx: Did own research studies.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This study was conducted in three elementary schools located in the southeastern portion of Tucson School District Number One. The schools were identified by the Tucson Public Schools Research Department as similar in size (over five hundred students), mobility rate, cost of homes and number of children on free lunch. All three are located in square mile communities.

#### Designation of Schools as Being Administered as Open Schools and as Conventional Schools

School  $A_1$  was designated as a school administered as an open school because of its evaluation system, the provision of opportunities for children to make choices, develop helping relationships with many ages and kinds of people, problem solve in real-life situations and interact with a staff chosen on the basis of warm, accepting personalities.

Schools  $A_2$  and  $A_3$  were categorized as schools administered as conventional schools. They were characterized by the use of grades, textbook oriented curriculum, helping relationships dependent on the teacher, a school environment based on rules and procedures that tend to avoid

problems and having teachers chosen mainly on the basis of proficiency in curricular skills. These designations were based on observable administrative practices and were verified by the Assistant Superintendent for Educational Programs, Tucson Public Schools.

Use of Fantini's Alternatives on a Freedom-to-  
Prescription Continuum

The classifications of schools administered as an open school and as conventional schools were further verified by the use of a checklist based on Fantini's (1973) Alternatives on a Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum. Fantini explains the categorizations on his continuum. He says:

One way to consider alternatives is to place them on a continuum according to how much freedom or independence a student has to choose the elements of learning--how much freedom the student has to choose the teacher, content methodology, time, and place for learning. At one extreme, the learner selects what he shall learn, with whom, where and how. At this end of the continuum, the learner is most "free." At the other end he is most dependent on the institutional procedures and requirements--the institution predetermines the conditions of learning for the student; who his teacher will be, how the teacher will teach, what the subject matter will be, how much time is spent on each subject, and when and where this learning takes place (p. 448).

Table 3 shows Fantini's original continuum.

This continuum was located during the background reading for this study. It was selected because it was appropriate for principals' ratings rather than individual classroom teachers' ratings, and its items were administrative descriptions of the school setting instead of relating

Table 3. Mario Fantini's Alternatives on a Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum

Free	Open	Modified	Standard
Learner-directed and -controlled. Learner had complete freedom to orchestrate his own education. Teacher is one resource.	Learner has considerable freedom to choose from a wide range of content areas considered relevant by teacher, parent, student. Resource centers in major skill areas made available to learner.	Prescribed content is made more flexible through individualization of instruction; school is ungraded; students learn same thing but at different rates. Using team teaching, teachers plan a differentiated approach to the same content. Teacher and course of study are the major sources of student learning.	Learner adheres to institution requirements uniformly prescribed: what is to be taught--how, when, where, and with whom. Teacher is instructor-evaluator. Student passes or fails according to normative standards.
Opening of school to the community and its resources.	Teacher is supportive guider.		
Noncompetitive environment.	Teacher-student planning.	Competitive environments.	
No student failures. Curriculum is viewed as social system rather than as course of studies.		School is the major instructional setting.	
Learner-centered	Teacher-centered	Subject-matter-centered	Institution-centered

to particular classroom practices. Table 4 shows the items on the continuum and how they relate to the administrative characteristics of the open and conventional schools.

Seven phrases that expressed the same ideas as the continuum's items in different words were added to the instrument as a check for reliability. The word "conventional" was substituted for "standard" to keep the terminology consistent since the meanings were synonymous. The column on Fantini's Continuum located between the free and open columns was named "free-open," the column between open and modified was named "open-modified," and the column between modified and conventional was called "modified-conventional" for purposes of identification. The principals of the three schools involved in this study rated their own schools on the adaptation of Fantini's Continuum.

Figure 1 shows the instrument used by the three principals.

Figure 2 shows the instrument used by the investigator to score the principals' ratings.

Table 5 gives the scores on the continuum for the three schools.

In studying the modified column, it can be seen that the scores of the three schools cluster only one to two points apart. In the open-modified column, Schools A<sub>1</sub> and A<sub>3</sub> are only one point apart. In the open column, Schools A<sub>1</sub>

Table 4. Fantini's Continuum Related to the Administrative Characteristics of the Open and Conventional Schools

Administrative Characteristics	Items on the Continuum
Kind of Evaluation	<p>Environment is non-competitive.</p> <p>There are no student failures.</p> <p>School is ungraded.</p> <p>The environment is competitive.</p> <p>Student passes or fails according to normative standards.</p> <p>Student's rank in class is important to the teacher, parent, and student.</p> <p>Progress is judged by student's production of ideas through speech, writing, and the arts.</p>
Choice Contrasted with Prescription	<p>Classrooms are learner directed and controlled.</p> <p>Learner has freedom to orchestrate his own education.</p> <p>Classrooms are learner-centered.</p> <p>Learner has considerable freedom to choose from a wide range of content areas considered relevant by teacher, parent, student.</p> <p>Resource centers in major skill areas are made available to learner.</p> <p>Classrooms are teacher centered.</p> <p>Prescribed content is made more flexible through individualization of instruction.</p> <p>Students learn same thing but at different rates as a result of teacher planning.</p>

Table 4.--Continued Fantini's Continuum Related to the  
Administrative Characteristics of the Open and  
 Conventional Schools

Administrative Characteristics	Items on the Continuum
	<p>Programmed instruction is a strong source of student learning.</p> <p>School is subject-matter centered. (Subject matter decided on apart from student.)</p> <p>Learner adheres to institutional requirements uniformly prescribed-- what is to be taught, how, when, where and with whom.</p> <p>Textbooks are a major source of learning.</p> <p>Grade level equivalents especially in reading are used for grouping students for instruction.</p>
<p>Kinds of Helping Relationships</p>	<p>Teacher is only one resource for children's learning.</p> <p>School building is open to the community and its resources.</p> <p>Parents are urged to participate in classroom activities and do school related tasks.</p> <p>Team teaching is utilized.</p> <p>The teacher is the major source of student learning.</p> <p>The school building is the major instructional setting.</p>
<p>Real Life Confrontation as Contrasted with the Use of Rules</p>	<p>Curriculum is viewed as social system rather than as course of studies.</p> <p>Teacher-student planning is utilized.</p>

Table 4.--Continued Fantini's Continuum Related to the  
Administrative Characteristics of the Open and  
 Conventional Schools

Administrative Characteristics	Items on the Continuum
Kinds of Teachers Employed	School is for the acquisition of knowledge and skills.
	School is a place to use and practice knowledge and skills.
	Teacher is supportive guider of children's learning. Teacher is instructor-evaluator.

Categorize your school according to a three point scale:

Give three points for a major characteristic  
two points for a medium characteristic  
one point for a minor characteristic  
zero if non-existent

1. Classrooms are learner directed and controlled.
2. Learner has freedom to orchestrate his own education.
3. Teacher is only one resource for children's learning.
4. School building is open to the community and its resources.
5. Parents are urged to participate in classroom activities and do school related tasks.
6. Environment is non-competitive.
7. There are no student failures.
8. Curriculum is viewed as social system rather than as course of studies.
9. Classrooms are learner-centered.
10. Learner has considerable freedom to choose from a wide range of content areas considered relevant by teacher, parent, student.
11. Resource centers in major skill areas made available to learner.
12. Teacher is supportive guider of children's learning.
13. School is ungraded.
14. Teacher-student planning is utilized.

Figure 1. Instrument Used by Three Principals Based on Alternatives on a Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum Alternative School Environments

15. Classrooms are teacher-centered.
16. Team teaching is utilized.
17. Prescribed content is made more flexible through individualization of instruction.
18. Students learn same thing but at different rates as a result of teacher planning.
19. Individual teachers plan a differentiated approach to the same content.
20. The teacher is the major source for student learning.
21. Programmed instruction is a strong source of student learning.
22. The school environment is competitive.
23. The school building is the major instructional setting.
24. School is subject-matter-centered. (Subject matter decided on apart from student.)
25. Learner adheres to institution requirements uniformly prescribed--what is to be taught, how, when, where and with whom.
26. Textbooks are a major source of student learning.
27. Teacher is instructor-evaluator.
28. Student passes or fails according to normative standards.
29. Student's rank in class is important to the teacher, parents and students.
30. School is for the acquisition of knowledge and skills.

Figure 1.--Continued Instrument Used by Three Principals  
Based on Alternatives on a Freedom-to-  
Prescription Continuum Alternative School  
Environments

31. School is a place to use and practice knowledge and skills.
32. Progress is judged by production of ideas through speech, writing and the arts.
33. Grade level equivalents especially in reading are used for grouping students for instruction.

Figure 1.--Continued Instrument Used by Three Principals  
Based on Alternatives on a Freedom-to-  
Prescription Continuum Alternative School  
Environments

Free (a)	Free Open (a/b)	Open (b)	Open Modified (b/c)	Modified (c)	Conven- tional (c/d)	Conven- tional (d)
<p>Reliability check--questions phrased differently expressing the same ideas:</p> <p>(1, 2, 9), 4, 5 (22, 29), 24, 25 (8, 31), 18, 33</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Classrooms are learner directed and controlled. (a)</li> <li>2. Learner has freedom to orchestrate his own education. (a)</li> <li>3. Teacher is only one resource for children's learning. (a)</li> <li>4. School building is open to the community and its resources. (a/b)</li> <li>5. Parents are urged to participate in classroom activities and do school related tasks. (a/b)</li> <li>6. Environment is non-competitive. (a/b)</li> <li>7. There are no student failures. (a)</li> <li>8. Curriculum is viewed as social system rather than as course of studies. (a/b)</li> </ol>						

Figure 2. Items on the Instrument Used by Scorer Based on Alternatives on a Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum Alternative School Environments on a Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum

9. Classrooms are learner-centered. (a)
10. Learner has considerable freedom to choose from a wide range of content areas considered relevant by teacher, parent, student. (b)
11. Resource centers in major skill areas are made available to learner. (b)
12. Teacher is supportive guider of children's learning. (b)
13. School is ungraded. (b)
14. Teacher-student planning is practiced. (b/c)
15. Classrooms are teacher-centered. (b/d)
16. Team teaching is utilized. (b/c)
17. Prescribed content is made more flexible through individualization of instruction. (c)
18. Students learn same thing but at different rates as a result of teacher planning. (c)
19. Individual teachers plan a differentiated approach to the same content. (c)
20. The teacher is the major source for student learning. (c)
21. Programmed instruction is a strong source of student learning. (c)
22. The school environment is competitive. (c/d)
23. The school building is the major instructional setting. (c/d)
24. School is subject-matter-centered. (d) (Subject matter decided on apart from student.)

Figure 2.--Continued Items on the Instrument Used by Scorer Based on Alternatives on a Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum Alternative School Environments on a Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum

25. Learner adheres to institution requirements uniformly prescribed--what is to be taught, how, when, where and with whom. (d)
26. Textbooks are a major source of student learning. (d)
27. Teacher is instructor-evaluator. (d)
28. Student passes or fails according to normative standards. (d)
29. Students rank in class is important to the teacher, parent and student. (c/d)
30. School is for the acquisition of knowledge and skills. (c/d)
31. School is a place to use and practice knowledge and skills. (a/b)
32. Progress is judged by student's production of ideas through speech, writing and the arts. (a/b)
33. Grade level equivalents especially in reading are used for grouping students for instruction. (c)

Figure 2.--Continued Items on the Instrument Used by Scorer Based on Alternatives on a Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum Alternative School Environments on a Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum

Table 5. Scores on the Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum

School	Free	Free Open	Open	Open Modified	Modified	Modified Conventional	Conventional
A <sub>1</sub>	12	17	12	5	9	3	5
A <sub>2</sub>	9	12	4	1	11	8	11
A <sub>3</sub>	8	10	9	4	12	7	12

and  $A_3$  have only a three point differential. In the free categorization the schools cluster three to four points apart. However in the free-open, modified-conventional and conventional columns, School  $A_1$ 's scores are separated from Schools  $A_2$  and  $A_3$  by four to seven points. Since the three schools had many common characteristics as judged by the principals, the scores were summarized in Table 6 to see if stronger tendencies toward openness/freedom or conventionalism/closedness could be found. The open/modified column was deleted instead of adding the numbers into both of the other columns to make computation simpler. Table 6 is the summary.

Table 6. Summary of Scores on the Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum

School	Free to Open	Modified to Conventional
$A_1$	41	17
$A_2$	25	30
$A_3$	27	31

The Chi-Square statistic was applied to Table 6, the Summary of Scores on the Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum. It was found that the differences in scores were not due to chance alone. There was significance in the differences at the .01 confidence level. In studying Table 6, the score of School A<sub>1</sub> on the free to open column is sixteen points higher than School A<sub>2</sub> and fourteen points higher than School A<sub>3</sub>. However, scores of twenty-five and twenty-seven respectively on the free to open column for Schools A<sub>2</sub> and A<sub>3</sub> represent quite a number of open characteristics. Likewise, even though in the modified to conventional column School A<sub>1</sub> scored thirteen points less than School A<sub>2</sub> and fourteen less than School A<sub>3</sub>, the score of seventeen represents a number of conventional characteristics. There certainly can be no hard and fast categorizations made from this instrument. However, there were tendencies toward openness/freedom and toward conventionalism/ closedness which justify the designations of School A<sub>1</sub> as being administered as an open school and Schools A<sub>2</sub> and A<sub>3</sub> as schools administered as conventional.

In using Fantini's instrument, the principals of Schools A<sub>1</sub> and A<sub>2</sub> had .66 reliability and the principal of School A<sub>3</sub> had .83 reliability. Table 7 presents the responses of the three principals on the questions which checked reliability.

Table 7. Principals' Responses on Questions Designed to Check Reliability

Question	Categorization	School		
		A <sub>1</sub>	A <sub>2</sub>	A <sub>3</sub>
1	a	2	2	2
2	a	2	1	1
9	a	3	2	2
4	a/b	2	2	1
5	a/b	3	1	2
22	c/d	0	1	2
29	c/d	0	1	2
24	d	1	2	2
25	d	1	2	2
8	a/b	3	2	2
31	a/b	3	3	2
18	c	2	2	2
33	c	1	2	2

Credit for reliability was given if two of the questions 1, 2, 9 were given the same number of points.

The .66 reliability scores by two of the three principals is low. This could be a result of their trying to discriminate too closely between items. The three point rating scale could encourage this. Another factor might be that the reliability items were not constructed in a clear manner.

In addition to the reliability being low, another major problem with the use of this continuum is that the "free" column is at the one extreme of the continuum instead of the "open" column. It is evident that a more discriminating instrument is needed to distinguish "open" from "conventional" categorization.

#### Use of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory

This inventory consists of fifty-eight items based upon an earlier scale developed by Rogers and Dymond (1954) and worded especially for children aged eight to ten. In response to descriptive statements the subject checks either "like me" or "unlike me." Coopersmith (in Gardner, 1972) states:

The scale was used with 1,748 children in the public schools of central Connecticut. For these children the mean for boys was 70.1, the standard deviation 13.8, and for girls 72.2, the standard deviation 12.8. Test-retest reliability after five weeks was found to be .88 and after a three year interval .70. Validity was established by high correlation with teachers' predictions of children's self-esteem, and correlations with creativity, anxiety, parental treatment, levels of aspirations and other variables (p. 25).

The test features five subscales--"General Self," "Social Self/Peers," "Home-Parents," "School-Academic," and a lie scale. The latter indicates "defensive behavior which might display evidence of unrealistic expectations or desire to appear worthy in spite of inner feelings" (Gardner, 1972, p. 25). The entire test appears in Appendix B of this dissertation.

Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory was chosen for this study after examining six measures of self-concept described in Improving Educational Assessment and an Inventory of Measures of Affective Behavior (Beatty, 1969). Descriptions of the five measures which were not selected are listed in Appendix A of this study. The Coopersmith Instrument is in wide use, it has been validated, it can be administered in a group setting, it can be read to the subjects so that the reading ability of the subject is not a factor, it is appropriate for fourth to sixth grade students, and it is divided into subtests containing items which relate to administrative practices. The subtest, "Home-Parents," was used to find out whether or not children in the three schools brought similar feelings about themselves when they came to school.

Limitations of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory are that it is dependent on the self-report of the subjects and that it was validated in conventional schools. However,

careful examination reveals that it does not discriminate against open schools.

Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory was administered to the subjects in the three selected schools in groups of thirty or less by the same tester. The subjects were all fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children who had attended their respective schools four or more years. The amount of time in attendance should insure the existence of the particular school's influence on the children. Tests were randomly discarded in the two larger schools so that the N of seventy-nine would be equal for each of the three schools. Thus 237 children were included in the sample. The test was read to the children to help with comprehension. Tests were discarded which showed lie scores of one, two or three as directed by Coopersmith. These lie scores were based on the subjects' responses to eight items designed to determine if the subjects were being truthful in their self-reports. These items should be answered "not like me," so a score of eight indicates truthfulness and a score of one indicates untruthfulness. Table 8 shows the lie items.

The five hypotheses were tested by using two way analysis of variance and the Tukey Test (Edwards, 1954). Two way analysis of variance was used to determine the significance of the differences among the three total test means. In order to determine if significance existed

between all possible pairs of means provided by the four subtests, the Tukey Test was employed.

Table 8. Lie Items on Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory

- 
- 
- 6. I never worry about anything.
  - 13. I always do the right thing.
  - 20. I'm never unhappy.
  - 27. I like everyone I know.
  - 34. I never get scolded.
  - 41. I'm never shy.
  - 48. I always tell the truth.
  - 55. I always know what to say to people.
-

## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

The analyses of the data are reported according to and in the order of the hypotheses in Chapter I. The first hypothesis is based on the total score of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory and is designed to answer the first question posed in this study. Does a school administered as an open school have a greater influence in helping children develop good self-images than the school administered as a conventional school? The remaining four hypotheses are based on the four subtests which make up Coopersmith's instrument. Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 were tested in an attempt to answer the second question posed in this study. Are some administrative practices linked more strongly with the production of positive self-concepts than others? In analyzing the subtests individually, it might be determined whether the general feeling about self, the relationships with peers or the school setting itself might be most important. Some information might be gained from analyzing specific items within each subtest. In the subtest, "General Self," items 1, 10, 15, 16, 17, 22, 23, 29, 31, 36, 50, 51, and 58 relate to the administrative characteristic of real life confrontation as contrasted with

rules which sublimate problems. Items 10, 15, 36, and 58 relate to choice contrasted with prescription as well as to real life confrontation. In the subtest, "Social Self/Peers," all the items relate to the kind of helping relationships that might be provided administratively. In the subtest, "School-Academic," items 7, 28, 42, 49, and 56 relate to the kind of teachers employed. Test items on Coopersmith's Inventory related to the administrative practice of evaluation (items 2, 14, 21, 26, 35, 43, 51, and 54) are scattered throughout the subtests. Hypothesis 5 was tested to show that the children in the three schools came to school with similar variations in self-concept as related to home and parents. Table 9 gives all the mean scores for three schools derived from applying two way analysis of variance and the Tukey Test.

#### Hypothesis 1

The scores of children attending the school administered as an open school will be significantly higher on Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory than the scores of children attending either of the two schools administered as conventional schools.

Finding. In analyzing the total score means of the three schools through two way analysis of variance and the Tukey Test, it was found that School A<sub>1</sub>'s mean of 8.604 was higher than School A<sub>2</sub>'s mean of 7.956. School A<sub>1</sub>'s mean of

Table 9. Means of Schools A<sub>1</sub>, A<sub>2</sub>, and A<sub>3</sub> on Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory<sup>2</sup>

Schools	Total Test Means	General Self B <sub>1</sub>	Social Self/Peers B <sub>2</sub>	School Academic B <sub>3</sub>	Home Parents B <sub>4</sub>
A <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	8.604	18.3	5.8	4.7	5.5
A <sub>1</sub> S <sub>79</sub>					
A <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	7.956	17.1	5.1	4.15	5.4
A <sub>2</sub> S <sub>79</sub>					
A <sub>3</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	7.639	16.65	5.03	4.0	4.8
A <sub>3</sub> S <sub>79</sub>					

8.604 was also higher than School A<sub>3</sub>'s mean of 7.639. The differences were significant at the .05 confidence level which means that such findings would only occur by chance alone five times out of one hundred. School A<sub>1</sub> is the school administered as open; Schools A<sub>2</sub> and A<sub>3</sub> are schools administered as conventional. Children attending the school administered as an open school showed a statistically significantly higher level of self-concept than those attending the schools administered as conventional.

## Hypothesis 2

The scores of children attending the schools administered as an open school will be significantly higher on the subscale entitled "General Self" of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory than the scores of children attending either of the two schools administered as conventional schools.

Finding. In comparing the means of the three schools through two way analysis of variance and the Tukey Test on the subscale entitled "General Self," significance at the .05 confidence level was found between Schools  $A_1$  and  $A_3$ -- $A_1$  being significantly higher. School  $A_1$  had a mean of 18.3; School  $A_3$  had a mean of 16.65. No significant difference was found between School  $A_1$ 's mean of 18.3 and  $A_2$ 's mean of 17.1 even though the score of School  $A_1$  was higher. Children attending the school administered as an open school showed a significantly higher level of self-concept than those attending one of the schools administered as a conventional school. Items from the inventory from which the findings were derived are shown in Table 10.

## Hypothesis 3

The scores of children attending the school administered as an open school will be significantly higher on the subscale entitled "Social Self/Peers" than the scores of

Table 10. Items Comprising "General Self," a Subscale of  
Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory

Item	Correct Response
1. I spend a lot of time daydreaming.	Not like me.
2. I'm pretty sure of myself.	Like me.
3. I often wish I were someone else.	Not like me.
8. I wish I were younger.	Not like me.
9. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.	Not like me.
10. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.	Like me.
15. Someone always has to tell me what to do.	Not like me.
16. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.	Not like me.
17. I'm often sorry for the things I do.	Not like me.
22. I give in very easily.	Not like me.
23. I can usually take care of myself.	Like me.
24. I'm pretty happy.	Like me.
29. I understand myself.	Like me.
30. It's pretty tough to be me.	Not like me.
31. Things are all mixed up in my life.	Not like me.
36. I can make up my mind and stick to it.	Like me.
37. I really don't like being a boy - girl.	Not like me.
38. I have a low opinion of myself.	Not like me.
43. I often feel ashamed of myself.	Not like me.
44. I'm not as nice looking as most people.	Not like me.

Table 10.--Continued

Item	Correct Response
45. If I have something to say, I usually say it.	Like me.
50. I don't care what happens to me.	Not like me.
51. I'm a failure.	Not like me.
52. I get upset easily when I'm scolded.	Not like me.
57. Things usually don't bother me.	Like me.
58. I can't be depended on.	Not like me.

the children attending either of the two schools administered as conventional schools.

Finding. In comparing the means of the three schools using two way analysis of variance and the Tukey Test on the subscale entitled "Social Self/Peers," differences found were not at the level of significance required for this study. However, the score of the school administered as open was higher than the scores of the two schools administered as conventional. School A<sub>1</sub> had a mean of 5.8; School A<sub>2</sub> had a mean of 5.1; School A<sub>3</sub> had a mean of 5.03. Items from the inventory from which the findings were derived are shown in Table 11.

Table 11. Items Comprising "Social Self/Peers," a Subscale of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory

Item	Correct Response
4. I'm easy to like.	Like me.
11. I'm a lot of fun to be with.	Like me.
18. I'm popular with kids my own age.	Like me.
25. I would rather play with children younger than me.	Not like me.
32. Kids usually follow my ideas.	Like me.
39. I don't like to be with other people.	Not like me.
46. Kids pick on me very often.	Not like me.
53. Most people are better liked than I am.	Not like me.

#### Hypothesis 4

The scores of children attending the school administered as an open school will be significantly higher on the subscale entitled "School-Academic" of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory than the scores of children attending either of the two schools administered as conventional.

Finding. In comparing the means of the three schools using two way analysis of variance and the Tukey Test on the subscale entitled "School-Academic," differences found were not at the .05 confidence level. However, the score of the school administered as an open school was higher than the scores of the two schools administered as conventional schools. School A<sub>1</sub> had a mean of 4.7; School A<sub>2</sub> had a mean of 4.15; School A<sub>3</sub> had a mean of 4.1. Items from the inventory from which the findings were derived are shown in Table 12.

#### Hypothesis 5

There will be no significant differences in the scores of children in the three schools on the subscale entitled "Home-Parents" of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory.

Finding. In comparing the means of the three schools using two way analysis of variance and the Tukey Test on the subscale entitled "Home-Parents," the hypothesis

Table 12. Items Comprising "School-Academic," a Subscale of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory

Item	Correct Response
7. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.	Not like me.
14. I'm proud of my school work.	Like me.
21. I'm doing the best work that I can.	Like me.
28. I like to be called on in class.	Like me.
35. I'm not doing as well in school as I'd like to.	Not like me.
42. I often feel upset in school.	Not like me.
49. My teacher makes me feel I'm not good enough.	Not like me.
56. I often get discouraged in school.	Not like me.

was verified. No statistically significant differences were found in the three means. School A<sub>1</sub> had 5.5; School A<sub>2</sub> had 5.4; School A<sub>3</sub> had 4.8. It was expected that Hypothesis 5 would show that the children in the three populations came to school with similar variations in self-concepts--that the homes in the three neighborhoods were acting much the same in this regard. Items from the inventory from which the findings were derived are shown in Table 13.

The first question posed in the study was "Does a school administered as an open school have a greater

Table 13. Items Comprising "Home-Parents," a Subscale of Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory

Item	Correct Response
5. My parents and I have a lot of fun together.	Like me.
12. I get upset easily at home.	Not like me.
19. My parents usually consider my feelings.	Like me.
26. My parents expect too much of me.	Not like me.
33. No one pays much attention to me at home.	Not like me.
40. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.	Not like me.
47. My parents understand me.	Like me.
54. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.	Not like me.

influence in helping children develop good self-images than the school administered as a conventional school?" It was answered in the affirmative by the data. Hypothesis 1 was verified as children attending the school administered as an open school showed a significantly higher level of self-concept than those attending the schools administered as conventional.

There was no clear answer to the second question, "Are some administrative practices linked more strongly with the production of positive self-concepts?" But some strong

tendencies show forth. Hypothesis 2 was partially verified. On the subtest, "General Self," the school administered as open was statistically significant at a higher level than one of the schools administered as conventional. The mean of the school administered as open was higher but not at a level of significance than the mean of the other school administered as conventional. Since more than half of the "General Self" items are related to the administrative characteristic of real life confrontation as contrasted with the use of rules, a strong indication is given that allowing children to solve life's problems in the school setting may be a strong factor in building positive self-concept.

Hypothesis 3 was not verified. On the subtest, "Social Self/Peers," whose items all deal with the kind of helping relationships that might be provided administratively, no statistically significant differences were found in the three schools. However, the mean of the school administered as an open school was higher than the means of the two schools administered as conventional schools. Some indication is thus given that the administrative practice of the open school which emphasizes helping relationships through cross-age grouping, team teaching and parent involvement might be helpful to the development of positive self-concepts.

Hypothesis 4 was not verified. On the sub-test, "School-Academic," in which five of the eight items relate to the kinds of teachers employed, no statistically

significant differences were found in the means of the three schools, but the mean of the school administered as open was higher than the means of the schools administered as conventional. Some indication is thus given that choosing teachers on the basis of their abilities to be accepting, warm, and loving and their beliefs in the open administrative practices here defined might be helpful to children in developing positive self-concepts. Since the items related to evaluation are scattered throughout three of the subtests, there is some support given to evaluating children on the basis of goals held by them, their teachers and parents rather than giving grades.

The general feeling about self becomes the most important factor in children's gaining positive self-concepts when compared to the relationships with peers and the school setting itself. This is due to the statistical significance found on the subtest, "General Self," between the school administered as an open school and one of the schools administered as conventional.

Hypothesis 5 was verified according to test data-- children in the three neighborhoods come to their respective schools with similar variations in positive self-concepts related to their home and parents.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the self-concepts of children who attended the same elementary schools four or more years. The children were from three schools similar in mobility rate, location in the city, cost of homes, size of schools and number of children on free lunch.

Using the observable administrative practices of the three schools, one school was designated as being administered as an open school and two were classified as being administered as conventional schools. This was verified by Mario Fantini's Alternatives on a Freedom-to-Prescription Continuum.

Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory was administered to qualifying children in the three schools. A random sample of seventy-nine children from each school was selected to be used in the study.

Two questions were posed. Does the school administered as an open school have a greater influence in helping children develop good self-images than the school administered as a conventional school? Are some administrative practices linked more strongly with the production of positive self-concepts than others?

In answer to the first question the total mean score of the school administered as an open school was significantly higher than the total score means of the two schools administered as conventional schools using two way analysis of variance.

Three subtests, "General Self," "Social Self/Peers," and "School-Academic" were analyzed separately using two way analysis of variance and the Tukey Test. This was an attempt to answer the second question. The fourth subtest, "Home-Parents," was analyzed by the same statistics to show that there were no significant differences as to the manner in which the homes in the three school neighborhoods affected self-concept.

On the subtest, "General Self," a significant difference was found between the school administered as an open school and one of the schools administered as a conventional school. On the subtests, "Social Self/Peers" and "School-Academic," there were no significant differences found. However, the scores of the school administered as an open school were consistently higher than those of the schools administered as conventional schools.

Since a statistically significant difference was found between the school administered as an open school and one of the schools administered as a conventional school on the subtest, "General Self," and since thirteen of the twenty-six items relate strongly to the administrative

characteristic of real life confrontation as contrasted with the use of rules, some indication is given that allowing children the opportunity to solve life's problems in the school setting may be a strong factor in building positive self-concept. Since no statistically significant differences were found in "Social Self/Peers" and "School-Academic," no definite conclusions could be drawn concerning the administrative characteristics relating to them. However, since the scores of the school administered as open were higher on these two subtests than both the schools administered as conventional, some importance can be given to the open school's administrative practices of emphasizing helping relationships through cross-age grouping, team teaching, and parent involvement and choosing teachers on the basis of their abilities to be accepting, warm and loving and their belief in the open administrative practices defined in this study in developing positive self-concepts in children.

Credence can also be given to evaluating children on the basis of goals rather than giving letter grades because test items related to this practice are spread throughout three of the subtests.

In determining the relative importance of the general feelings about self, the relationships with peers, and the school setting itself, the data give only a slight indication that general self might bear the greatest influence.

On the fourth subtest, "Home-Parents," no significant differences in the three schools were found. This supported the hypothesis that the children from the three neighborhoods came to school with similar variations in self-concepts.

Chapter II, the Review of the Literature, supports the idea that the development of positive self-concept depends on many factors--the physical appearance of the child, the kind of relationships and structure found in the home, the kinds of self-concept the parents possess, the child's school achievement, the values held by the child's social group, the child's history of successes, the child's power to produce effects, and the amount of respectful, accepting and concerned treatment the child experienced. These factors intermix and intertwine, so it will be impossible to pinpoint the degree to which each influences the total self. However, students in the school administered as an open school did show higher self-concepts than those in the schools administered as conventional schools on Coopersmith's Self-Concept Inventory.

This study supports the following conclusions:

1. Positive self-concepts can be better taught in the school administered as an open school than in the two schools administered as conventional schools.
2. The administrative practices of evaluating children on the basis of goals held for children by the

children themselves, parents and teachers using no letter grades; giving personal meaning to learning through choices of what and how to study; emphasizing helping relationships through cross-age grouping, team teaching, parent involvement; emphasizing real-life confrontation and problem solving; and choosing teachers on their abilities to be accepting, warm, loving and their beliefs in these aforementioned practices were linked to the production of positive self-concepts. The use of real life confrontation seemed to be the most important practice.

Recommendations of this study are as follows:

1. Implementation of the administrative practices of the open school be made in schools interested in building positive self-concepts.
2. Administrators particularly building principals be trained in the development and administration of open administrative practices as well as conventional.
3. Instruments be developed to measure self-concept which are appropriate for four and five year olds which are validated to some extent in open schools, and which are independent of the self-report of the child.

4. Instruments be constructed to distinguish more clearly the open and conventional school settings.
5. Longitudinal studies be made beginning when children enter school to distinguish the home's influence from the school's.

## APPENDIX A

### DESCRIPTION OF TESTS OF SELF-CONCEPT WHICH WERE EXAMINED BUT NOT CHOSEN FOR THIS STUDY

Fisher, John K., Department of Psychology, Edinboro State College, Edinboro, Pennsylvania 16412 (n.d.)

#### Self-Concept as a Learner (Elementary Scale)

This instrument was designed to assess a child's views of himself as a class member, a task-oriented individual, a problem solver, and a motivated individual. There are no items related to the feelings about home and parents, but many of the items could be related to administrative practices.

This test is appropriate for intermediate aged children and can be administered to groups. Its results correlate "fairly well" with the California Test of Personality, but it has not been validated. Norms have not been determined, but means and standard deviations from past uses of the test are available.

Frymier, Jack R., College of Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210 (n.d.)

#### Faces Scale

This experimental instrument was designed to measure self-concept and motivation in elementary school aged children. The two forms contain eighteen questions each about the child's feelings toward family, school, friends, and self. It may be administered to groups. The items would be difficult to relate to administrative practices.

No data as to reliability and validity were available.

Gordon, Ira J., College of Education, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida 33601 (n.d.)

#### How I See Myself

This is designed to measure self-concept and is appropriate for elementary school children. The test items are school-related and get at feelings the child has about his own actions and looks in that setting. There are no items which relate directly to home and parents, and it would be difficult to relate the items to administrative practices.

Normative data were developed for six groups of students in which by using factorial analysis, twelve facets of self-concept were identified. Reliability of the factors was .80, but no validity was established.

Parker, James, Department of Education, Georgia Southern College, Statesboro, Georgia (n.d.)

#### About Me

This instrument measures five areas of self-concept relative to behavior in the school environment: the self, the self in relation to others, the self as achieving, the self in school, and the physical self. It is designed for intermediate grade pupils and can be administered in groups. No normative or statistical data were available as to the reliability or validity of this test. The test items could be related to some of the administrative practices.

Reckless, Walter, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210 (n.d.)

#### THE WAY IT LOOKS TO ME--THE O.S.U. DELINQUENCY PROJECT'S SELF-CONCEPT INSTRUMENT

This inventory is not a measure for assessing individuals; it gives a directional indication for specified groups for example the high socioeconomic students as compared with low socioeconomic students. Its items could be related to some of the administrative practices.

It is most appropriate for twelve to fourteen year olds and may be administered in groups. Normative and statistical data were not available.

## APPENDIX B

### COOPERSMITH'S (1967) SELF-CONCEPT INVENTORY\*

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

There are two forms of the Self-Esteem Inventory: A contains 58 items and a total of five subscales, B contains 25 items and no subscales. Form A provides a general assessment of self-esteem which may be broken down into component subscales depending on the goals and interest of the tester but which may also be used without such differentiation. Form B is briefer, does not permit further differentiation, and takes about half the administration time of Form A. The total scores of Forms A and B correlate .86, a finding which has been established to a markedly similar extent on four different samples. This is not surprising since Form D was based on an item analysis of Form A and includes those twenty-five items which showed the highest item-total score relationships of scores obtained with Form A. Validating information is presented in Coopersmith's monograph The Antecedents of Self-Esteem (Freeman, San Francisco, 1967).

Form A: 58 items

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

General Self	Items 1, 2, 3, 8, 9, 10, 15, 15, 16, 17, 22, 23, 24, 29, 30, 31, 36, 37, 38, 43, 44, 45, 50, 51, 52, 57, 58
Social Self-Peers	Items 4, 11, 18, 25, 32, 39, 46, 53
Home-Parents	Items 5, 12, 19, 26, 33, 40, 47, 54
Lie Scale	Items 6, 13, 20, 27, 34, 41, 48, 55

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School-Academic

Items 7, 14, 21, 28, 35, 42,  
49, 56

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

The scores are reported as:

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

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

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

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

#### Form B

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

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. _____		

	<u>LIKE ME</u>	<u>UNLIKE ME</u>
17. I'm often sorry for the things I do.		
18. I'm popular with kids my own age.		
19. My parents usually consider my feelings.		
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.		

	<u>LIKE ME</u>	<u>UNLIKE ME</u>
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.		
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

LIST OF RAW SCORES FROM COOPERSMITH'S  
SELF-CONCEPT INVENTORY

<u>Student</u>	<u>General Self</u>	<u>Social Self</u>	<u>School</u>	<u>Home-Parents</u>
<u>School A<sub>1</sub>:</u>				
01	14	4	5	4
02	23	7	6	7
03	23	4	6	7
04	20	5	4	5
05	17	6	4	7
06	19	3	8	7
07	18	7	5	5
08	19	7	6	8
09	24	6	5	5
10	19	6	5	8
11	20	8	4	6
12	21	7	4	6
13	17	5	4	4
14	10	4	6	3
15	25	8	6	8
16	26	7	7	8
17	18	6	5	5
18	13	5	6	6
19	8	1	3	3
20	20	5	3	6
21	21	7	6	8
22	18	6	3	6
23	9	2	3	3
24	16	5	4	3
25	19	2	3	6
26	18	8	6	5
27	25	7	5	8
28	19	6	3	6
29	18	8	4	7
30	22	7	4	6
31	20	5	6	6
32	25	8	6	8
33	24	8	6	8
34	18	5	3	4
35	20	7	7	6
36	19	6	7	7

<u>Student</u>	<u>General Self</u>	<u>Social Self</u>	<u>School</u>	<u>Home-Parents</u>
37	12	6	4	4
38	20	5	7	7
39	22	8	5	4
40	20	7	5	6
41	14	7	4	4
42	19	7	6	5
43	17	5	2	6
44	14	3	1	2
45	11	3	3	5
46	13	6	6	7
47	21	3	7	4
48	21	6	7	5
49	20	8	5	7
50	21	7	6	8
51	23	7	6	8
52	19	8	5	7
53	17	5	2	2
54	16	6	7	5
55	18	7	7	7
56	15	5	4	3
57	13	6	2	2
58	16	6	4	7
59	18	6	5	5
60	19	7	5	7
61	18	7	6	7
62	23	5	4	7
63	22	7	5	2
64	15	3	3	7
65	19	8	6	8
66	12	4	3	4
67	23	8	4	8
68	22	7	5	7
69	18	4	5	4
70	15	3	3	5
71	18	4	6	7
72	10	4	3	5
73	17	6	6	3
74	20	6	7	5
75	16	7	3	3
76	15	6	1	3
77	20	4	5	5
78	20	7	3	0
79	22	7	3	5

School A<sub>2</sub>:

1	21	8	7	6
2	20	5	3	5
3	14	3	4	5

<u>Student</u>	<u>General Self</u>	<u>Social Self</u>	<u>School</u>	<u>Home-Parents</u>
4	21	2	2	2
5	12	3	5	4
6	15	5	2	6
7	17	8	7	7
8	16	4	3	5
9	22	6	7	4
10	22	7	7	7
11	10	3	3	5
12	18	5	4	5
13	18	4	8	5
14	16	6	4	4
15	23	8	6	8
16	24	6	5	8
17	21	7	5	7
18	8	1	2	2
19	17	8	5	8
20	23	7	4	4
21	24	8	8	7
22	16	4	5	6
23	14	4	6	3
24	19	7	1	6
25	13	4	5	7
26	15	7	6	6
27	17	8	7	7
28	9	3	1	6
29	21	7	5	8
30	22	6	6	7
31	25	8	8	4
32	22	6	5	8
33	18	4	3	4
34	7	4	2	2
35	23	4	6	6
36	14	2	3	6
37	13	3	3	0
38	16	6	5	6
39	21	7	4	7
40	19	4	3	6
41	17	5	5	6
42	20	6	5	8
43	21	4	2	8
44	18	6	5	6
45	18	7	4	4
46	22	5	4	8
47	21	8	5	4
48	19	4	2	6
49	16	2	4	5
50	18	6	3	5
51	17	4	3	8
52	19	2	2	5

<u>Student</u>	<u>General Self</u>	<u>Social Self</u>	<u>School</u>	<u>Home-Parents</u>
53	10	5	3	6
54	17	5	4	5
55	21	6	5	6
56	19	5	3	7
57	19	4	5	5
58	15	7	3	3
59	19	6	7	7
60	15	4	2	7
61	16	3	5	4
62	13	4	4	5
63	17	3	5	4
64	5	2	1	1
65	12	3	3	2
66	17	7	2	3
67	19	6	3	8
68	17	4	2	4
69	18	7	3	5
70	17	6	5	7
71	11	3	3	6
72	10	3	5	5
73	17	7	5	8
74	18	8	4	5
75	10	3	2	3
76	13	3	3	3
77	19	8	4	5
78	16	5	6	7
79	21	6	2	6

School A<sub>3</sub>:

1	18	7	4	6
2	19	6	5	7
3	16	6	5	5
4	15	5	4	7
5	15	6	3	2
6	12	2	3	1
7	17	6	5	6
8	17	8	4	8
9	22	6	3	5
10	17	4	5	5
11	16	6	5	3
12	18	5	5	5
13	17	7	3	5
14	14	6	1	4
15	11	4	3	4
16	21	7	7	6
17	15	6	1	7
18	14	3	2	5
19	19	6	3	4

<u>Student</u>	<u>General Self</u>	<u>Social Self</u>	<u>School</u>	<u>Home-Parents</u>
20	4	3	2	3
21	23	3	6	8
22	22	7	5	7
23	20	1	3	1
24	12	4	2	4
25	13	6	4	7
26	12	2	4	1
27	17	4	6	2
28	21	5	6	8
29	24	6	5	6
30	16	4	3	8
31	13	8	6	6
32	22	5	5	6
33	20	4	6	6
34	12	6	2	2
35	21	4	3	3
36	19	6	4	5
37	12	5	4	2
38	19	6	5	6
39	20	1	5	8
40	15	7	4	6
41	18	6	8	2
42	21	7	6	4
43	23	6	7	6
44	18	5	2	6
45	18	2	4	3
46	20	4	6	4
47	15	5	3	6
48	10	6	4	2
49	13	3	2	2
50	16	5	4	2
51	16	5	4	5
52	21	6	5	3
53	18	5	3	2
54	17	6	2	7
55	19	6	2	8
56	20	2	3	3
57	19	7	6	7
58	12	5	4	4
59	20	4	4	5
60	11	2	2	4
61	13	6	2	2
62	13	6	2	5
63	13	2	3	3
64	16	5	5	3
65	8	3	1	4
66	14	5	2	5
67	13	5	3	4
68	17	5	5	3

<u>Student</u>	<u>General Self</u>	<u>Social Self</u>	<u>School</u>	<u>Home-Parents</u>
69	16	5	3	7
70	23	6	4	7
71	18	6	5	6
72	21	4	5	7
73	17	8	3	6
74	16	4	5	5
75	19	4	8	4
76	14	6	3	8
77	21	6	8	7
78	13	5	2	7
79	16	7	6	5

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