



1978

## Perceived Self-Presentation of Institutionalized Adolescents as Evaluated by Significant Others

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PERCEIVED SELF-PRESENTATION OF INSTITUTIONALIZED  
ADOLESCENTS AS EVALUATED BY  
SIGNIFICANT OTHERS

by

Larry W. McCauley

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School  
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirement for the Degree of  
Doctor of Education

May

1978

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Special thanks are due to my major advisor and dissertation director, Dr. Joy Rogers, who has been a continuing source of encouragement as well as an excellent academic model.

The author wishes to thank the other members of the dissertation committee: Dr. Jack Kavanagh, Dr. Steve Miller, and Dr. Pedro Saavedra.

Additional thanks goes to Mr. James V. Browning, superintendent of the Baptist Children's Home in Oklahoma City, without whose assistance this research would have been considerably more difficult.

I wish to express my gratitude to my wife, Helene, whose patience and understanding helped make this all possible.

## VITA

The author, Larry W. McCauley, was raised at the Baptist Children's Home in Oklahoma City. He was born February 29, 1944.

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CHAPTER I  
INTRODUCTION

Background

Institutionalization may cause people to assume circumscribed social roles. This possibility has not been widely researched and the behavior of institutionalized persons has, apparently, been attributed to such factors as intellectual retardation (Zigler and Williams, 1963); social maladjustment (Bieri, 1953); and external circumstances (Ricardo, 1972). Obviously the effects of institutionalization need to be considered in interpreting the role specific behavior of the institutionalized child. The difficulty of studying the behavior of institutionalized children is, then, compounded by the complexity of the institutionalization variable and the dearth of information concerning effects of institutionalization on the behavior of the child. For example, Sarson and Gladwin (1958) argue that there has been little systematic investigation of the nature and effects of institutionalization. One of the factors that can be investigated is how institutionalized children present themselves in all facets of their environment. A question that can be raised is, "Do children present themselves differently inside the institution

than they do on the outside"? Goffman (1953); Bieri (1953); and Zigler, Balla and Watson (1972), contend that people do, in fact, present themselves differently in many areas of life.

### Definition of Terms

For the reader to understand more fully the specific population with which the author is dealing, clarification of terms is important. The following terms are those which are most critical to this study.

Institution: When the term "institution" is used, the writer is referring to children who are living in a children's home and are not diagnosed as being mental, emotional, or behavioral deviants. These children are products of divorced or separated parents, orphaned, and/or subjected to some abuse (Edmiston and Baird, 1949). Goffman (1961a) says that the term institution can have many meanings. He places "total institutions" into five categories. His last category, "institutions established to help pursue some worklike tasks: army barracks, work camps, boarding schools", is most relevant to the present study. The specific institution that is being used by this researcher is called the Baptist Children's Home located in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. It is an institution operated and supported by the Southern Baptist

Convention, an affiliate of the Oklahoma Baptist Convention.

Presentation of Self: The term "presentation of self" will be used in two ways: (1) how the children see themselves in relation to the peers and adults in their environment, and (2) how others see the institutionalized child in relation to how they see other non-institutionalized children of the same age and sex.

#### Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this research is to determine if institutionalized children present themselves differently inside the institution than they do outside the institution.

The importance of this study is reflected in the lack of available research on institutionalized adolescents (Sarason and Gladwin, 1958), even though considerable research concern has been shown toward the institutionalized infant (Sherman and Key, 1932; Tizard and Tizard, 1940; Bowlby, 1952).

From the early 1930's to the late 1950's, infants were institutionalized, for the most part, until maturity. However, adoption was a way out of the long term institutional setting. Today the emphasis is on alleviating long term institutionalization. Today the most com-

prehensive material available is contained in the report to the 1970 White House Conference on Children. This conference was the culmination of a major effort to review the conditions of children, to recommend programs, and up-date policies for the coming years. The Child Welfare League of America concluded in a study that child welfare services on the whole are fragmented, uncoordinated, and not readily available to those in need. Statistics on children from broken homes are just one indicator of the resultant confusion. For example, Kelly and Wallerstein (1975) write:

"In 1974, more than a million children in the United States below the age of eighteen were affected by the divorce of their parents. A steady rise in divorce from 2.2 per 1000 population in 1962 to a 4.6 per 1000 in 1974, is a national trend that shows no sign of diminishing." (p. 20)

The present trend of increasing family separation resulting in growing adolescent displacement and institutionalization presents a new and present challenge to researchers. This challenge is to discover how adolescents react to an institutional lifestyle. How do they perceive themselves and subsequently present themselves to others?

Duck (1973) and Wender and Wiggins (1964) have conducted studies on peer evaluation within institutions.

Their conclusions show that a child has to establish a new orientation within the institution in order to be accepted effectively outside the institution. Bem and Allen (1974) concur with the above findings in their research efforts on cross-situational consistencies in behavior. Youngleson (1953), Provence and Lipton (1962), Zimbardo and Formica (1963) have compared institutionalized children with non-institutionalized children with regard to need to affiliate. These studies showed that institutionalized children manifest a less positive self-concept. It was concluded that social deprivation which is characteristic of institutionalized children (Freud, 1951), leads through a fear of rejection to an increase in affiliation motivation and, because of a poor socializing environment, a reduction in self-concept.

#### Limitations of the Study

Closely related to the idea of self-presentation is self-concept. Because there is no way that everything about the personal self can be communicated to others, self-concept is a very difficult concept to investigate or explain.

A major problem among researchers and psychologists who study self-development has been agreement about a definition of self. Without a clear, consensual de-

definition, scientific progress is impossible. The problem of defining self is not yet solved. One major disagreement has centered on "self as object" versus "self as process" (Hall and Lindzey, 1970).

When one talks about self as object, he deals with a person's attitudes, perceptions, feelings, and evaluation of himself as an object-what a person knows and thinks about himself.

A process orientation to self is different in that the self is considered an amalgam of active processes of thinking, perceiving and remembering.

To illustrate the definitional problems still further, a standard dictionary of psychological terms gives seven different definitions of self (English and English, 1970).

When the definition of a construct is difficult, the desired measurement of the construct is even more difficult or impossible. Measurement is difficult enough even when a definition is conceptually clear. Most of the current techniques of "measuring self" involve self-ratings or self-descriptions. Occasionally, ratings of an individual by other people such as teachers or peers are used. There are two clear problems with the measures that have been used for self. First, many

investigators devise their own measure of the self since they have a unique definition of the construct. This means that the results from their research are not comparable.

A second problem has been the value-ridden nature of many self-concept measures. In one frequently used measure, a maximum score for self-concept is obtained if a child or youth rates himself at the highest end of the scale for seven dimensions; smart, happy, well liked, brave, attractive, strong, and obedient (Carpenter and Busse, 1965; Engel and Raine, 1963; Long, Henderson, and Ziller, 1968). From such a measure, we are likely to obtain a measure of social desirability (how accurately the rater know social norms about desirable behaviors and the degree to which he espouses them) as we are a measure of self concept. Adolescents describing themselves are likely to mention only those characteristics they believe will place them in a favorable position or bring approval from other people. Willingness to be frank and honest is another problem. Because of these and other problems, including the definition of self-concept, some researchers have given up on the whole area of study (Wylie, 1961). However, there does appear to be consensus that a construct of self-concept is useful.



Since the self-concept is a useful construct and since it appears important to personal happiness and development, a number of attempts have been made to investigate and measure it (Cattell, Coan, and Bel-off, 1958; Arnhoff, Leon, 1963; Walton, Foulds, and Littmann, 1970).

In most educational examinations of self-concept, a distinction is made between self-concept and inferred self-concept. Gordon (1966), defines self-concept as the "organization of all the child's biological and environmental experiences as he interpreted them into one highly organized, highly integrated, multifaceted system" (p. 13). Self-concept, then, is that portion of the self-system of which the child is most aware, is the product of all his interactions at a particular point in time, and determines his behavior (Kelly, 1955). As the child grows, different parts of the self-concept and experiences change in relative importance. During the course of normal development, as maturity is gained, behavior in general becomes better organized and more stable (McCandless and Trotter, 1977). So it is with an individual's self-concept. As knowledge about oneself is acquired, including insights concerning one's relative strengths and limitations with regard to various

activities and traits, certain expectations come about and are reflected in estimates of what one can or cannot do.

Use of the term self-concept is restricted to a person's report of self (Combs, Soper, and Courson, 1963; Parker, 1966). Inferred self-concept is another's attribution of a person's self-concept (Shavelson, Huber, and Stranton, 1976). Inferences can be made from behavior to self-concept. Three facets of the self can be identified along with corresponding behaviors from which inferences may be made: self as revealed from self-report, self as inferred from observation, and self as inferred from projective tests (Gordon, 1966).

For the purpose of this paper, the author will maintain the distinction between self-concept and inferred self-concept and focus, primarily, on the latter. Because inferences exist, many crucial facts lie beyond the time and place of interaction or lie concealed within it. For example, the "true" or "real" attitudes, beliefs, and emotions of the individual can be ascertained only indirectly through his avowels or through what appears to be involuntary expressive behavior (Goffman, 1959). One's perceptions of himself are thought to influence the way in which he acts, and in turn influence

the way in which he perceives himself and how others see him (Goffman, 1961b; Kelly, 1955).

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In the following chapter "disadvantaged children" are arbitrarily defined as ones who see themselves as having little to contribute to their immediate surroundings or to society as a whole. Further, an attempt will be made to establish that institutionalized children are "disadvantaged" due to several factors: 1) They are living in a group setting: 2) there is less direct parenting therefore less affection given to each individual child: 3) a variety of different care-takers: 4) most of the children come from a low socio-economic background: 5) all have no traditional home life.

A more in-depth look at the reasons for the above five factors will give a clearer understanding of the disadvantaged child.

1) They are living in a group setting: Freud and Dann (1951) report on a study they conducted with six young children that were victims of the Hitler regime. The children's parents were deported to Poland and killed in the gas chambers. During the children's first year of life their experiences differed; they arrived individually, at ages varying from approximately six to

to twelve months, in the concentration camp of Tereszin. With meager scraps of information that Freud and Dann could put together they were able to establish certain relevant facts concerning the children's early history.

(i) "that four of them lost their mothers at birth or immediately afterward; one before the age of twelve months, one at an unspecified date;

(ii) that, after the loss of their mothers, all the children wandered for some time from place to place, with several complete changes in adult environment;

(iii) that none of the children had know any other circumstances of life than those of a group setting. They were ignorant of the meaning of "family";

(iv) that none of the children had experienced a normal life outside a camp or big institution." (p. 130)

The children's positive feelings centered exclusively within their own peer group. It was obvious that they cared for each other and not at all for outsiders. Their main wish was to be kept together and they would become upset when they were separated from each other, even for short periods of time. This insistence on being inseparable made it almost impossible to treat the children as individuals or to vary their lives according to their

special needs. This appears to be a loss of individuality on the part of the children.

Likewise, a study by Tars (1970) focuses upon the ways in which a child reacts to the different milieus of home and institutions, and upon the consequences these particular environmental transactions may have for child development and behavior. An important factor that Tars (1970) discusses in her findings is the lack of privacy. The lack of privacy available in the institution, as compared to home, seemed to have multiple ramifications for the child's experiences, affecting his ability to control his life, the development of relationships with others, and the nature of coping alternatives available. A number of changes in behavior related to the lack of privacy in the institution seemed to carry over to the home environment, even though greater opportunities were available then.

2) There is less parenting therefore less affection given to each individual child: Researchers have found that the infant's development is greatly affected by the environment (Craig, 1976). If the environment is responsive to the child's needs and skills, and if stimulation is timed slightly ahead of a child's developmental level, an acceleration of the developmental process can be achieved with the normal child. When a child is de-

prived of stimulation and is subjected to an environment that is unresponsive, (i.e. institution) he will be retarded in his social and emotional development (Bowlby, 1960) as well as his perceptual development (Yarrow, Rubenstien, Pedersen, and Jankowski, 1972).

3) A variety of different caretakers: When a child is cared for by a variety of different people, and when only his most basic physical needs are being met, he is unable to develop an attachment relationship. The mutual response between child and primary caretaker do not occur consistently; the social interaction that permits expression of emotion is missing (Bowlby, 1960; Dennis, 1973; Spitz, 1966). The result is profound apathy, withdrawal, and generally depressed functioning, all of which have long-term consequences of inadequate personality development.

Also, Freud and Dann (1951) refer to a letter sent to them regarding the "war orphans". Martha Wenger, an institutional worker, says: "I can very well understand that the Tereszin children (Tereszin is the town in which the orphanage was located) have been very difficult on arrival, and are still difficult to handle. There is something wrong with each of them, difficulties which would have been straightened out if they had had a normal life. In Tereszin everybody tried to work as little as

possible to make up for the lack of proper nourishment. In the Ward of Motherless Children (where the children were residing at the time of this letter) there was always too much work and too few people to help me. Besides looking after the children we had to see to their clothes, etc., which took time. We looked after the bodily welfare of the children as well as possible, kept them free of vermin for three years, and we fed them as well as possible under the circumstances. But it was not possible to attend to their other needs. Actually, we did not have the time to play with them.." (p. 130).

Children who have relatively exclusive relationships with a parent tend to show an intense stranger anxiety and separation anxiety. They also show these anxieties at an earlier age than do infants whose relationships with the care taker has not been exclusive (Ainsworth, 1967). If a child spends almost 24 hours a day with the parent, sleeping in the same room at night and being carried in a sling on the parent's back during the day, the intensity of the separation reaction is likely to be dramatic. On the other hand, the child who has experienced a number of different care takers from birth on tends to accept strangers or separation with much less anxiety (Maccoby and Feldman, 1972).

If a child develops a schema for the familiar, then



the infant whose immediate environment includes only the parent would find any other figure discrepant and therefore anxiety producing. The infant to whom a variety of people are familiar, however, will be less anxious about seeing yet another face.

4) Most come from a low socio-economic background: Being reared in a poor part of town under disadvantaged conditions and being subjected to a life-style that is looked down upon by the majority of society would also be expected to produce a low self-esteem, but this may not be the case. Studies conducted by Coopersmith (1967) have found significant differences in self-acceptance favoring disadvantaged children. In that study lower class children scored higher in self-esteem than middle class children at all ages, of both sexes, in black and other races, and in rural as well as urban areas. The lower-class children tend to be comfortable with their peers, were easy to like, and saw themselves as popular. The middle-class children did not think as much of themselves, especially in terms of school. They tend to think that teachers perceived them as less able than they thought they were. One reason for these feelings, according to the researchers, may be that lower-class children have

a lower level of ambition than middle-class children and therefore are happy with their level of achievement and place in life. Middle-class children have usually been taught that school is important, meaningful, and relevant; and they may lose self-esteem when they do not achieve success. Another reason may be that lower-class children are forced to develop a strong self-concept in order to protect themselves in a middle-class environment.

The author considers the terms socio-economic class, social status, and social class as virtually synonymous, more purist writers often make distinctions. The most usual factors that are included in the socio-economic equation or index are the level of education of the heads of the family, the father's or mother's occupation, the characteristics of the part of town and the house in which one lives, and the source of the family income. The higher the level of parents' education, the higher the social class. The more education required for the occupation, the more prestige the occupation usually possesses in the community.

It is fashionable today to talk about poverty as opposed to affluent or advantaged cultures, rather than to use the terms such as upper-middle, middle, or lower class. However, income alone is only partly a deter-

minant of social prestige and power (McCandless and Evans, 1973).

As a general rule in America, the higher one's respectable income, the more his power and prestige. There is also a commonality among all the cultures of the poor: truly inadequate incomes, whether respectable or nonrespectable, overwhelm families and whole communities such that the joy of life can scarcely be experienced at all (Miller, 1970).

On the whole, children from poor families do not test as high on IQ tests, do not learn as well in school, may be more impulsive and less self-critical than children from affluent families (Warner, Meeker, and Eells, 1949). Moreover, children from poor families may have lower self-esteem, may tend less to plan ahead, are less likely to believe they are masters of their own destinies (McCandless and Evans, 1973).

Over all, however, higher socio-economic status is associated with developmental advantages that are observable as early as the first and second years of life (Douvan and Adelson, 1966; Golden, Birns, and Moss, 1971).

5) All have no current traditional (intact) family: Song's (1969) research of 100 subjects born in the United

States concluded that children from intact homes would show a relatively higher self-concept, self-acceptance, and ideal-self score. He stated that love and affection are indispensable in development of positive and accurate self-concept variables. Children from broken homes lack these essential ingredients. Likewise, McDermott (1970) reported on a study designed to (a) examine statistically the characteristics of children from divorced families seen at a university children's psychiatric hospital, (b) relate these characteristics to the divorced experience, (c) follow immediate reactions into later changes in character development, and (d) relate family disruption to an aspect for psychosocial disturbances in delinquent children. Data from intake records of 1487 children up to age 14 indicated that 116 were from divorced parents, 1349 from legally intact parents, and 22 from parents who were separated but not divorced. Results suggested that reactions to the divorced experience persist in the subjects for some time. The largest subgroup showed a subclinical depressive period after the divorce. A high correlation was noted between S's symptoms and his image of the absent parent, suggesting identification with the parent as a method of dealing with the loss.

Thus, institutionalized children appear to conform

to the definition of disadvantaged children.

It is not this writer's intent to explore fully the areas of self-esteem, mental retardation, affiliation, and advantaged versus disadvantaged children. However, since most of the peripheral literature deals with these areas it is important to see how such areas relate to the institutionalized child.

Studies by Soares and Soares (1969, 1970 a, b), showed that the disadvantaged child did, in fact, see himself as one who had little to contribute to his immediate surroundings or to society. Kenneth Clark (1963), conducted further research which suggested that black children, some as young as three years old, felt that being black was not a good thing. These children rejected black dolls in favor of white ones, saying that white dolls were prettier and generally superior. These choices were taken as an indication of low self-concept among black children. In the late 1950's studies of racial preferences of children continued to show black children choosing white dolls and rejecting black ones (Ausubel, 1958). From various studies, such as the ones by Clark and Ausubel, it was concluded that black children in the United States had damaged self-concepts because they were black instead of white.

In the 1970's the situation seems to have changed. Self-concept measurements of black children who have grown up since the early 1960's show a different picture. In one study 60 boys and girls between the ages of seven and eight years of age were tested (Clark and Clark, 1974). Thirty were from middle-class suburban schools; thirty others were from a lower-class inner-city school. Each was administered a self-esteem test and then questioned about a black and white doll. Unlike the earlier studies, this one found that more black children preferred the black doll. There were no significant sex or social class differences. It is possible, concluded the researchers, that the relationship between self-esteem and racial preferences may signify a new spirit of dignity in the lives of the black children.

Furthermore, Carter (1968) found that Mexican-American youths in one area of California did not perceive themselves more negatively than their Anglo-Saxon peers. On the contrary, it is the Anglo-Saxon group which perceives Mexican-Americans in negative ways and so assumes that disadvantaged youths see themselves in the same light (c.f. DeBlasie, 1970). Carter (1968) concluded that Mexican-Americans have their own peer groups to which they relate; therefore, they do not rate themselves on their standings in "Anglo" society

and so do not have a negative self-concept. Greenberg, Gerver, Cahal, and Davidson (1965) found similiar results in a severely deprived environment in New York, as did Soares and Soares (1969a) among segragated disadvantaged elementary school children in Connecticut.

Another significant research trend is the reflection of the re-emphasis on non-cognitive outcomes of education. There has been a sharp increase in the number of studies on self-concept (Collier, 1971; Purkey, 1970; Yamamoto, 1972; Zirkel, 1971). Likewise, this shift shows concern with enhancing the child's self-concept. According to Zirkel (1971), "It has become increasingly clear in the light of the schools' attempt to serve the disadvantaged that the schools have a fundamental responsibilitiy to enhance the self-concept of their students (p. 211)," (c.f. Clark, 1963; Marston, 1968; and Tannenbaum, 1967) Therefore, improvement of the child's self-concept seems to be valued as an educational outcome in its own right (Shavelson, Huber, and Stanton, 1976). However, Stanwych (1972) is quick to point out evidence that the schools do not meet the problem of enhancing self-concept. As a group, elementary school children have difficulty maintaining positive self-concepts after they enter the school situation (Felker, 1974)." The research by Stanwych (1972) goes on to show that on the self-concept total

score and factors, all students showed a sharp drop from grade two to grade four: increases followed for all tests through grade eight for boys, except the My School Self, and through grade seven for girls except for My School Self. Girls' scores generally dropped from grade seven to grade eight. High self-concept was found to have been related to self-responsibility for success experiences and for failure experiences: there was no significant differences by sex on locus of control. Girls were found to have been significantly more anxious than boys in all grades, and anxiety was significantly more related to self-concept level at all ages.

The enhancement of each child's self-concept is widely considered to be important either as an educational outcome or as a moderator of achievement.

Another aspect of self-concept studies is that most examine intercorrelations between self-concepts and other constructs (Bixler, 1965; Gelfand, 1963; Trickett, 1969) or differences in mean self-concept scores between different populations of children or changes in self-concept due to some treatment (e.g. Long, Ziller, and Henderson, 1968; Ludwig and Maehar, 1967; Zirkel, 1971, 1972). Taken individually, they often provide important insights into the factors that motivate students in and out of school



and into alternative courses of action that may enhance students' self-concepts (e.g. Purkey, 1970; Yamamoto, 1972).

Further research pertinent to self-presentation is presented by Goffman (1959). Goffman defines the term upward mobility as involving proper presentation. For example, an institutionalized child is expected to meet certain expectations of that institution to improve his standing with members of the institution (Soares and Soares, 1970b). The hypothesis is that higher expectations on the part of the authorities may account for some of the higher achievement or adjustments of the institutionalized child. This is reflected in research and can be supported by the "self-fulfilling prophecy", or as it is sometimes called "the Pygmalion Effect" (Rosenthal, 1966). Robert Rosenthal, (1968), defines self-fulfilling prophecy as the "tendency of one person's prediction of another's behavior to somehow come true." If a parent or teacher communicates the expectation that a child will do well in some activity, for example, the child may sense this and make an effort to do well. Conversely, if a parent or teacher causes a child to feel incapable, the expectation may be fulfilled, even though the child has a considerable amount of ability (Rosenthal and Jacobsen, 1968).

Evidence provided by Theodore X. Barber and M. J. Silver (1968), is damaging to Rosenthal's emphasis on the impact of expectation. They analyzed a large number of studies on the "Experimenter bias effect" and concluded that the majority of them did not show the effect. Barber and five colleagues (1968) made five attempts to replicate the EBE and failed. In addition, William L. Claiborn (1968), Jean Jose and J. J. Cody (1971), and Elyse S. Fleming and Ralph Anttonen (1971) reported an attempt to confirm Rosenthal's findings but failed. However, Rosenthal (1969) argued that the studies of Barber were not exact replications of his work. Furthermore, Eleanor Leacock (1969), Alfred Shaw (1969), D. H. Miechenbaum, K. S. Bower, and R. P. Ross (1969), Myron Rothbast, Susan Dalfen, and Robert Barrett (1971), found evidence that confirmed some aspects of the Pygmalion study.

These conflicting studies prompted the publication of Pygmalion Reconsidered (1971), edited by Janet Elashoff and Richard Snow. It consists of a lengthy critique by the editors, a review of studies on teacher expectation, six reviews of Pygmalion in the Classroom, a reply to the Elashoff and Snow critique by Rosenthal entitled "Pygmalion Reaffirmed", and reply by Elashoff

and Snow to Rosenthal's reply.

Even though there is reason to question some of the current data upon which the Pygmalion effect is based, it seems likely that expectation and self-fulfilling prophecy have a significant effect on some children. J. P. Baker and Janet Crist (1971), who did the review of the research included in "Pygmalion Reconsidered," concluded "the question for the future is not whether there are expectancy effects, but how do they operate in school situations" (p. 64). Perhaps the most prudent course is to remain aware that a high or low expectation implanted by test scores, grades, or stereotypes about certain children may lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy if a child is treated as if he is less or more capable of producing than his peers.

Erikson (1963) points out that children gain their first experiences with life outside the home when they enter school. Likewise, Fire (1969), in his research supports the hypothesis that accuracy of self-concept increases with age. In addition, Mateject (1972) reports relatively greatest adjustment difficulties were encountered in children of lower school age coming from children's homes (institutions). These children also showed the greatest lack of social experience and aptitude for establishing contact with adults.

Children who have relatively exclusive relationships with a parent tend to show an intense stranger anxiety and separation anxiety. They also show these anxieties at an earlier age than do infants whose relationships with the caretaker has not been exclusive (Ainsworth, 1967).

Other research shows that being uprooted and placed into a new environment causes many psychological problems (Tizard and Tizard, 1974), which may include damaged self-concept. K. H. Tennes and E. E. Lampl (1964) observed and noted infant behavior and concluded that stranger anxiety reached a peak at seven to nine months. In one study of stranger anxiety, M. Lewis and J. Brooks Gunn (1972) exposed seven to nineteen month old children to strange adults at close range and at a distance. They found that strange adults who came close to the children were quite likely to arouse a fear response, but if adult strangers remained at a distance, no sign of fear appeared. Harriet L. Rheingold (1969) took ten month old babies and placed them in a strange environment with their mothers, with a stranger, with toys, or with no external material. When the babies were with their mothers, they were content. In all of the other situations, they began to cry. This behavior might be interpreted with reference to Piaget's theory: stranger anxiety may occur

because children from six to ten months have developed schemes to account for the limited environment in which they exist (Piaget, 1952).

### Early Direct Studies

A reason for studying infant development is that much later learning appears to be based upon early learning (Sheppard and Willoughby, 1975). Indeed, some authorities on early experiences, for example, Hebb, (1949, 1958) consider much of adult learning as transfer of behaviors learned in early childhood. This means that the new and more complex responses of an adult are viewed as a combination of "old" responses learned early in life. Hebb's stance on the importance of early learning is evident in the following quotation from one of his writings:

The learning that normally occurs during infancy, therefore, is prerequisite to the learning capacity with which we all are familiar in the adult; that is, adult learning essentially consists, to a large degree, of transfer from the learning of infancy (1955, p. 144).

Further studies and direct observations of the ill effects of complete deprivation of maternal care on young children have been made by a large number of pediatricians, psychologists, and child psychiatrists and have shown that the development of the child may be affected intellectually, socially, emotionally, and physically.

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Further studies and direct observations of the ill effects of complete deprivation of maternal care on young children have been made to a large number of pediatricians, psychologists, and child psychiatrists and have shown that the development of the child may be effected intellectually, socially, emotionally, and physically. For most children the ages of most vulnerability are under seven years old. Some of the effects are clearly discernable within the first few weeks of life (Bowlby, 1952). Ribble, (1943) and Bakwin (1949) have given detailed accounts of the adverse effects on physical health.

For most children the ages of most vulnerability are under seven years of age. Some of the effects are clearly discernable within the first few weeks of life (Bowlby, 1952). Ribble, (1943) and Bakwin (1949) have given detailed accounts of the adverse effects on physical health. Bakwin (1942), who gives a valuable survey of the pediatric literature on the subject which goes back at least to 1909, summarizes his own observations:

Infants under six months of age who have been in an institution for some time present a well defined picture. The outstanding features are listlessness, emaciation and pallor, relative immobility, quietness, unresponsiveness to stimuli like a smile or a coo, indifferent appetite, failure to gain weight properly despite the ingestion of diets which, in the home are entirely adequate, frequent stools, poor sleep habits, an appearance of unhappiness, proneness to febrile episodes, and absence of sucking (p. 42).

Bakwin comments that these symptoms may not be observationally manifested during the first two to four weeks of life, but they may be observed any time thereafter, sometimes within a few days of the baby's separation from the mother.

The failure of such babies to smile at the sight of a human face has been experimentally confirmed by Spitz (1945) while Gesell and Amatruda (1947) have noted a diminished interest and reactivity to be characteristic as early as eight to twelve weeks. A study of the infants babbling and crying by Brodbeck and Irwin (1946)

shows that babies in an orphanage from birth to six months were consistently less vocal than those from intact families, the difference being clearly discernable before two months of age.

This diverse evidence from reputable workers leaves little room for doubt that the development of the institutionalized child deviates from the norm at a early age. If the child remains in such a setting, the deviations become more pronounced (Craig, 1976). The findings of Gesell and Amatruda (1945) confirm, in principle, those of such early workers in the field as Ripin (1933), Vance, Prall, Simpson and McLaughlin (1936).

#### Implications for later development

In a study by Youngleson (1973), the hypothesis that institutionalized children have a greater need to affiliate as compared to non-institutionalized children was confirmed. The conclusion was drawn that social deprivation, which is characteristic of institution reared children, leads, through a fear of rejection, to an increased affiliation motivation. Extensive empirical and theoretical examinations have been conducted on the effects of institutionalization on social adjustment (Bowlby, 1965; Goldfarb, 1955; Pringle, 1965; Yarrow, 1961; Zigler, Balla, Butter-



field, 1968). In Youngleson's (1973) summation statement he says that "taking into account that institutionalized children have a history of unsuccessful interpersonal interactions (Bowlby, 1965) and feelings of insecurity (Bodman, 1950) it is justly expected that in explaining the behavior of others, the subjects would reveal motivation characterized by fear of rejection". The child who has not learned the appropriate responses for the necessary social interactions because of fear, will, according to Bodman (1950), remain socially underdeveloped. Therefore, due to the fact that he does not have the necessary social skills, "the degree to which he has confidence in his ability, real or fancied, to be successful will surely decline (Fouche and Grobbelaar, 1970, p. 7)." Thus, institutionalization, in that it deprives the child of the situation in which social skills can be reinforced (Zigler, Butterfield, and Copabianco, 1970), results in a lowering of self-esteem (Youngleson, 1973). One is then able to conclude that due to the lack of social skills and the lowering of self-esteem that the presentation of self of an institutionalized child would be affected.

## CHAPTER III

### METHOD

#### Hypotheses

This study is designed to test the following null hypotheses. In preparation for the statement of the hypotheses the following definition of accuracy is made. Accuracy of perception is defined as agreement of the subjects' self-report with the raters description of the subject.

1) There will be no significant differences in accuracy between raters from different environments.

2) There will be no significant differences in accuracy between raters of different sexes.

3) There will be no significant differences in accuracy between raters of different ages.

4) There will not be significantly greater agreement in rating the subjects among raters coming from the same environment than among raters from different environments.

5) There will not be significantly greater agreement in rating the subjects among raters of the same sex than among raters of different sex.

6) There will not be significantly greater agreement in rating the subjects among raters of the same age than among raters of different ages.

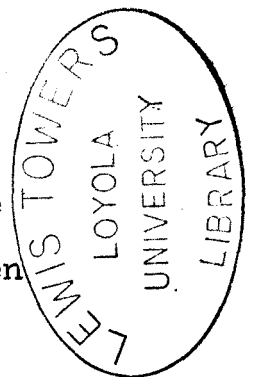
## Subjects

The subjects of the present study were enlisted from children who live at the Baptist Children's Home in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. There were a total of thirty-six subjects used in this research. Two grade levels, 7 through 9 and 10 through 12, were used with 6 subjects in each grade. Three males and three females at each grade participated in the study.

Two important factors were considered in selecting the subjects: 1) if forced to participate in the experiment this would bias the results; 2) Likewise, if the subjects were volunteers this, too, would bias the results. Subjects were briefed on the experiment and the names of those who wished to participate were placed in a container, according to sex and grade. The first three names drawn from each container were those used in the experiment.

## Representativeness of the Baptist Children's Home

The Baptist Children's Home is one of forth-one Baptist Children's Homes' that are located in nineteen states. All these Children's Homes are under the jurisdiction of the Southern Baptist Convention. Standards and guidelines for acceptance and rejection of children are set forth by the collective body of



superintendents of all the Children's Homes' (Proceedings, 1975). It can reasonably be asserted that the children in the Baptist Children's Home in Oklahoma City are representative of children in other Southern Baptist Children's Homes. Conclusions drawn from the analysis of the data can safely be applied to those institutions within the Southern Baptist Convention's institutions.

### Instrumentation

"The measurement of personality is the most complex of the field of psychological measurements" (Kerlinger, 1964). The instrument that is used in this experiment was generated by the writer. Thirty bi-polar adjectives were compiled and placed on a Likert scale ranging from one to seven. One represents "most like" the ratee and seven represents "most unlike" the ratee.

An important study concerned with the use of objective scales was conducted by Tittle and Hill (1967). They compared the effectiveness of various types of scales (Likert, Guttman, Semantic Differential, Thurston, Self-Rating) in predicting objective indices of voting behavior. The Likert scale was superior to all the other scale types; it yielded a mean correlation coefficient of .54 with objective indices of voting behavior (Borg and Gall, 1971).

Thirty adjective pairs made up the main instrument. Sixteen adjective pairs were selected to represent each of the factors derived from the Sixteen Personality Factors (Cattell and Eber, 1966). Fourteen additional pairs were derived from Gough and Hielburn, (1965).

This instrument served two purposes: 1) an index that would reasonably represent personality traits; and 2) an instrument where people could rate other (and self) in a fairly brief amount of time.

#### Validity

Content validity consist of judgment (Kerlinger, 1964). Alone or with others, one judges the representativeness of the items. It is safe to assume, at this point, that the thirty bi-polar adjectives used in this research are representative as already established by Cattell (1966), and Gough and Hielburn (1965). Thus the method of selection of the adjectives appears to insure their representativeness of the personality domain.

#### Reliability

This instrument is not designed to measure a single characteristic, which is at the heart of reliabiltiy. However, it is designed to measure how similarly two individuals view a third party. What we have is a num-

ber of Likert scales and what is being done is comparing the pair-wise ratings. Because the items are on a Likert scale it is possible to measure the variability among raters.

The notion of reliability of an instrument is generally described with respect to a single measure that is being derived from that instrument. What is being sought in this case are similarities and differences between pairs of ratings so that the same notion of reliability does not really apply.

### Procedure

The raters were given a list of thirty bi-polar adjectives. These adjectives were on a Likert scale ranging from one (most like the ratee) and seven (most unlike the ratee). Grierson (1961), Pedersen (1969) and Bortner (1962) used similar procedures to provide a wider range of variability among the raters.

Rater selection was based on the following procedure. Each subject was asked to select two adults (male and female) and two peers (male and female) within the institution. Adults were houseparents, social workers, and administrators. The peers were any of the children living in the institution. Each subject was asked to select two adults (male and female) and two

adults (male and female) and two peers (male and female) outside the institution. The outside raters were individuals from the school setting. The adult raters were teachers, guidance counselors, and/or administrators. The peers were any of the subjects' friends at school. All raters received a sheet of instructions and a self-addressed envelope so that the results could be mailed to the researcher at the Children's Home. Likewise, each of the thirty-six subjects filled out one of the check-lists on him/herself.

### Similarity Measures

Q methodology is a general name used by William Stephenson to express a group of psychometric and statistical procedures he developed (Stephenson, 1953). Q technique is mainly a sophisticated form of rank-ordering objects and then assigning numerals to subsets of the objects for statistical procedures.

Unstructured Q sorts is the method used in most published Q studies. An unstructured Q sort is a set of items assembled without specific regard to the variables or factors underlying the items. Rogers and Dymond(1954) and their students are the ones who have done the most extensive work with the unstructured Q sorts. The items of an unstructured Q sort are like the

items of a personality or attitude scale: they are selected and used because they presumably measure on broad variable, like neuroticism, attitudes toward a certain ethnic group, or adjustment. For the purpose of this research we will be looking at differences in self-presentation.

The main strength of the Q sort is its close affinity to theory. Structured Q sorts, by definition, are theoretically oriented. In order to build a structured sort, one has, perforce, to enunciate some kind of theory. The theoretical emphasis becomes especially prominent in two-or three-way factorial sorts. In order to juxtapose two variables and to build them into an instrument, one must relate them to each other in some sensible fashion. While often rudimentary, this is the essence of theory; variables related in logical and empirical fashion (Stephenson, 1958).

Q methodology has other advantages. Analysis of variance and correlation can be applied to Q data. Subjects tend to be interested in Q sorting. Most persons seem to enjoy sorting decks. This enjoyment seems to be attributed to at least two factors: 1) the method is realistic as well as 2) challenging.

As usual, disadvantages accompany advantages. Q



sorting has been criticized, mostly on grounds of statistics (Sundland, 1962). It must be kept in mind that statistical operations and tests assume independence. This means that the response to one item should not be affected by responses to other items. If Q placements affect each other, then the notion of independence is violated. This assumption is violated in all forced choice procedures. Q, of course, is forced-choice procedure. Published evidence on forced and unforced Q sorts is mixed. Block (1956) believes that sorting is equal or superior to unforced procedures. However, Jones (1956), finds the forced procedure inferior. Exacting proof one way or the other is lacking.

At this point it is important for the writer to discuss the basic differences between Q techniques and the method he is using. Thirty bi-polar adjectives have been employed and placed on a Likert scale. The subjects were not asked to sort adjectives into certain piles, as would be necessary in the Q technique. The subjects were asked to have the raters rate them on bi-polar adjectives on a seven point Likert scale. This maintained independence of each item. Being placed on a continuum from one to seven provided a wider variation between the raters,

thus lending itself to factor analysis.

The treatment of  $r$  where Likert scales are employed in place of a Q sort has been shown to be inadequate due to arbitrariness of directionality. Therefore a different type of index for coefficient correlation was used. As a measure of profile similarity coefficient,  $r_c$ , the product-moment  $r$  between variables suffers from the defect that its value varies with arbitrary decisions as to the direction in which the variables are measured (Cohen, 1969). Cohen further states:

Since the direction of measurement is arbitrary none of these element reflections should change the substantive conclusions from the results of the data. When data analysis takes the form of correlation between variables (over persons), it indeed does not matter whether we score high for extraversion or for introversion; such correlations simply undergo a change in sign and not of numerical value. But when the similarity between two profiles is assessed by an  $r$  between persons over  $k$  variables, it may change drastically with changes in direction. (p. 281)

Consider, for example, a profile over 6-point rating scale of extroversion-introversion (I), hypomania-depression (H), intelligence-retardation (R), liberalism-conservatism (C), dominance-submission (S). Table 1 shows a 6-point scale rating for Sue and Joe on the ( $k=$ ) 5 traits as stated above. The  $r$  between Sue and Joe is  $+0.67$ , which seems to suggest considerable similarity. Choosing to measure extroversion-introver-

sion in the opposite direction the profiles would appear as they are in Table 1b. E' shows E reflected, that is 1 = 6; 2 = 5; 3 = 4. This reflection shows a result of  $r = -.37$ . This seems to show moderate dissimilarity. The formula that Cohen (1969) sets forth for similarity coefficients,  $r_c$ , is as follows:

$$r_c = \frac{XY + km^2 - m(X + Y)}{\sqrt{(X^2 + km^2 - 2mX)(Y^2 + km^2 - 2mY)}}$$

(with  $k$  = traits;  $m$  = midpoint on the rating scale)

Using the discussion above  $m$  would be 3.5. When applying this formula to the data in Table 1a it would look as follows:

$$r_c = \frac{85 = 5(3.5^2) - 3.5(23 + 17)}{\sqrt{[117 + 5(3.5^2) - 2(3.5)(23) \quad 67 + 5(3.5^2) - 2(3.5)(17)]}} = .49$$

If we were to apply the formula to Table 1b the same would result, reflecting its invariance property.

A number of favorable points concerning  $r_c$  should be made. 1) The most important factor of  $r_c$  is its invariance over element reflection. 2) Since  $r_c$  is a correlation coefficient, it shares all the  $r$ 's descriptive properties. For example, it varies between +1 and -1, and 0 means no relationship. 3) Another favorable item of  $r_c$  is its use for the purpose of grouping

TABLES	PROFILES	RATING SCALES	CORRELATIONS
1a	JOE	I H R C S 2 6 5 6 4	$r = + .67$
	SUE	1 3 5 4 4	
1b	JOE	I' H R C S 5 6 5 6 4	$r = - .37$
	SUE	6 3 5 4 4	
1c	JOE	I H R C S    I' H' R' C' S' 2 6 5 6 4    5 1 2 1 3	$r = + .49 (=r_c)$
	SUE	1 3 5 4 4    6 4 2 3 3	

TABLE 1  
PROFILES AND CORRELATIONS

a set of  $n$  profiles into homogenous types (Cohen, 1953). None of the features takes away from the traditional correlation method.  $r_c$  adds to the stability of measurement due to its reflection ability (Holly and Guilford, 1964).

### Design

A 2 x 2 x 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 factorial design with repeated measures, in the last three factors was used to analyze the data. The repeated measures were environment (inside and outside the institution), age (adult and peer), and sex (male and female). The dependent variable was similarity of rater's description to the subjects' self-report. This particular design provides the measurement of the degree to which the raters agree with the subjects self-presentation.

A 2 x 2 x 3 factorial design with repeated measures was used to obtain the similarity of ratings between raters. Two classes (junior high and senior high) were used for both sexes (male and female) across three rater levels (environment, age, and sex). Grade levels, seven through twelve, were nested within classes (junior high and senior high). BwC

For each subject there were eight raters. A coefficient correlation,  $r_c$ , of the eight scores between the pair-wise raters was calculated. This provides a

measure of the degree to which raters agree or disagree.

With regard to the repeated measures of environment, age, and sex of the raters, two measures will be derived for each. One, mean  $r_c$  for pairs of raters was obtained from the same environment and two, mean  $r_c$  for pairs of raters was obtained from different environments and also differed in sex and age. Each repeated measure (rater's environment, sex, and age) was tested one at a time.

A matrix for each subject, which is provided in the next chapter, shows the within, outside, and across ratings. For each individual there are twenty-eight  $r_c$  scores between pairs of raters. In the within group there are six pairs of scores; in the outside group there are six pairs of scores; and in the across group all pairs of scores that involve one person inside and one person outside. This provides a total of twenty-eight  $r_c$  scores between pairs of raters.

A factor matrix using Principal Component Analysis was run on the data. For each subject an 8 x 8 inter-similarity matrix was calculated. Entries in this matrix were the  $r_c$  for each pair-wise raters averaged across subjects.

The resulting matrix was then submitted to a Principal Component analysis. Components corresponding to

a species factor (Stephenson, 1953) and to environment, age, and sex differences.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

The aim of this research is to determine if institutionalized children present themselves differently inside the institution than they do outside the institution. The following null hypotheses were tested.

- 1) There will be no significant differences in accuracy between raters from different environments.
- 2) There will be no significant differences in accuracy between raters of different sexes.
- 3) There will be no significant differences in accuracy between raters of different ages.
- 4) There will not be significantly greater agreement in rating the subjects among raters coming from the same environment than raters from different environments.
- 5) There will not be significantly greater agreement in rating the subjects among raters of the same sex than among raters of different sex.
- 6) There will not be significantly greater agreement in rating the subjects among raters of the same age than among raters of different ages.

A  $2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2$  ANOVA with repeated measures, a  $2 \times 2 \times 3$  ANOVA, and a principal component analysis will be used to test the hypotheses.



## Subjects

The procedure used to select subjects for the present study has been discussed in Chapter III. During the course of the present study, subjects were found to be characterized by the traits summarized in Tables 2 and 3. Also, other pertinent descriptive data regarding various raters ratings can be found in Appendix A.

### Analysis I: Description

The first analysis performed consisted of the calculation of a  $2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2$  analysis of variance with repeated measures on the last three factors. The repeated measures were environment of the rater (inside and outside the institution), age of the rater (adult and peer), and sex of the rater (male and female).

The dependent variable was the similarity coefficient between the rater's protocol and the subject's self-ratings. The two independent variables were class of the subject (junior high school and senior high school) and sex of the subject (male and female).

Subjects were classified according to three characteristics: A) junior and senior high, B) grade level, and C) sex. B was nested within A. Other factors were crossed with D) environment of the rater, E) age of the rater, and F) sex of the rater. This particular design is intend-

Table 2

## Mean Ages of Subjects in Various Grades

Grade	Males		Females		Total Mean Age	
	Years	Months	Years	Months	Years	Months
7	12	7	13	5	12	9
8	13	5	13	3	13	4
9	14	1	14	2	14	1
10	15	5	15	7	15	6
11	16	9	17	3	16	9
12	17	2	17	6	17	4

Table 3  
 Mean Length of Institutional Residence  
 of Subjects in Various Grades

Grade	Males Months	Females Months	Total Mean Residence Months
7	19.6	26.0	22.8
8	45.3	15.6	30.4
9	29.0	15.6	22.3
Junior High Subtotal	31.6	18.4	25.1
10	42.6	26.0	34.3
11	43.3	61.0	51.6
12	30.3	40.0	35.2
Senior High Subtotal	38.4	42.3	40.4

ed to yield a measurement of the extent to which the raters agree with the subjects; self-presentation.

#### Analysis I: ANOVA Results

These results indicated a significant main effect of environment,  $F(1, 24) = 6.42, p = < .05$ , (Table 4). That is, the respective environments of the rater and ratee influence the degree to which the rater's ratings correspond to the self-ratings of the ratee. The raters inside the institution agree more with the child's self-presentation than do the outside raters. There were no other significant simple main effects.

A significant first order interaction between grade of the subject x environment of the rater (BwC x E),  $F(4, 24) = 3.94, p = < .01$  was found, (Table 4). Likewise, a second order interaction, class of the subject x environment of the rater x sex of the rater (C x E x G)  $F(1, 24) = 5.31, p = < .03$  was found to be significant (Table 5). Figure 1 shows that there is a larger discrepancy between the inside and outside raters among the junior high subjects than at the senior high level. Another significant second order interaction encompasses the two interactions mentioned above. This interaction is grade nested within class x environment x sex of the rater (BwC x E x G)  $F(4, 24) = 5.42, p =$

Table 4

Summary of a Subset of the 2 x 2 x 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA for Environment  
of the Rater (E) x Grade of the Subject (B) x Class of  
the Subject (C) x Sex of the Subject (D)

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
E	10165.00	1	10165.00	6.42 *
BwC x E	25019.43	4	6254.86	3.95 *
C x E	530.83	1	530.83	0.34
D x E	1480.59	1	1480.59	0.94
BwC x D x E	13284.93	4	3321.23	2.10
C x D x E	6206.83	1	6206.83	3.92
Error Term	37986.00	24		

\*  $p < .05$

Table 5

Summary of a Subset for the 2 x 2 x 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA for Grade of  
the Subject (B) x Class of the Subject (C) x Sex of the Rater (D) x  
Environment of the Rater (E) x Age of the Rater (F)

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
E x G	536.28	1	536.28	0.24
BwC x E x G	8345.15	4	2068.29	5.42 *
C x E x G	2042.67	1	2042.67	5.31 **
D x E x G	750.58	1	750.58	1.95
BwC x D x E x G	1413.71	4	353.45	0.92
C x D x E x G	52.53	1	52.53	0.14
Error Term	9240.50	24	385.02	

\*  $p < .003$

\*\*  $p < .03$

.003 (Table 5).

Graphic representation of the significant interactions between grade of the subject x environment of the rater are shown in Figure 2. Graphic representation of the significant interactions between grade of the subject x environment of the rater x sex of the rater are shown in Figure 3.

A Student Newman-Keuls test for multiple comparisons (Kirk, 1968, p. 91) was conducted to obtain a better understanding of the grade x environment of the rater x sex of the rater interaction. This analysis reveals that the outside raters for the tenth graders knew the subjects better than the outside raters for the eleventh and twelfth graders (Table 6).

One third order interaction between class of the subject x sex of the subject x age of the rater x sex of the rater is found to be significant (C x D x F x G),  $F(1, 24) = 12.67$ ,  $p = <.002$ , (Table 7). This appears to indicate that adult raters at the senior high school level (who are of the same sex as the subject) tend to know the subjects best. On the other hand, peer raters of the opposite sex of the subjects tend to know the subjects least (Figure 4). No such effect seems to be present at the junior high school level.

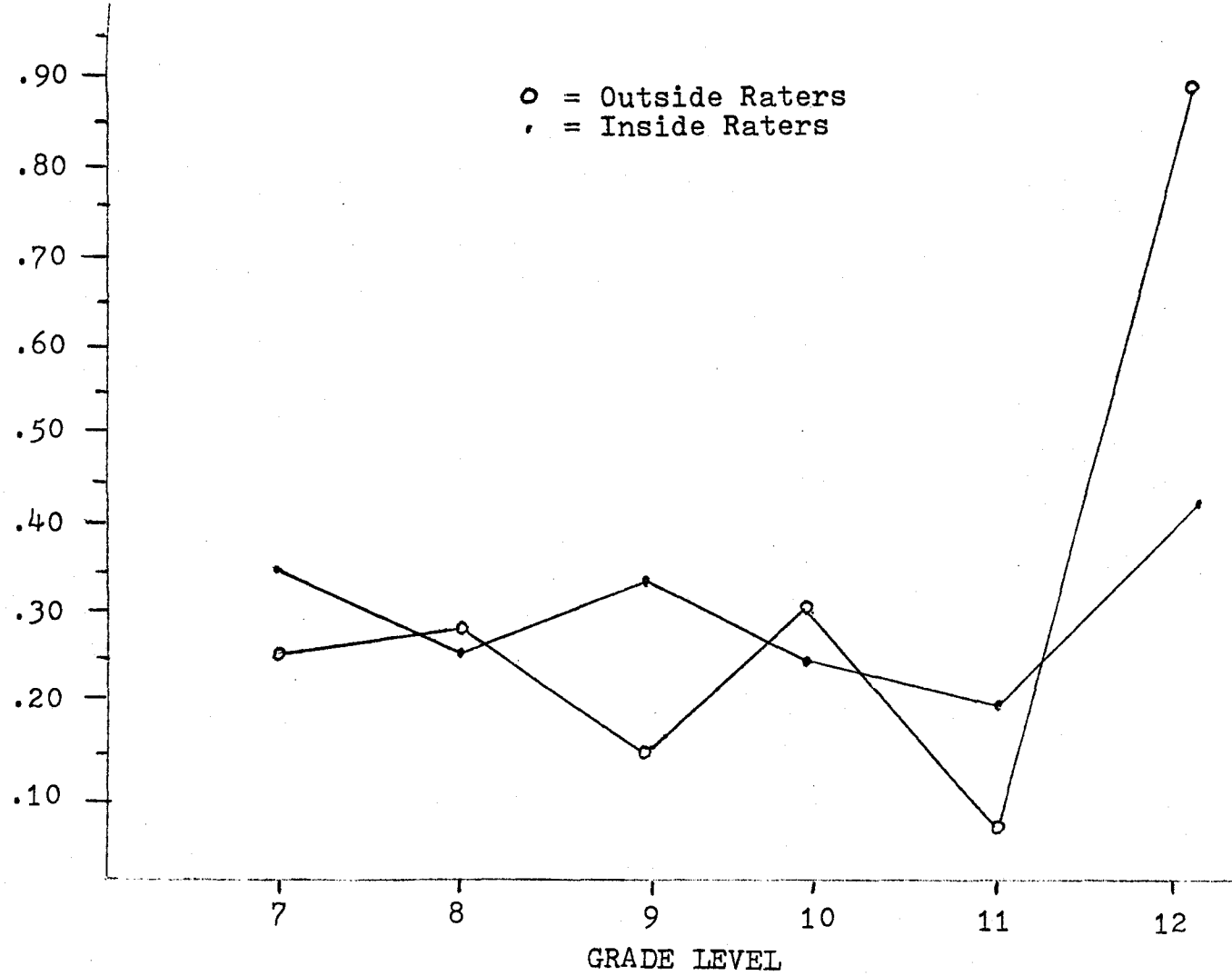


Figure 2. Graphic Illustration of the Significant Interaction Between Grade of the Ratee x Environment of the Rater.



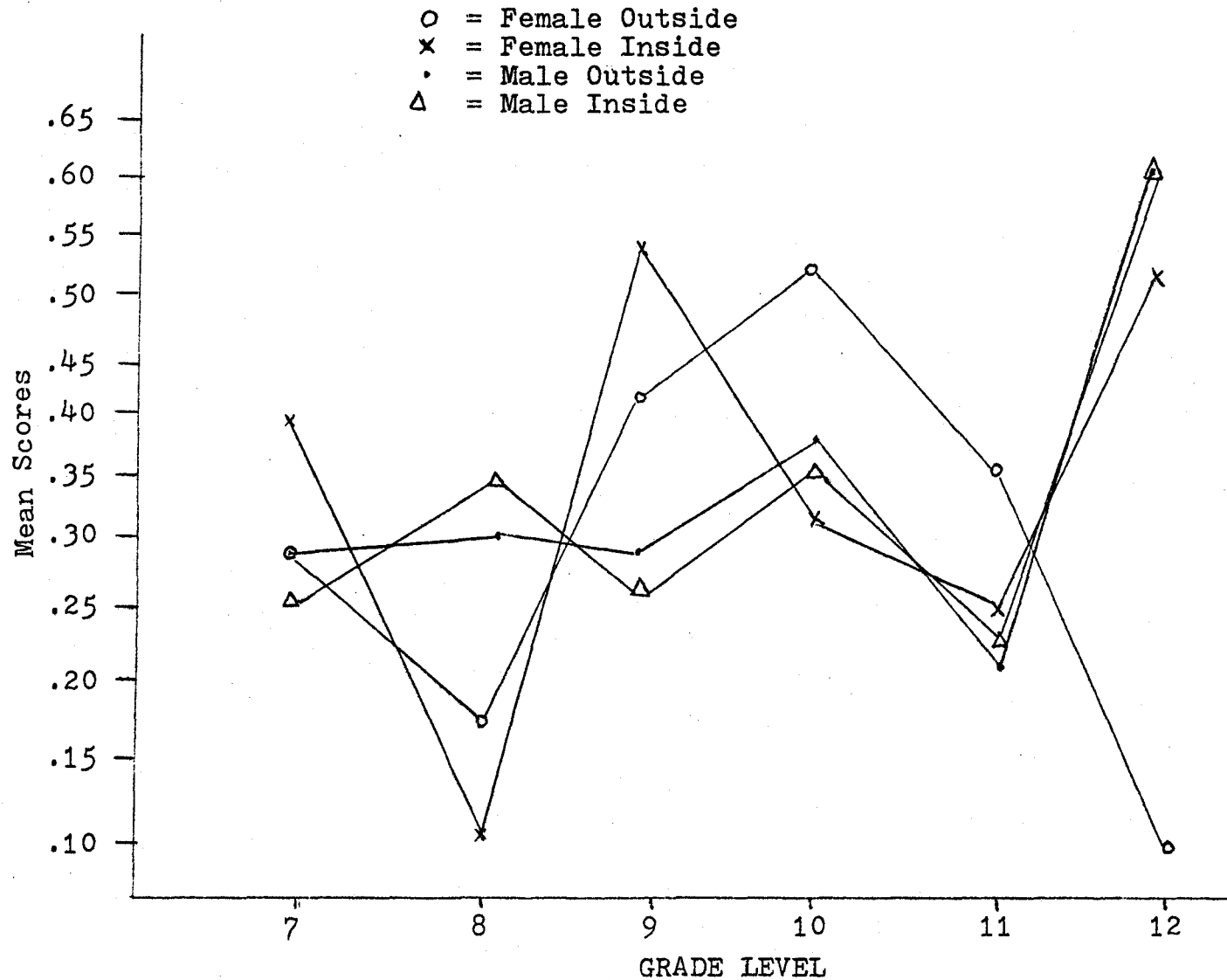


Figure 3. Graphic Representation of the Significant Second Order Interaction Between Grade of Subject x Environment or Rater x Sex of Rater.

Table 6

Summary of Newman-Keuls Mean Scores of Similarity Coefficients with Respect to Raters Environment Across Grade Levels

	Grade Levels						Total	F
	7	8	9	10	11	12		
<u>Inside Raters</u>								
Mean	.32	.24	.40	.32	.23	.55	.34	2.77 *
S. D.	.13	.16	.19	.27	.27	.30	.24	
<u>Outside Raters</u>								
Mean	.28	.25	.17	.45	.13	.09	.23	1.58
S. D.	.10	.10	.11	.21	.26	.29	.22	

\*  $p < .03$

Table 7

Summary of a Subset of the 2 x 2 x 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA for Grade of Subject  
 (B) x Class of the Subject (C) x Sex of the Subject (D) x Age of the Rater  
 (F) x Sex of the Rater (G)

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
F x G	770.28	1	770.28	1.40
BwC x F x G	2343.24	4	585.81	1.06
C x F x G	2183.50	1	2183.50	3.97
D x F x G	1.53	1	1.53	0.002
BwC x D x F x G	2708.90	4	677.84	1.23
C x D x F x G	6971.84	1	6971.84	12.67 *
Error Term	13202.33	24	550.10	

\* p < .002

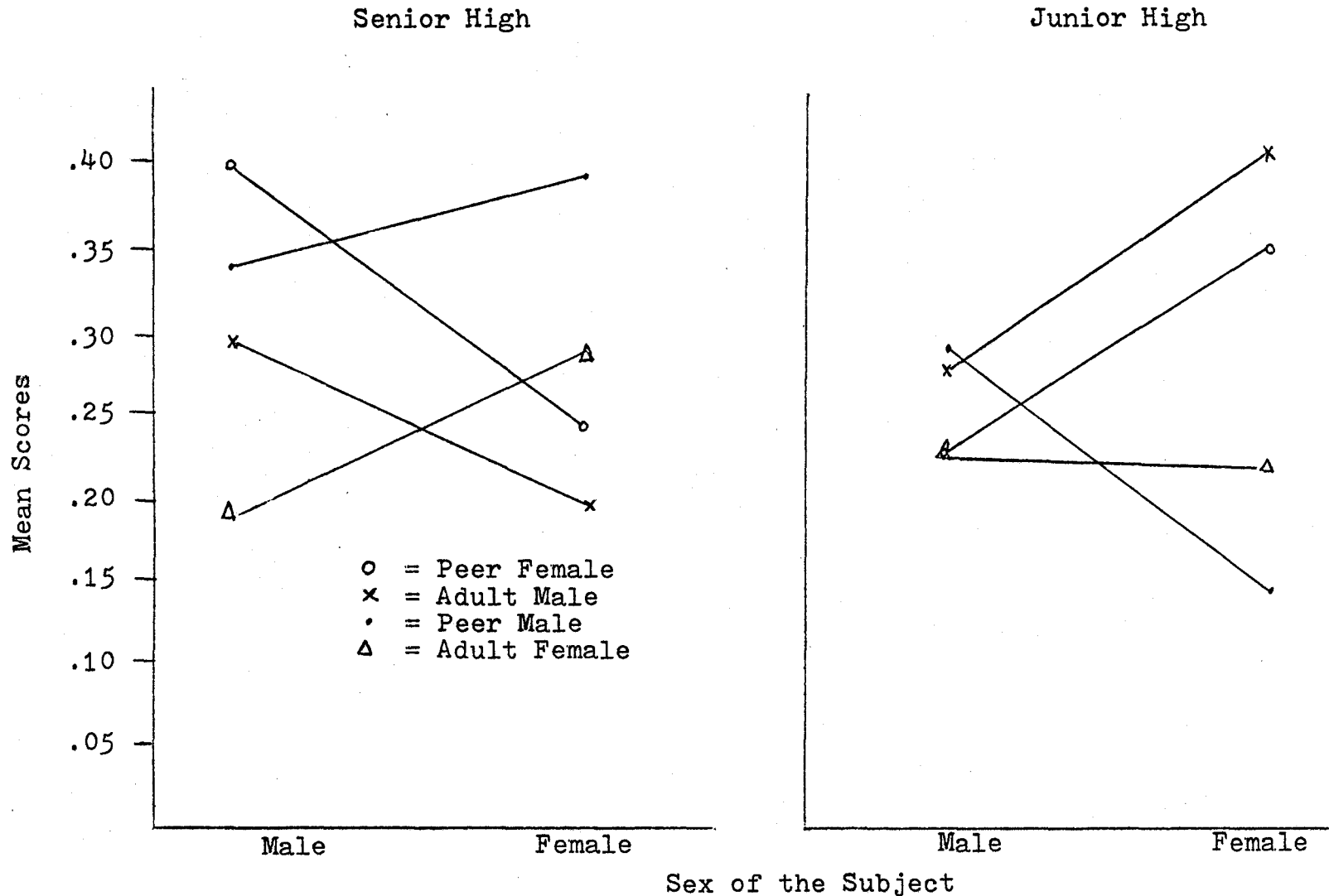


Figure 4. Graphic Representation of the Significant Third Order Interaction of Class x Sex of the Subject x Age of the Rater x Sex of the Rater.

### Analysis I: Conclusions

This analysis yielded one main effect of environment and four other higher order interactions. Three of the four interactions were interrelated and were able to be consolidated and interpreted within the BWC x E x G interaction. The fourth significant interaction was class of subject x sex of subject x age of rater x sex of rater (C x D x F x G).

Also, a Student Newman-Keuls test for multiple comparisons was conducted to get a better understanding of the various interactions. This analysis revealed that outside raters for the tenth graders knew the subjects better than the outside raters for the eleventh and twelfth graders.

Null Hypothesis: 1 Rejected.

Null Hypothesis: 2 Not rejected.

Null Hypothesis: 3 Not rejected.

Null Hypothesis: 4 Not rejected

Null Hypothesis: 5 Not rejected.

Null Hypothesis: 6 Not rejected.

### Analysis II: Description

The effects of self-presentation of an institutionalized child are further probed by a 2 x 2 x 3 factorial design. Two classes (junior high and senior high) are used for both sexes (male and female) across three rater

levels (environment, age, and sex). Grade levels seven through twelve are nested within classes (junior high and senior high). The dependent variable was the similarity coefficient between the various rater's protocols. A 2 x 2 x 3 ANOVA with repeated measures (rater's environment, age and sex) tested one at a time was performed.

#### Analysis II: Results

Previously what had been lacking was the ability to get at rater differences by environment, age, and sex. This second analysis generated a much clearer picture of rater differences with regards to their environment, age, and sex.

With the first dependent variable of environment, age and sex of the rater were summed over and a simple main effect on environment was found to be significant,  $F(1, 24) = 16.15, p = <.0005$ , (Table 8). Similarly, on the third dependent variable of age, environment and sex of the rater were summed over and a simple main effect of environment was found to be significant,  $F(1, 24) = 7.93, p = <.01$ , (Table 9). On the second dependent variable of sex, environment and age of the rater was summed over and no significant simple main effects or higher order interactions were found.

#### Analysis II: Conclusions

Table 8

Summary of the 2 x 2 x 3 ANOVA for the Repeated Measure on Environment  
 The Variables Age and Sex of the Rater were Summed Over to Find the  
 Effect of Environment

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
E	1839.89	1	1839.89	16.15 *
BwC x E	338.56	4	97.14	.56
C x E	566.72	1	566.72	3.28
D x E	68.06	1	68.06	.32
BwC x D x E	1258.11	4	314.52	1.82
C x D x E	288.00	1	288.00	1.67
Error Term	4141.00	24		

\* p < .0005

Environment of Rater (E); Grade of Subject (B); Class of Subject (C); Sex of the Ratee (D).

Table 9

Summary of the 2 x 2 x 3 ANOVA for the Repeated Measures of the Rates Age. The Variables of Environment and Sex were Summed Over to Find the Effect of Age.

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
E	690.68	1	690.68	7.93 *
BwC x E	255.94	4	63.99	.73
C x E	55.13	1	55.13	.63
D x E	.44	1	.44	.004
BwC x D x E	370.39	4	92.60	1.06
C x D x E	5.01	1	5.01	.05
Error Term	2091.00	24		

\* p < .01

Environment of Rater (E); Grade of Subject (B); Class of Subject (C); Sex of Ratee (D).



Two of the repeated measures yielded significant findings on environment of the raters and age of the raters. This analysis measured the degree to which the raters agreed or disagreed with respect to rater's environment, raters age, and rater's sex. Analysis II did not directly test hypothesis 1.

Null Hypothesis: 2 Rejected.

Null Hypothesis: 3 Not rejected.

Null Hypothesis: 4 Not rejected.

Null Hypothesis: 5 Not rejected.

Null Hypothesis: 6 Not rejected.

#### Analysis III: Description

A factor matrix using principal component analysis was run on the data. To obtain results from this factor matrix, the mean scores of the 28 pair-wise inter-rater similarities were recorded. These are not coefficient correlations in the traditional sense, but are similarity coefficients,  $r_c$ , (Cohen, 1969) as previously outlined in Chapter III. It should be pointed out that this procedure is a theoretically predictable component in which there are no significance tests to substantiate the findings. However, it is the author's opinion that the analysis deserves discussion due to its theoretical findings. These coefficients behave like correlations and lend themselves

to principal component analysis.

### Analysis III: Results

This factor matrix generated four distinct factors (Table 10) that warrant attention. Factor A (species or common factor) showed that people tend to agree with each other in their ratings of the same person more than they disagree. This explains the high factor loadings in Factor A. Factor B (environment) showed the distinction between raters inside the institution and those outside the institution. Also, Factor C (age) showed the distinction between adults and peers. Likewise, differentiation between males and females is made by Factor D (sex). Thus the first four components seem to correspond to those which had been hypothesized.

### Analysis III: Conclusions

The first four components of the principal Component analysis yielded 67.7% of the cumulative percentages. Analysis III was conducted to provide a clearer understanding of the outcomes of the study and did not directly test any of the previously stated null hypotheses.

Table 10

## Summary of Principal Component Analysis

Variables	Components							
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
Inside Adult Male	.66	-.28	-.39	-.10	-.10	.03	-.17	-.53
Inside Adult Female	.63	-.35	-.37	.09	.21	.07	-.29	.45
Inside Peer Male	.55	-.33	.42	-.13	.11	.54	.29	-.01
Inside Peer Female	.60	-.36	.14	.18	-.08	-.55	.38	.04
Outside Adult Male	.52	.45	-.27	-.38	-.46	.05	.21	.20
Outside Adult Female	.43	.57	-.24	.50	.30	.14	.24	-.10
Outside Peer Male	.53	.37	.29	-.44	.45	-.26	-.17	-.05
Outside Peer Female	.56	.21	.47	.34	-.37	.03	-.40	.01
Cum. Pct.	31.9	14.6	11.6	9.6	9.0	8.7	7.8	6.7

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION

The results in the previous chapter need be evaluated in light of alternative explanations which suggest varying implications regarding the nature of self-presentation of an institutionalized adolescent and appropriate areas and methods for research. Consideration of these factors is the concern of this chapter.

The results of this study offer support for the proposition that institutionalized adolescents are seen differently by two sets of raters (raters inside the institution and raters outside the institution).

#### Analysis I: Description

A  $2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2$  ANOVA with repeated measures on the last three factors was performed on the data. The repeated measures were environment of the rater, age of the rater, and sex of the rater. The nesting of grade within class (BwC) is appropriate throughout this research. Grade was found to be a nuisance variable (Kirk, 1968, p. 91). In all cases the nesting of BwC yielded a higher F-ratio.

#### Analysis I: Results

The first null-hypothesis, there will be no sig-

nificant difference between how the child rates himself as opposed to raters inside and outside the institution, is rejected. The remaining two null-hypotheses were not rejected.

### Result 1

The simple main effect of environment was found to be significant with this specific design.

### Discussion

As suggested in the review of the literature, the environment plays a crucial role in the development of the institutionalized child (McCandless and Trotter, 1977). Two overriding factors can help explain this main effect of environment. First, a possible explanation for the raters inside the institution to see the child more consistently as he sees himself, is that a large amount of time was spent at the institution. A majority of the children were not involved in any outside activities. Most of their outside activity was comprised of going to classes at a local public school. For the most part, the children ate, slept, worked, and played at the institution. Therefore, the amount of time spent outside the institution was limited. For example, in team sports the child would usually be on the team at the institution as opposed to the public

school team. On the other hand, if the child was able to make the varsity team at school then he would choose that position because of the prestige associated with it. Several subjects commented to this researcher, that if they could excel at school they could do so at the institution. Institutional peer acceptance seemed to be a viable option as opposed to school peer acceptance.

Freud and Dann (1951) make the point that the child's positive feelings are centered exclusively within their own peer group. There is a tendency to care more for those within their own peer group and much less for outsiders (c.f. Zimbardo and Formica, 1963). The outsiders, in this case, would be the raters at school.

Second, when a child is uprooted from an already established environment and placed in an institutional setting, a re-organization process needs to take place. A complete new set of support systems need to be established (Goffman, 1961). Throughout this re-orientation process the individuals within the institution (adults and peers) are better able to observe the behavioral adjustment of the child. This adjustment may not be so obvious to the outside raters (school) because of the mobility of students from class to class. It can therefore be concluded that due to the environmental conditions the adults and peers within the institution are better

able to assess the child closest to how he sees himself.

Result 2: BwC x E

The second significant result was a first order interaction of grade of the subject (B) nested within class of the subject (C) x environment of the rater (E).

Result 3: C x E x G

The third significant result was a second order interaction of class of the subject (C) x environment of the rater (E) x sex of the rater (G).

Result 4: BwC x E x G

Another second order interaction of grade of the subject (B) nested within class of the subject (C) x environment of the rater (E) x sex of the rater (G), was found to be significant.

Discussion

Since result 4 (BwC x E x G) includes the interactions found in results 2 and 3, the discussion will be focused on result 4.

A multiple comparison of means for the dependent variables, environment, age, and sex was run using the Student Newman-Keuls test (Kirk, 1968, p. 91). This analysis revealed that the outside raters for the ten-

th graders knew the subjects better than the outside raters for the eleventh and twelfth graders. Looking at the mean scores for each grade the reverse was found to be true for the inside raters (Table 6).

One interesting observation made on the data was that as the grade level increased the outsiders familiarity with the subject decreased. If the tenth graders were eliminated from the data it would yield an uninterrupted decreasing sequence of means. Other variables were tested (males and females; adults and peers) and each variable showed that the tenth graders have the highest rating in every case. This seems to continue the support for the idea that the tenth graders were consistently best known or most in agreement with their raters across all variables.

The question arises as to why this particular phenomenon takes place. This author feels that this phenomenon is idiosyncratic in nature with regard to this research. It seems as though four of the six subjects in the tenth grade were good friends. Three of these four were related. Four of the subjects lived in the same cottage. It should be pointed out that the four living together were not the four that were good friends. A speculative explanation is that all six of the subjects



gave the check list to approximately the same individuals to be filled out.

The discrepancy among the inside and outside raters of the junior high subjects did not exist at the senior high level. A look at the personal data derived from the subjects revealed that the length of stay in the institution by the junior high subjects was 25.1 months. At the senior high level the length of stay in the institution was considerably longer, 40.8 months. Relevant research supports the notion that the longer a child stays in an institution the more comfortable he becomes with that particular environment (Izard, 1960; Davitz, 1955; Hilkevitch, 1960).

Another plausible reason for the discrepancy is the number of possible raters inside the institution was rather limited as compared to the selection of outside raters. A reasonable assumption is that the subjects would pick those individuals who are within his living complex (cottage) to rate him. It would be safe to assume that the inside raters would know him better than the outside raters.

Result 5: C x D x F x G

A third order interaction between class of the subject (C) x sex of the subject (D) x age of the rater

(F) x sex of the rater (G) was found to be significant.

### Discussion

Within this interaction there are four important findings worthy of attention. First, at the senior high level, raters of the same sex as the subject knew the subject better than raters of the opposite sex. A probable explanation is that the senior high subjects might be closer to their same sex adult due to modeling. Also, because the child may not have a stable role model he may seek out the appropriate adult figure, either at school or at the institution. Pertinent research supports the notion of modeling among adolescents (Bandura, Ross, and Ross, 1963; Bandura and Walters, 1963; Bandura, 1969) A limiting factor in this design is that it did not reveal which adult (school or institution) is seen as most important.

Second, at the senior high level, the peer raters of the opposite sex from the subjects, knew the subjects better than raters of the same sex. This can be attributed to the development of boyfriend and girlfriend relationships. Craig (1976) suggests that the social climate the United States in the 1970's encourages more social interaction between the sexes. One comparative study (Kuhlen, Houlihan, 1965) indicates that adolescents choose peers of the opposite sex as companions for var-

ious activities significantly more often in 1963 than a generation earlier, in 1942. The rate of change in heterosexual patterns seem to be accelerating as well.

On the other hand, at the junior high level, peer raters of the same sex as the subject knew the subjects better. Influence of peer relationships can account for such results. During the early adolescent years the peer group typically consists of like-sexed children (Craig, 1976; McCandless and Trotter, 1977). Because of the disparate abilities, capacity for understanding, and varied interests among the different ages spanning this period, the peer group usually consists of peers close in age. In later adolescence the peer group may enlarge to include members of both sexes and a wider range of ages. The biggest shift involves change in basic attitudes toward members of the opposite sex.

Fourth, a closer look reveals that at the junior high level the difference between adult and peer ratings were at a minimum. Whereas, at the senior high level the differences between the two were quite pronounced. There are a number of possible explanations for this phenomenon. During the adolescent stage the child is gradually influenced more by peers rather than

adults (Sheppard and Willoughby, 1975). Research shows that this trend seems to begin in early adolescence and continues throughout high school (LeFrancois, 1977). Prado (1958) clearly illustrates the shift in allegiance from family to peers during the transition from middle childhood to adolescence. Also, as adolescents grow older and start developing heterosexual relationships peer pressure becomes more pronounced and a wide chasm exists between peers and adults.

#### Analysis I: Conclusions

The null-hypothesis, there will be no significant difference between how the child rates himself as opposed to raters inside and outside the institution, is rejected.

#### Analysis II: Description

A 2 x 2 x 3 analysis of variance with repeated measures on the raters environment, age and sex was performed on the data. Each repeated measure was tested individually.

#### Analysis II: Results

With the first dependent variable of environment, age and sex of the raters were summed over and a simple main effect of environment was found to be significant. Similarly, on the third dependent variable of age of

the rater, environment and sex of the rater were summed over and a simple main effect of environment was found to be significant. Likewise, on the second dependent variable of sex of the rater, environment and age of the subject were summed over. However, no simple main effect or higher order interactions were found to be significant.

These results support the idea that environment of the raters has an effect on his evaluation of an institutionalized child.

#### Analysis II: Discussion

It was shown that interrater differences were significant on the two dependent variables of environment and sex. What specifically caused these differences was not ascertained. An explanation for the result that the environments of the raters affected their evaluations of the children could be that the inside raters knew the children better than the outside raters. This can be attributed to the large amount of time spent at the institution as opposed to time spent at school. The results have a close relationship to those in Analysis I.

Another possible explanation could be the stereotyping of the institutionalized child on the part of the outside rater. There is a special kind of attributional

error that occurs whenever a person or group of persons are labeled with a disposition that is perceived as different (i.e. orphan, low SES). Once such a label is attached to an individual, any behavior he displays that seems to require explanation is automatically attributed to his deviance (Goffman, 1961; Gordon, 1966).

It has been found that different people organize their perceptions of others along different dimensions (Bem and Allen, 1974). Apparently the male raters view the subjects in a different way from the female raters. Perhaps the male and female roles arising from both biological and cultural components includes differences in perceiving other people. Only further research could reveal which views would be specifically male or female.

One factor which affects any judgment of another's personality and behavior is one's knowledge of the group or subculture to which the person to be judged belongs. The female rater may judge the girls as part of a group of which she herself is a member and the male subjects as part of a group for which she has different stereotypes and vice versa concerning the male raters. This is another possible explanation for the simple main effect of sex as generated by this 2 x 2 x 3 ANOVA.

### Analysis II: Conclusions

The null hypothesis, that there will be no significant differences between the ratings of the rater due to the raters age, cannot be rejected. However, the null hypothesis, that there will be no significant difference between the ratings of the raters due to the raters' sex; is rejected.

### Analysis III: Description

A principal component analysis was run on the data in order to find underlying factors. To obtain results the mean scores of 28 pair-wise raters were recorded. The mean scores are not coefficient correlations in the traditional sense, but are similarity coefficients,  $r_c$ , (Cohen, 1969) as discussed in Chapter III.

### Analysis III: Results

The results showed four significant components out of a possible eight. Component A (common species factor), indicated that there was more agreement than disagreement among raters. Component A accounted for 31.9% of the cumulative percentage of all components. Component B (environment), indicated two different types of environment, inside and outside the institution. This showed that the outside raters saw the subjects more similarly

than did the inside raters. Component B accounted for 14.6% of the cumulative percentage of all components. Component C (age) revealed the difference of age between raters, adult and peer. This component accounted for 11.6% of the cumulative percentage of all components. Component D (sex) differentiated males from females and yielded a 9.6% cumulative percentage of all components.

### Analysis III: Conclusions

The total cumulative percentage for the first four components totaled 67.7%. This is theoretically interpreted as significant due to the high cumulative percentages. According to Kerlinger (1964, p. 652) these first four components can be viewed as factorially pure. This adds theoretical evidence to the importance of the three dependent variables, environment, age, and sex.

The last four components have been ignored for two interrelated reasons. First, the factor loading for each component are considerably lower. Implying that those components are less pure. Second, the cumulative percentage for each component was considerably less. The total cumulative percentage for the last four components yielded 32.3%, which can be theoretically interpreted as not significant.



### Implications

The most apparent and potentially significant result of this study is that environment variables, inside and outside the institution, have been repeatedly shown to be significantly related to the self-presentation of the institutionalized adolescent. This significance of the environment has been postulated by Goffman (1961); Tizard and Tizard (1974). In every case that the variable of environment was found to be significant, the individual raters inside the institution had a closer approximation of how the adolescent sees himself than outside raters did.

Also, the present research extends the findings of Freud and Dann (1951) in which they found that the adolescents in the institution relied heavily on peers and care-takers for support. As mentioned earlier in Chapter II, Freud and Dann felt that individuals within the institution knew the adolescent best.

This research seems to support the idea that institutionalization may cause people to assume circumscribed social roles as set forth by Goffman (1959), and McCandless and Trotter (1977). Goffman (1961) discusses what he calls deculturation of the individual. When an individual is placed in an institution, he is temporarily incapable of managing certain features.

During the stay within the institution, the adolescent learns to build new support systems that enable him to adjust inside and outside the institution (Davitz, 1955; Hilkvitch, 1960; Izard, 1960). The concept that length of stay in the institution facilitates the adjustment process is supported by this research. It was found that there was a large discrepancy between self-ratings as compared to the raters' ratings at the junior high level, due to the shorter length of stay. It would seem that the length of stay within the institution helped the subjects to become more comfortable with their particular environment.

The findings of studies relating institutional stay to self-presentation (Bowlby, 1965; Zigler, Balla, Butterfield, 1968), are also congruent with those of the present study. Taking into account that institutionalized adolescents have a history of unsuccessful interpersonal interactions (Bowlby, 1965) and feelings of insecurity (Bodman, 1950) it was found that in explaining the behavior of others, the adolescents would reveal motivation characterized by fear of rejection and may remain socially underdeveloped. This may be indicated in the present research by the mean score differences between the inside raters and the outside raters of the junior high subjects. Thus institutionalization deprives the adole-

### Direction for further research

It is the opinion of this author that research be continually directed toward institutionalized adolescents. Too little is known or understood about this population. The fact that more adolescents are being placed in institutions for a short period of time accentuates the need for a better understanding of their adjustment processes.

A plausible and parsimonious explanation for the effects of environment on institutionalized adolescents is given by studies which suggest the environment is strongly influenced by the child care workers (Bowlby, 1952; Duck, 1973; Matejeck, 1972). This idea can have far reaching implications when research is directed toward the quality of child care workers that are employed. Research on what specific characteristics of the child care workers are conveying to the child is needed.

Follow up studies with subjects who have left the institution could be conducted to compare their institutionalized self-presentation with their present self-presentation.

Further research could be conducted to find out what specific events within the environment influenced the child. With this information it would then be possible to implement changes in the institution to assist the

child in social adjustment and self-presentation.

Understanding which factors positively contribute to social adjustment and self-presentation can serve to ameliorate conditions which are limiting individuals or groups from realizing their full social potential. A recognition that different subgroups in a population may be subject to differing environmental contributions of relevant factors will enable research to be conducted that will come closer to revealing cause and effect relationships.

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APPENDIX A

Summary of  $r_c$  Means and Standard Deviations of Individual Raters  
As Brokendown By Environment, Age, and Sex

	Grade Levels						Total
	7	8	9	10	11	12	
<u>Inside Adult Males</u>							
Means	.10	.10	.09	.09	.03	.12	.09
S. D.	.06	.04	.06	.10	.05	.09	.07
<u>Inside Adult Females</u>							
Means	.08	.04	.13	.09	.07	.12	.09
S. D.	.07	.07	.05	.09	.06	.08	.07
<u>Inside Peer Males</u>							
Means	.04	.08	.05	.10	.08	.16	.08
S. D.	.04	.07	.10	.04	.11	.06	.08
<u>Inside Peer Females</u>							
Means	.11	.02	.14	.06	.05	.13	.08
S. D.	.05	.07	.06	.09	.08	.09	.08

Summary of  $r_c$  Means and Standard Deviations of Individual Raters  
As Brokendown By Environment, Age, and Sex

	Grade Levels						Total
	7	8	9	10	11	12	
<u>Outside Adult Males</u>							
Means	.07	.10	.07	.07	.04	.01	.06
S. D.	.07	.04	.06	.08	.09	.11	.08
<u>Outside Adult Females</u>							
Means	.04	.03	.02	.12	-.01	-.03	.03
S. D.	.07	.04	.09	.07	.09	.10	.09
<u>Outside Peer Males</u>							
Means	.07	.04	.06	.12	.06	.03	.07
S. D.	.07	.05	.05	.07	.11	.12	.08
<u>Outside Peer Females</u>							
Means	.10	.06	.003	.13	.03	.09	.07
S. D.	.02	.08	.06	.07	.07	.13	.09

Summary of  $r_c$  Means and Standard Deviations of Groups of Raters  
as Brokendown by Environment

	Grade Levels						Total
	7	8	9	10	11	12	
<u>Inside Raters</u>							
Mean	.32	.24	.40	.32	.23	.55	.22
S. D.	.13	.16	.19	.27	.27	.30	.22
<u>Outside Raters</u>							
Mean	.28	.25	.17	.45	.13	.09	.34
S. D.	.10	.10	.11	.21	.26	.29	.24

Summary of  $r_c$  Means and Standard Deviations of Groups of Raters  
As Brokendown by Age

	Grade Levels						Total
	7	8	9	10	11	12	
<u>Adult Raters</u>							
Means	.28	.26	.31	.37	.14	.22	.27
S. D.	.17	.14	.14	.28	.12	.17	.18
<u>Peer Raters</u>							
Means	.32	.21	.26	.41	.22	.42	.31
S. D.	.11	.10	.15	.19	.21	.23	.18

Summary of  $r_c$  Means and Standard Deviations of Groups of Raters  
As Brokendown by Sex

	Grade Levels						Total
	7	8	9	10	11	12	
<u>Male Raters</u>							
Mean	.27	.33	.27	.36	.22	.32	.30
S. D.	.14	.14	.13	.19	.12	.12	.14
<u>Female Raters</u>							
Mean	.33	.15	.29	.40	.14	.32	.27
S. D.	.14	.16	.11	.22	.18	.24	.19

APPENDIX B

Table 11

Summary of a Subset of the 2 x 2 x 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA for Grade of the Subject (B) x Class of the Subject (C) x Sex of the Subject.

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
B	11706.49	4	2926.62	1.52
C	251.25	1	251.25	.13
D	16.53	1	16.53	.008
BwC x D	2755.48	4	688.87	.36
C x D	498.75	1	498.75	.26
Error Term	46251.83	24		



Table 12

Summary of a Subset of the 2 x 2 x 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA for Grade of the Subject (B) x Class of the Subject (C) x Sex of the Subject (D) Age of the Rater (F).

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
F	1140.03	1	1140.03	1.21
B x F	2304.79	4	576.20	.61
C x F	3180.03	1	3180.03	3.37
D x F	457.53	1	457.53	.49
B x D x F	691.07	4	172.77	.18
C x D x F	44.34	1	44.34	.05
Error Term	22640.83	24	943.37	

Table 13

Summary of a Subset of the 2 x 2 x 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA for Grade of the Subject (B) x Class of the Subject (C) x Sex of the Subject (D) x Sex of the Rater (G).

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
G	483.09	1	483.09	1.17
B x G	4408.60	4	1102.15	2.68
C x G	21.67	1	21.67	.05
D x G	132.03	1	132.03	.32
B x D x G	3589.32	4	897.33	2.12
C x D x G	315.59	1	315.59	.77
Error Term	22640.83	24	943.37	

Table 14

Summary of a Subset of the 2 x 2 x 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA for Grade of the Subject (B) x Class of the Subject (C) x Sex of the Subject (D) x Environment of the Rater x Age of the Rater (F).

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
E x F	2139.67	1	2139.67	4.10
B x E x F	1219.51	4	304.88	.58
C x E x F	366.75	1	366.75	.70
D x E x F	1245.84	1	1245.84	2.39
B x D x E x F	2616.40	4	654.10	1.25
C x D x E x F	108.78	1	108.70	.21
Error Term	12527.67	24	521.99	

Table 15

Summary of a Subset of the 2 x 2 x 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA for Grade of the Subject (B) x Class of the Subject (C) x Sex of the Subject (D) x Environment of the Rater (E) x Age of the Rater (F) x Sex of the Rater (G).

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
E x F x G	993.83	1	993.83	1.15
B x E x F x G	2523.68	4	630.92	.73
C x E x F x G	837.09	1	837.09	.97
D x E x F x G	457.53	1	457.53	.53
B x D x E x F x G	1029.96	4	257.49	.30
C x D x E x F x G	639.03	1	639.03	.74
Error Term	20769.50	24	865.40	

Table 16

Summary of a Subset of the 2 x 2 x 3 ANOVA for the Repeated Measures on Environment. The Variables Age and Sex of the Rater were Summed Over to Find the Effects of Environment.

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
B	1839.89	4	459.97	1.47
C	813.39	1	813.39	2.61
D	68.06	1	68.06	.22
B x D	1625.22	4	406.31	1.30
C x D	672.22	1	672.22	2.16
Error Term	7479.67	24	311.65	

Grade of Subject (B); Class of Subject (C); Sex of Rater (D)

Table 17

Summary of a Subset of the 2 x 2 x 3 ANOVA for the Repeated Measure on Sex. The Variables Age and Environment of the Rater were summed over to find the Effect of Sex.

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
BwC	2573.94	4	643.49	1.76
C	210.13	1	210.13	.57
D	203.35	1	203.35	.56
BwC x D	2668.28	4	667.07	1.82
C x D	780.13	1	780.13	2.13
Error Term	8783.33	24	365.97	

Grade of the Subject (B); Class of the Subject (C); Sex of the Ratee (D).

Table 18

Summary of a Subset of the 2 x 2 x 3 ANOVA for the Repeated Measure on Sex. The Variables Age and Environment of the Rater were summed over to Find the Effect of Sex.

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
E	33.35	1	33.35	1.34
BwC xE	138.39	4	34.60	1.39
C x E	13.35	1	13.35	.54
D x E	39.01	1	39.01	1.57
BwC x D x E	73.39	4	18.35	.74
C x D x E	2.35	1	2.35	.09
Error Term	596.67	24	24.86	

Grade of the Subject (B); Class of the Subject (C); Sex of the Ratee (D); Environment of the Rater (E).

Table 19

Summary of a Subset of the 2 x 2 x 3 ANOVA for the Repeated Measure of Raters Age. The Variables of Environment and Sex were summed Over to Find the Effect of Age.

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
BWC	2278.61	4	569.65	1.80
C	342.35	1	342.35	1.09
D	217.01	1	217.01	.69
BWC x D	2662.61	4	665.65	2.11
C x D	990.13	1	990.13	3.14
Error Term	7561.67	24	315.07	

Grade of the Subject (B); Class of the Subject (C); Sex of the Ratee (D).



APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Larry Wayne McCauley has been read and approved by the following Committee:

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The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

Date

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Director's Signature

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