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A Psychological Investigation of the Relationship among Maternal Self-Concept, Maternal-Child Attitudes, and the Social-Emotional Functioning and Self-Concept of Children

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A PSYCHOLOGICAL INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG MATERNAL SELF-CONCEPT, MATERNAL-CHILD ATTITUDES, AND THE SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL FUNCTIONING AND SELF-CONCEPT OF CHILDREN

by

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VITA

Nancy Dort Rossow was born in Lincoln, Nebraska on January 28, 1948. She completed her secondary education at Lincoln Southeast High School in June 1966 and entered the University of Nebraska that same fall.

In June, 1970, she received the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education having majored in Zoology/Physiology and Education. The author earned the Master of Public Health degree from the University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston in December, 1973 and entered Loyola University of Chicago in January, 1977 to begin further graduate studies. In January, 1980 she was awarded a Master's degree in Educational Psychology from Loyola and continued studies pursuant with the doctorate.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Some of the most potent forces for fostering the healthy psychological development of the child are the persons with whom the child has developed intensive and enduring emotional relationships, namely, his or her parents, relatives, and others with whom he or she becomes closely involved on a one-to-one, day-to-day basis (Bronfenbrenner & Mahoney, 1975).

At the heart of the psychological development of the individual, is the perception of self. This self-concept refers to how an individual perceives him or herself in terms of ability, value, worth and limitations (Calhoun & Morse, 1977). This term self-concept may be used interchangeably with the term self-esteem, although self-esteem is sometimes thought to be a more situation specific component of the global self-concept. The self-concept involves an evaluative component which arises out of a child's ability to estimate personal strengths and weaknesses. This concept of self tends to develop before five years of age and remains basically constant thereafter. Children need to feel that adults have faith in them. They must feel accepted for what they are

because of assets, and in spite of shortcomings. During the first year of life, infants learn many things about themselves. A sense of worth develops as a process of experience. The impact of parents on this development of self is not easily overestimated as they reflect the earliest appraisals. Parents generally determine the child's environment by giving or withholding love and affection, by rewarding and punishing, and by serving as role models. For good or ill, children are molded by the repeated behavior of the significant people in their lives.

> According to Leviton (1975), when a child is accepted, approved, respected, and liked for what he is, he will have an opportunity to acquire an attitude of self-acceptance and respect for himself. With such an attitude, he will have the freedom to venture forth into the school situation and use his intelligence to its utmost capacity.

During the past decade, a common concern for the schools has been the gradual increase in parenting type responsibilities being thrust upon them. Attending most schools today, are many children who appear unprepared for the discipline, responsibility, socialization, and intellectual challenges with which they come face-to-face. Evidence suggests that students' failures in basic

subjects, as well as misdirected motivation and lack of commitment are, to a large measure, the consequences of their negative perceptions of themselves and the world (Purkey, 1970).

School personnel have noted improved behavior on the part of those children whose parents were made aware of the extent to which they exerted pressure, and ignored or were cross to their children (Bronfenbrenner & Mahoney, 1975). Acceptance for what he or she is as a person (not for what he or she does) at all times is reportedly vital to the development of a positive self-concept. According to Fitts (1972), a low self-concept or a defensive and unrealistically high self-concept are almost universally associated with antisocial behavior and maladaptive, ineffective behavior of all types.

> According to Bernard (1970), mental health may be defined as the adjustment of individuals to themselves and the world at large with a maximum of effectiveness, satisfactions, cheerfulness, and socially considerate behavior, and the ability of facing and accepting the realities of life (White House Conference, Preliminary Reports 1930).

The mentally healthy student accepts him or herself with strong points as well as shortcomings, makes the best use of what he or she has, and does not allow personal

weaknesses to interfere with daily activities and the pursuit of long range goals (Nikelly, 1966).

People are taught to do almost every conceivable job, and in order to work, they are often required to obtain a license or be certified such as a physician, bus driver or teacher. Frequently they must attend continuing education classes to maintain their level of competence. However, for many the most vital and perhaps most difficult job is parenting. Any person may become a parent, however, few are adequately prepared, and virtually none are systematically instructed in the skills needed to become an effective parent. According to Caldwell (1968), being a parent does not automatically bestow on the individual, the emotional balance which is an essential ingredient of child-rearing. The mere biological fact of parenthood does not necessarily translate into adequate parenting skills and attitudes. It is often not the motivation of parents that determines the effectiveness with which the individual assumes the parental role, but rather the capacity the individual has to express that motivation maturely so as to provide the most positive experiences for the child. Since most parents have not learned how to parent, or how to plan for the unique parent-child relationship which will develop, they consequently rear their children by guess work.

Effective parents have reportedly been able to develop good communication skills. They appear to be able to see alternative disciplinary options which are appropriate to the child and the situation, and understand that children need affection and love. They are secure enough to promote independence in their children and realize that they are primary role models. They are generally consistent in discipline and rules, and fair in judgment (Brunnquell, Crichton & Egeland, 1981).

In their essay on Parent Licensure, Hood and Robbins (1981) reveal that

> In most public schools teachers are required to hold a certificate in order to instruct children from the ages of 5 to 21. Why not require a similar training program and eventual certification for parents, the first teachers of America's most valuable natural resource, its young? At present, society is providing some programs to insure proper diet, shelter, health care and general social programs. If certification is accepted, preparenting curricula would have to be developed.

They suggest that the appropriate curricular areas to be addressed would include: fostering feelings of acceptance; points on parental love and how to show it; improving child's self-concept; effective disciplining;

independence training; development of values and directions for goal setting.

It appears fairly well established (Berzonoky, 1981; Stone, 1981) that the psychological development of an individual may be traced to parental attitudes toward the child, and the nature of childhood responses to those attitudes.

The overall purpose of the present investigation was to determine the nature of the relationship among maternal self-concept, maternal-child relationship attitudes, selected demographic variables, and the social-emotional functioning and self-concept of selected sixth grade children. While the investigator recognizes that both parents play an important role in the family and independently influence the child, only maternal-related variables were investigated in this research project. The decision to focus on maternal-related variables, was made primarily because mothers generally have more direct child-rearing responsibility than fathers, and because of the growing population of single-parent, female-headed households (McLanahan, Wedemeyer & Delberg, 1981).

Sixth grade students were chosen because it was believed that they would be able to honestly evaluate themselves and peers, yet would be less influenced by peers than junior high or senior high school students.

According to Piaget (1965), the child-adult relationship has an inevitable outcome in preadolescence: unable yet to distinguish both the merits and demerits of his or her parents, incapable of freely criticizing parents objectively due to less mature emotional development, the child becomes compliant to their authority. Not until later adolescence is the child capable of viewing parents as people and deciding what influence they will yield. At adolescence, adults come to be seen as persons with assets and shortcomings and a new, less dependent relationship begins to develop. From ages 12-14, conceptions of the child-adult relationship are mixtures that include elements from a more egalatarian, reciprocal relationship. Sixth grade children, generally aged 11-12, are at that early stage of development where they are just beginning to view their parents objectively, and yet are still more closely emotionally tied to their influence.

As Beard (1969) reports, Piaget presents a picture of the developmental stage of adolescence which considers the decision-making processes in which the adolescent engages. Early adolescents begin to look objectively at themselves, peers and others. They become conscious of their own thinking, reflecting on it to provide logical justifications for judgments they make. Children in the sixth grade are in a transitory stage from childhood to

adolescence and a gradual shift from the primary influence of parents to peers reportedly takes place at this time. It doesn't happen overnight and may cover a span of 1-2 years. This junction between childhood and adolescence appears to be an optimal time to assess the impact of parental attitudes and behavior on children at the end of their influence and before the domination of peer influence.

According to Bealer et al. (1969), studies in rural Minnesota and Pennsylvania revealed that adolescents and preadolescents tend to reflect the values and beliefs of their parents rather than peers, when involved in decision-making. While parents and children may disagree, parental influence was found to be particularly strong when dealing with socially-acceptable behaviors. Apparently, global values instilled in early development are long lasting and stable.

Larson (1972) studied adolescent conformity orientation (proparent, propeer) in seventh and ninth graders. He found that the seventh graders were more likely to be parent-oriented per se than the ninth graders. When the parent-child relationship was termed "good" then the adolescent tended to be more parent-oriented regardless of grade level.

The goal of studying this maternal-child interrelationship and its consequences is to understand, not condone nor condemn, and on the basis of this understanding to explore the possibilities of prevention and/or intervention measures in the development of psychological good health.

Studies previously cited have provided some evidence that the mother-child relationship is a vital factor contributing to the psychological development of the child. Also demonstrated in some cases was a relationship between the child's self-concept and social-emotional functioning in school.

For the purposes of the present investigation, social-emotional functioning refers to the child's ability to interact in a socially-acceptable manner in a school setting. It generally has the same global meaning as psychological integration, adjustment and socialization.

Self-concept building and parent education programs have been developed and presented in recent years to help facilitate the growth of positive psychological health in children. It is believed that the identification of those parent-related variables correlated to self-concept and social-emotional functioning of children may provide a further framework for intervention strategems. Eventually, it is hoped, that educating individuals in the

art of parenting may prove to be the first step in the primary prevention of psychological difficulties in children. It may also serve to enhance the parent-child relationship and make it more loving, enriching and fulfilling.

Given that which was reported above, the following specific research problems are presented below:

1. How does a mother's self-concept and attitude toward her child influence the child's self-perception and actual behavior in a school setting?
2. Do other maternal variables such as level of education, age, and marital status have an impact on the child's social-emotional development and self-concept?
3. How do socioeconomic status and ethnic background influence the child's ability to function in a socially-acceptable way in addition to having a generally positive self-concept?
4. How is school achievement related to the child's self-concept and social-emotional functioning in school?

It is expected that there will be significant relationships established between the maternal attitude and self-concept variables, and the child's development of

self-concept and social-emotional functioning. It is also believed that the other demographic variables exert some differential influence on the child-related variables of self-concept and social-emotional functioning.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

It is well established that many variables combine to influence the psychological development of the individual. Social relationships, environmental factors, and genetic endowment reportedly contribute to the formation of the self. This chapter presents an examination of many variables which have been postulated to be important to the development of the social-emotional adjustment and self-concept of children. Among the specific topics reviewed are the following: maternal-child relationship attitudes, maternal self-concept, maternal marital status, family socioeconomic level, maternal age, ethnic background and achievement/self-concept relationship. Other variables include gender differences in psychological development, maternal educational level, birth order, sibling number and the child's status in the family.

Maternal-Child Attitudes

The crucial importance of the pre-school years and the mother-child relationship for future development is

reflected throughout the whole history of Western thinking. A brief review of this trend begins with Plato (Schaefer & Bell, 1958):

Plato (428-348 B.C.)

...and the first step, as you know, is always what matters most, particularly when we are dealing with those who are young and tender. That is the time when they are taking shape and when any impression we choose to make leaves a permanent mark.

John Locke (1632-1704)

If...the difference to be found in the manners and abilities of men is owning more to their education than anything else, we have reason to conclude that great care is to be had of the forming of children's minds and giving them that seasoning early which shall influence their lives always after...

James Mill (1816)

It seems to be a law of human nature that the first sensations experienced produced the greatest effects; more especially, that the earliest repetition of one sensation after another produce the deepest habit....It is, then, a fact that early sequences to which we are accustomed form the primary habits; and

that primary habits are the fundamental character of man...

Sigmund Freud (1949)

It seems that most neuroses are only acquired during early childhood, even though their symptoms may not make their appearance until much later...

Bowlby (1951)

Among the most significant development in psychiatry during the past quarter of a century has been the steady growth of evidence that the quality of the parental care which a child receives in his earliest years is of vital importance for his future mental health...it is this complex, rich and rewarding relationship with the mother in the early years, varied in countless ways by relations with the father and with siblings, that child psychiatrists and many others now believe to underline the development of character and of mental health...

Some studies have indicated that the parent-child relationship appears to be highly predictive of self-concept. Findings of two such studies (Glenapp, 1980; Flynn, 1979) indicated that the level of parental

acceptance correlated strongly with self-concept and use of parental control. Too much or too little control was reflected in a lower self-concept, and perceived parental acceptance was important to the development of self-concept across many age levels.

Degenhart (1978, 1980) studied self-concept in preadolescent fifth graders and found that generalized self-esteem is enhanced and maintained by children having parental interaction which is accepting. This reportedly makes them feel secure, gives them realistic, clear behavioral expectations and encourages independence and responsibility. Developmentally, growth of self-concept beings during infancy and the greatest important influence is reported to be the parent-child interactions. Parental acceptance and consistency apparently affect the child's self-concept.

In the development of self-esteem, Coopersmith (1967) concludes that the antecedents of high self-esteem in children include nearly total acceptance of children by their parents, clearly defined and enforced limits, and respect and latitude for individual action within the defined limits. In a study of fifth and sixth grade children, Crase, Foss and Colbert (1981) found that self-concept may be stabilized by the upper elementary age and that mother's acceptance of individuation was

significantly correlated with self-concept in both boys and girls. The variables of hostile control and control by guile weighted heavily on those behaviors which were considered poor parental discipline and were negatively correlated with self-concept for both sexes.

Hare (1975, 1976) suggests that the family exercises considerable influence on the child's self-concept inspite of the perceptions of outside others. Acceptance of children for what they are, rather than just what parents want them to be is just as likely to occur in a home of poor economic conditions as in the home where there are ample means for comfortable living. Formal education may not be easily transferable into wholesome mental hygiene influences and appropriate child-rearing. When the child is loved and accepted for what he is, he is developing a confidence that he is significant and worthy, (Bernard, 1970).

It has been reported that a child's level of self-regard is closely associated with his parents' reported level of regard for him or her. Any behaviors and attitudes of significant people, such as parents, that cause a young child to think ill of him or herself, to feel inadequate, uncapable, unworthy, unwanted, unloved, or unable, is crippling to the development of the Self (Purkey, 1970).

According to Clark (1978), mentally healthy children, namely, those who are able to:

1. adapt to new situations without losing control
2. socialize positively with others
3. understand their personal strengths and weaknesses
4. maintain an optimistic attitude and enthusiasm for life
5. responsibly hand a job or task
6. cooperate, be trustworthy and just

are, in large part, the product of responsible, sensitive parenting. Positive social-emotional functioning is extremely important because when people experience it they feel good, look good, are effective and productive, and they respond to other people and themselves in healthy, positive, growing ways. Positive mental health is a family affair because the family is the first place we decide who we are and practice "Being." The parent-child relationship is the foundation from which trust, hope, confidence, autonomy, positive self-concept and identity all emerge.

According to Allport (1950) the prime factor in the development of any personality is the influence of other personalities. Of all the people who affect this development in general, the parents do most poignantly.

Whether the child's attitude toward them is positive or negative, the parent image affects him or her enormously. Most parents apply to their children the same standards and practices which their parents used with them. The mores and child-parent relationships of the family are perpetuated for generations. This may have a devastating effect on individual families as well as society if these practices and attitudes are counter-productive to a secure positive mental health.

Parents do not do it purposefully, however, many children are "crippled" by parents who were themselves crippled psychologically as children. Many a child's capacity to love is permanently inhibited because important people failed to provide warmth and affection when it was needed most. Their intellectual development is stulified because they are reared in a deprived and sterile atmosphere, their selves are distorted and defeated because participation with the meaningful people in their lives has given meanings to the self which are pervasively derogatory (Purkey, 1970).

Now more than ever the parent-child relationship on which the foundation of mental health is built is the mother-child relationship. The single-parent family is the fastest growing family form in America. Since 1960, the proportion of female-headed families in the United

States has doubled and at present these families are growing at a rate that is two and a half times as fast as that of husband-wife families (McLanahan, Wedemeyer & Delberg, 1981). Along with this rapid growth has come an awareness that single mothers as well as their children experience a considerable amount of psychological distress.

According to Josselyn (1978) without question, the most salient force in the young child's physical and psychological environment is the influence of parents. After birth, the infant, for reasons of biological survival, and the mother, for psychological reasons, remain a unit. To the psychologically mature woman, her child progressively becomes to her a person separate from herself. Some mothers have such immature needs that they cannot share what they receive and they "amputate" the newborn emotionally. Others are unwilling to relinquish the symbiotic mother-child relationship and the child becomes solely an instrument for the mother's pleasure.

According to D'Augelli and Weener (1978), the self-perceptions of effective parents are usually on target. There is not much difference between how they view their child-rearing efforts and attitudes and how the rest of the family sees them. Parental attitudes and practices which are counter-productive to positive social-emotional

functioning tend to repeat themselves in the children when the become adults. In a study of abuse and neglect (DHEW Publication, 1979), a "World of Abnormal Rearing" was postulated to demonstrate the impact of improper child-rearing attitudes and practices on the future of the children involved. It follows thusly:

1. Conception-Pregnancy-Child: Most of these mothers want the child because they feel the child will resolve their problems, provide them with love which they do not have, and meet their needs. The baby, or course, is unable to do this.
2. Unrealistic Expectations, Role Reversal and Compliance: The parents generally have high and unrealistic expectations of the child. The child cannot meet them. They tend to become scapegoats, "can never do anything right," and are constantly chastised, belittled, neglected or abused. There is often a role reversal situation in which the children "take care" of mom and/or dad and assume responsibilities around the house which are entirely inappropriate for their age level. The parents really expect the child to do for them what they wish their mother had done

when they were small. The children are not allowed to act like children.

3. Lack of Trust, Isolation and "I'm no damn good": As a result of the unusual manner in which the child is raised, they do not develop the ability to trust which is a prerequisite for further psycho-social development (Evans, 1962). They feel responsible for their problems and fail to recognize the supportive role others can play in their lives. They become isolated. They can't help and won't be helped. Eventually they develop a conviction of being "no damn good."
4. Selecting "Friends and Mates: As they reach adolescence, they feel that their experiences at home and school, with parents and friends, have been negative. Their inability to select friends is also manifested in their choice of mates. This choice is often influenced also by a desire to leave home and find someone to meet their needs. Since the mate usually turns out to be unhelpful and unsupporting, the goal quickly becomes having a baby.
5. Childhood Missed: There is a significant gap in the developmental processes of WAR (World of Abnormal Rearing) children. They spend so much

> time trying to meet the needs of their parents that their childhood is missed. The more the child acts like a child the less likely he will be accepted in the family. Therefore most opt for skipping childhood. Since experiencing childhood is a prerequisite to mature adulthood and parenting, they perpetuate the lifestyle their parents have fostered.

In a study of adolescent development, Berzonsky (1981) found that there appears to be a continuum of parenting from accepting to rejecting, from autonomy-granting to controlling. He found that Authoritarian parents (rejecting & controlling) tend to have offspring who are carbon copies of the parents, often closed, inflexible and angry children. The Neglectful parent (rejecting and permissive) tend to produce offspring who are antisocial, and acting-out adolescents. Those children of Conditionally-Accepting parents (indulgent and permissive) are adolescents who tend to be irresponsible, undisciplined and often disruptive. The offspring of Over Protective parents (accepting and controlling) tend to be dependent, insecure, passive and timid youngsters. Finally, those Authoritative parents (accepting and autonomy-granting) tend to have children who are outgoing, socially assertive and independent.

According to Graybill (1978), children found to have high self-esteem viewed their mothers as accepting, understanding and liking them. Whether or not the acceptance of the children, as viewed by the mothers, was reciprocal, the mothers' behavior toward their youngsters was perceived as positive and accepting.

Winch and Gordon (1974) report that the family is the most influential social system in the lives of adolescents as indicated by adolescents when surveyed. The influence was especially noted in the areas of establishment of basic values of society such as responsibility, honesty, altruism, pride in work and so forth.

Child-rearing procedures and attitudes which generate competence, mental health and optimism may not be the same as those which give rise to eminence, however, they do give rise to productive, responsible individuals. Spirited give and take within the home, if accompanied by respect and warmth, may teach the child how to express aggression in self-serving and prosocial causes and to accept the partially unpleasant consequences of such action. It appears that authoritative control may achieve responsible conformity with group standards without loss of individual autonomy or self-assertiveness. Parent affection and direction have combined to influence a child's identification (Marschak, 1980).

According to Stone (1981), self-concept is more closely associated with perceived parental expectation and family attitudes than with achievement or socioeconomic status. It may well be that counseling parents of low self-concept children may be more beneficial than classroom self-concept programs. Parents should be considered the major source of the development of positive self-concept in children.

According to Combs (1967), the low self-concept is a basic cause of failure in school, determines to a high degree whether a person will be well-adjusted or maladjusted, effective or ineffective in dealing with life experiences, and it plays a primary role in the achievement of self-actualization. It appears that intervention at both the parent level and with the child may prove successful in enhancing self-concept.

In a study by D'Augelli and Weener (1978), it was found that parents specially trained in communication and parenting skills developed a greater sensitivity to their children and a greater acceptance of their children's feelings and behaviors.

Brookover, Thomas and Patterson (1964) demonstrated that when the perceptions of parents regarding their children were modified, students changed their self-perception positively and improved their school

achievement. This influence continued even through the adolescent years even as peers became more important. It was also found that the emotional climate of the family (parental warmth, respectful treatment, clearly defined limits) were more important for positive mental health than socioeconomic factors. An appreciable and enduring improvement in the child's development may be affected only through an appreciable and enduring change in the attitudes and behavior of persons intimately associated with the child (Bronfenbrenner & Mahoney, 1975).

In a study of mental disorders in children (Caplan, 1961), it was demonstrated that mental health has to do not only with the achievement of inner emotional harmony and selfhood but also with an optimal relatedness of person, family and society. In terms of prevention, it is noteworthy that clinical studies of pre-school children and their families demonstrate that therapeutic alteration of family role relations often brings striking improvement in the emotional health of the young child, even though the child has received no individual psychotherapy whatsoever. In addition to the mother-child relationship and parental attitudes, other variables have also been shown to significantly influence the social-emotional adjustment of children. In fact, according to Greenberg (1971) mother-child relationship attitudes may become more

homogeneous due to the influence of the media since families depicted on television and in the movies demonstrate a wide range of relationships and consequences of numerous child-rearing attitudes and practices.

In summary, it has been demonstrated that the emotional climate of the family (parental warmth and acceptance, respectful treatment, and clearly defined limits) are more important for a positive mental health than other socioeconomic and achievement factors.

It appears that parents greatly influence the development of the self-concept and social-emotional functioning of their children, and in this era of many single-parent, female-headed families, the influence of the mother is particularly crucial to this development.

The mother-child relationship appears to lay the foundation for the development of trust, hope, identity and self-esteem. Subsequently, according to many researchers, the development of a positive self-concept determines to a great extent whether or not a child will be well-adjusted, successful in school, and effective in dealing with life's experiences.

Maternal Self-Concept

Another variable thought to have an impact on the psychological development of children is the maternal

self-concept. "Mirroring" theory states that a child's self-concept develops as a function of the reflected appraisal of the significant others around him. The "Model" theory on the other hand suggests that a child's self-concept reflects the self-concept of those others with whom he has identified. Levy (1979) studied a population of over 400 children with their mothers and fathers and found that "mirroring" is more important than "modeling" in the development of self-concept in children. Perceived similarity of parents to children did not appear to affect the degree to which children's self-concepts were associated with the mothers' and fathers' self-concept.

In a study of learning disabled children, the child's self-esteem was measured and then correlated to the mother's self-esteem in addition to other variables. The findings suggested that maternal self-esteem was not significantly related to the child's self-esteem, (Doyle, 1977, 1978).

Other studies, however, indicate quite different results. Tocco and Bridges (1973) found that in a study of low income families there was a significant relationship between mothers' self-concept and their primary grade childrens' self-concept. Palecek (1980) studied maternal self-concept and child's self-concept and

also concluded that a small, but significant correlation was found to exist between a mother's self-concept and her child's self-concept, particularly the daughter's. There was no significant correlation with male self-concept when the father was present in the home, however since all of the study families were intact, the question of effect of maternal self-concept on males was not clearly established for single-parent, female-headed families.

Brunnquell, Crichton and Egeland (1981) studied maternal personality and attitudes in child-rearing. They divided the mother-child pairs into four subgroups representing Excellent care, Inadequate care, a Random group and a "Matched" group. Their findings indicate that while no specific personality patterns or set of characteristics associated with abuse and neglect was found, certain maternal characteristics were related to the quality of caretaking. Excellent care mothers were of higher intelligence, reacted positively to pregnancy, had more positive expectations regarding their children and the ease of caring for them, and most importantly, had a better understanding of their relationship with their children. In contrast, the mothers in the Inadequate Care group lacked such an understanding, reacted negatively to pregnancy and were more likely to describe themselves negatively. Other findings suggested that the Personal

Integration construct was the best discriminator at each period of testing and for each group contrast. Central to this Personal Integration construct are maturity and a positive self-concept that allow for understanding of both one's own and others' feelings. Almost all of the Inadequate care mothers were found to be intellectually capable of child care, however, they were unable to perceive and integrate their own feelings.

Maternal self-concept has been investigated for decades, and in a study conducted by Sears, Maccoby and Lewin (1957), it was found that the stronger the mother's self-esteem and her affection for her husband, the happier she was about the pregnancy. This positive attitude toward the child appeared to continue through the years. The mother's positive self-concept was an important correlate of her ability to feel and express warmth toward her child, especially when the child reached school age. Also, mothers who hold their husbands in high esteem were much more likely to be warmer in their relationships with their children.

Studies utilizing the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Fitts, 1972) reveal that diagnosed neurotic individuals tend to have low self-esteem. Any threat to the individual's self-esteem provokes anxiety and neurotic defense mechanisms which are intended to prevent

additional anxiety as well as lessen present anxiety or poor self-esteem. Some of these individuals maintain relatively normal self-esteem by detaching themselves from all feeling and emotions. The evidence of a low self-concept was found to contribute to difficulties with interpersonal relationships, including that of mother-child. When presented with situations in which the child was not meeting their expectations, the mothers tended to lose control or to become irritable, aggressive, neglectful and anxious. Most of the subjects with low self-esteem were defensive and had unrealistic expectations of themselves and others. They were often unfulfilled in both social and emotional spheres and therefore were less likely to establish positive, growth-producing relationships within a family structure.

Larsen (1981) studied social-emotional maturity and its effect on the attitudes toward parenting. It was found that a significant relationship was found between social maturity and attitudes toward parenting. Low levels of social-emotional maturity were associated with negative attitudes toward the parent role.

According to Benn (1982), in a study of white, educated, middle class families, the mothers judged to be highly integrated with regard to identity and emotional adjustment, were found to be highly accepting and

sensitive to their children. This emotional adjustment in mothering was related to the acceptance of the child and the parenting role.

Tower (1980) found that in preschool children, parents' positive self-concepts have strong relationships to their children's behaviors in school.

Although contradictory evidence exists, most studies appear to indicate that maternal self-concept has an impact on the psychological development of the child. It may be that a positive self-concept allows for the development of accepting attitudes and sensitivity toward the child thereby creating a nurturing mother-child relationship.

Some studies suggest that mothers with low self-esteem are defensive and have unrealistic expectations of their children. They are often unfulfilled and less likely to establish positive growth-producing mother-child relationships.

In those studies which revealed no relationship between positive maternal self-concept and psychological development of the child, it may be hypothesized that the mothers had a generally positive global self-concept, however, their attitudes toward the specific role of mother were not positive and accepting. This possibility exists if the the idea of global self-concept is

considered to be comprised of situation specific concepts, such a family self-concept, career self-concept and physical self-concept.

In summary, most evidence indicates that maternal self-concept exerts some influence on the psychological development of the child. The extent to which that influence is determined may be related to the measurement and definition of the notion of self-concept rather than the level of the self-concept.

Maternal Marital Status

It has been reported that there are more single-parent, female-headed families than before. These single-parent families (generally mother and children) experience unique psychological distress.

In a study by McLanahan, Wedemeyer, and Delberg (1981) several explanations are offered for the positive relationship between single motherhood and psychological distress. Most common among these are the Social Selection hypothesis which argues that pre-existing personality deficiencies in the mother lead both to divorce and distress, and the Social Causation hypothesis which argues that the single mother is ill equipped and often times blocked from successfully performing instrumental role functions. A third hypothesis states

that single women are more vulnerable than others to stressful life events and common everyday strains because they have fewer social or personal resources with which to cope with the effects of stress. It was concluded that community mental-health professionals need to assist the single mother to determine their goals and then develop a support network of family and/or friends that is suited to their orientation.

In a study of life-cycle transitions and their effects, (Nock, 1981) it was found that following a divorce, individuals report their lives as significantly less interesting, more lonely, emptier, and indicate they are less happy with life in general. The self-concept suffers and an individual's sense of control is shaken. While widowhood has the most profound absolute consequences, divorce has more pervasive, long-lasting consequences. With divorced, widowed, or never married mothers, other unfavorable events tend to influence the family. Lack of support, lack of companionship and an additional wage earner, and fewer employment opportunities contribute to undue psychological, financial and physical stress (Dohrenwend, 1969).

According to Bronfenbrenner (1967) with the changing American family, increase incidence of divorce, and the overwhelming presence of female teachers, both boys and

girls are in need of more male models. The presence of a male model during the individual's development affects creativity, initiative, affectional relations, achievement orientation, and response to authority. The effects of absence of the male model is especially notable in the Black home.

In a study of marital dissolution, adjustment, and child-rearing attitudes, Cohen (1981) found that separated women were less well-adjusted than married women and women separated for 24 months or more were no better adjusted than women separated for 15 months or less. Personal adjustment was found to significantly discriminate membership in the separated and married groups, and perceived hardship was found to be of greater importance than either perceived threat or available resources in accounting for personal adjustment.

Accommodation to the demands of everyday living seems to be the primary life style of many separated women. The study suggested that personal adjustment and the factors associated with personal adjustment may have little influence on the child-rearing attitudes under study. The scores reflecting the diverse child-rearing attitudes of separated women may produce central tendencies much like those of married women, thus obscuring any real differences.

In a study by Whitehead (1979), divorce, separation or desertion are associated with some evidence of maladjustment in young children, although not to the same extent as ongoing domestic tension. The findings suggest that separation is associated with a lesser, but statistically significant tendency toward antisocial behavior in boys, and with a slight tendency toward withdrawal in girls.

In a study of teacher's expectations for children from single-parent families, Levin (1981) found that teachers expect that children from single-parent families are more likely to exhibit psycho-social difficulties and lower academic achievement than children from 2-parent families. It is unclear which came first, the teacher expectation or the child's behavior.

Lindholm, Touliatos, and Rich (1977) found that children from homes where both parents were present displayed some signs of immaturity and inadequacy as measured by a behavior checklist, however, these findings were not statistically significant. They did conclude, however, that children from homes where the natural parents were residing displayed fewer problems than those in other family structures.

According to Rosenthal (1978) in a study of 559 junior high school students, the children from intact

homes perceived their fathers as significantly more loving, and did not perceive their mothers any differently than those from non-intact homes. Furthermore, the child's perception of this mother's and father's love was a good indicator of self-concept. It was also found that self-concept and school achievement were significantly related to the child's perception of his mother and father.

Freed (1978) studied how children of divorce feel about their parents and how they perceive their parents feel toward them. Most of the 51 children felt positively or ambivalently toward their mothers, and positively toward their fathers. Although not conclusive, the findings suggest that those children who expressed positive feelings toward both parents were the only group with a high degree of positive involvement with adults outside the nuclear family. It may be that the majority of children's social contacts outside of home are affected negatively or at least somewhat adversely by divorce.

However, other studies indicate differing views from those reported above. According to Parish and Nunn (1981), there is some suggestion that the family process (happy vs unhappy) is a more important consideration in the study of children's development than is family structure (intact vs divorced). They studied fifth

through eighth grade students from both intact and divorced families. A personal attribute inventory was completed by child and family members and the number of positive descriptors selected indicated the happy vs unhappy process. Their conclusions were that the self-concepts of children from happy divorced family environments were not found to be statistically correlated with their ratings of parental figures. It was found that intact families and unhappy divorced families seemed to have a greater influence on the self-concept of the children. The children from happy, divorced families were perhaps more independent (out of necessity) and less influenced by their parents.

Another study of parent-child relationships and self-concept (Kanoy, 1980), found that social-psychological variables (mother's present adjustment) and family relationship variables (quality of mother-child and father-child interaction) were predictive of the child's self-concept. These factors were the most significant determiners rather than just family structure (intact vs divorced).

Given the findings presented above, it appears that the reactions of parents and children to the divorce or loss of a parent may be more important than the actual event itself. While hardships do accompany these changes

in family structure, interpersonal relationships need not suffer if a psychologically healthy adjustment is made.

Socioeconomic Status

In a study of the rate of psychological disorders, it was determined that the rate of psychological disorders was consistently higher in the lowest social classes. It was hypothesized that this may be due, in part, to social selection with pre-existing psychological disorder leading to low social class, or as social causation with the environmental factors in the lower class producing psychopathology. It was found that low socioeconomic status was more associated with higher rates of personality disorders, although not neurotic disorders. Part of the explanation for more psychological problems associated with the lower socioeconomic class was that there were more stressors such as economic, health, security, achievement barriers, and higher birthrates which contributed to more persistent disorders. These situation-specific disorders, which were related to the additional stressors, tended to support the notion of Social Causation, (Dohrenwend, 1969). With regard to child-rearing, the main goal of middle class mothers is for their children to be "well-adjusted." Working, lower class mothers report that they want their children to be

"nice, or good children" (Grey, 1969). Middle class mothers were above the median in the feeling that the appropriate expression of aggression should be allowed, while working class mothers tended to more severely punish their children for aggression. Consequently, lower class children tend to become more involved in fighting with other children than the middle class youngsters, since they have learned a more aggressive style of responding and are more likely to physically settle problems like their mothers. It was reported that middle class mothers seek out more sources for child-rearing ideas and place more restrictions and demands on their children. It was also found that middle class mothers were significantly more secure, independent, and positive. This may reflect the fact that the middle class mother has far fewer stressors with which to cope daily.

According to Bernard (1970), some characteristics of social class differences are seen regarding preparing for and emphasis on academic performance. The upper middle class students (7-12%) tend to be strongly motivated to succeed, are usually optimistic and confident. They generally manifest the behaviors which are approved of by teachers, with middle class orientation. The lower middle class (20-35%) are imbued with the importance of education and they are generally obedient and hard-working. They

are seldom discipline problems. Those students in the upper-lower class (25-40%) are children of poorer, blue-collar workers and may not have the motivation for school. There is generally little reading of books at home, and the pupils tend to have an "I don't care" attitude toward school. Their values may clash with the teachers' middle-class values. The lower-lower class students (15-25%) are generally fatalistically discouraged students. They work sporadically and are often truant, and aggressive. These students are not motivated and many may become discipline problems also.

In a study of school variables in behavior disorders in children, Lindholm, Touliatos, and Rich (1977) found that children in the lower socioeconomic classes display more problems than their peers in higher social classes. They studied those school variables such as cooperativeness, attentiveness, participation, maturity and self-concept/ adequacy feelings.

Hare (1975, 1976), found that among fifth grade students significant differences in general self-esteem were correlated with socioeconomic status, with self-esteem rising as socioeconomic status rises. The study suggested that socioeconomic status exercises greater negative influence on self-concept than race.

According to Osborne and Legette (1982), both black

and white children in the lower socioeconomic levels tend to have lower global self-concepts than those in the higher socioeconomic levels. They found, however, that race alone would not account for the lower self-concept in the lower socioeconomic group. Other findings contradict the notion of higher socioeconomic status being correlated to higher self-concept.

Cicirelli (1976) tested the hypothesis that children of low socioeconomic status have a more positive self-concept than middle class children because they have lower internal standards for judging their achievement experiences. The disparity between expectations and reality are greater in higher socioeconomic status children. Using self-concept measures, the findings suggested that children of low socioeconomic status had higher self-concept scores than children of higher socioeconomic levels. The study also suggests that low socioeconomic status children are aware of "middle class" expectations and may be reacting to the fact of not meeting such standards with defense mechanisms against anxiety, thereby reporting more positive self-concepts than would be expected. Supporting the notion of "middle class" expectations and possible anxiety, are the findings of the "Coleman Report on Educational Opportunity (1966): "It was also reported that black children attending

segregated schools tend to have a more positive self-concept than black children attending integrated schools since the segregated schools are less pressurizing and competitive."

Revealing the complicated nature of socioeconomic status and psychological development other studies indicate little differences. In a study of second and fifth grade school children, Phillips and Zigler (1980) determined that lower socioeconomic students had lower ideal self-images although their "real" self-image was not lower. They studied the discrepancy between ideal and real self using three self-concept measures and concluded that lower socioeconomic children were capable of developing positive self-images commensurate with white middle class peers.

Research on the self-concept of learning disabled children, reported that middle class children tend to have lower self-concepts than lower class children because there is greater discrepancy between parental expectations and the child's performance. While not statistically significant, the trend seemed to be present.

Fahey and Phillips (1981) studied 2,100 disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged students from six to eleven and one-half years. They completed a self-concept report technique and the conclusions reached indicated that there

was no significant difference on the positive and negative qualities between the disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged children when they measured global self-esteem. However, it may be that in specific areas such as school achievement, there may be significant differences in self-concept.

In a study of predictors of self-esteem, Savage (1981), concluded that socioeconomic status appears to have a greater influence on self-esteem than does race.

All things considered, the studies reported above indicate that while conflicting evidence exists regarding the relationship between socioeconomic status and psychological development, there does appear to be support for some correlation. As with divorce and other external stressors on the family, perhaps the nature of the reaction to the stressor is more significant than the actual event. This may help to explain the seemingly contradictory findings.

Maternal Age

The literature on the developmental tasks of adolescence suggests that the onset of motherhood during these early years might aggravate adjustment to parenting.

According to Cole (1965), nine important tasks of adolescent development have been identified. These

included the development of emotional, social and intellectual maturity; establishment of heterosexual interests; emancipation from home control; selection of an occupation; changes in the uses of leisure; development of a philosophy of life; and identification of self. Therefore, can a young mother be expected to understand the needs of a child for stability and security when her own needs are so similar?

According to Coletta (1981), for parents stressful events in the absence of social support have been related to increases in harsh and restrictive interactions with children. In a study of 50 adolescent mothers with a mean age of 15.6 years, the predictor of maternal behavior toward their children was the total amount of support they received. The higher levels of support, the more affectionate, the lower levels of support the more hostile, neglectful and rejecting. It was found that younger mothers' emotional support is often gone since they are usually no longer in school and previous peer interactions are severely limited. The younger mother especially needs emotional support in order to share frustrations and feelings, and in order to receive encouragement. Given that some evidence points to the mother-child relationship as a predictor of later social-emotional adjustment in the child, it would appear

that the younger the mother the greater the risk to this adjustment, that is, if the crucial support is missing.

In another study of childrearing by young mothers, Grow (1979), found that unmarried, young mothers had less support, less income and less education, and consequently were more indifferent or rejecting of their infants. They theorized that younger mothers tend to become disillusioned and are unprepared to settle down to a more routine, less carefree existence. Certainly, those mothers who have greater emotional support may tend to fare better, however, the adolescent parent is often not emotionally ready for domestic life. There is also evidence that age is merely one variable which contributes to the mother-child relationship.

Philliber and Graham (1981) investigated the relationship among mother's age and various dimensions of the mother-child interaction. They studied urban black and Hispanic women and controlled for socioeconomic status, parity and other demographic variables. The findings suggest that the age of the mother was not significantly related to any of the measures of mother-child interactions, when other important variables were controlled. Rather, the factor which was found to be most consistently related to these measures of interaction was the number of months the mother had been on welfare

since her child was born. The longer the mothers were on welfare, the more likely they were to be the usual caretakers. They were also less emotionally and verbally responsive to their children, spanked their children more, and were generally less likely to avoid restriction and punishment. It was therefore concluded that young mothers are not necessarily poor parents, rather, their socioeconomic status may be more important. Given the fact, however, that younger women may drop out of school thereby lowering their income-earning potential, they may be "setting themselves up" for a lower socioeconomic status which may negatively influence their ability to adequately parent their child.

According to Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957), older mothers were warmer toward their children except in the instance of the first born child where there was no significant difference between younger and older mothers. It was also reported that in general, younger mothers were more likely to be irritable, quick to punish and have more negative feelings toward their child. It may be, however, that other personality factors and self-concept are more important than age in determining the nature of the mother-child relationship.

Wise and Grossman (1980), have identified certain aspects of personality that are important in the

adaptation to pregnancy and parenting, namely, the relationship with one's mother, feminine identity, and ego integration. These generally have been evaluated as being poorly developed in adolescents. Therefore, the predictions for positive, optimistic psychological orientation toward parenting for this group is not encouraging. Wise and Grossman studied adolescent mothers and assessed their attitude toward their baby's father, peer relationships, anxieties and attitudes about babies in general. They found that age, race, social class, education and previous pregnancies had no significant impact on psychological adaptation to parenting. The adolescents studied were generally in good health, lived with their own mothers, and the father of the baby continued to be involved. The teenagers who were more independent from their families were less depressed and felt more positive toward babies. Teenagers who had a more positive identification were more independent of their families. The age of the mother as an isolated factor does not appear to be a predictor of obstetric and psychological difficulties. While the relationships between newborns and adolescent mothers may differ, this did not make the relationship less sound and healthy.

In another study of teenage mothers, Furstenberg (1976) found little variation in maternal adjustment and

childrearing practices according to age at onset of parenthood, feelings about the pregnancy, socioeconomic status, and degree of maternal involvement. It was found that the significance of these factors may have been overrated and that the capacity of the adolescent parent to respond adaptively to parenthood has been underrated.

In summary, it is still unclear what influence maternal age has on the mother-child relationship. Since chronological age is not always commensurate with social-emotional age, not all age-matched mothers will adapt to the parent role in the same manner and with the same degree of psychological adjustment. Most of the evidence suggests that lack of emotional and economic support may contribute to the young mother's adjustment to the parent role. Perceiving oneself as a successful mother with the ability to meet a child's needs, probably contributes more to a positive mother-child relationship than merely maternal age. Attitudes toward the child, and the psychological adjustment to a new, demanding role have a substantial influence on childrearing practices, and are generally unrelated to the age of the mother. It may be, however, that the intervening variables of emotional and economic support, psychological adjustment to motherhood, and self-concept are less well-developed and stable in the adolescent mother.

Therefore, it is concluded that the adolescent mother may be at a higher risk for developing inadequate parenting skills not because of her chronological age, but as a result of the lack of a support system and inadequate psychological adjustment.

Ethnic Background

Some research has attempted to determine the effect of ethnic background on psychological-social development. Separating race from socioeconomic status has been a difficult but necessary step in the investigations.

In terms of a broad category of psychological disorders running the gamut from neurosis and depression to psychosis, there was no evidence of a difference between whites and blacks in terms of rates of disorders (Dohrenwend, 1969).

During the fourth year of life, increase in racial awareness is most marked according to Davids (1973). Since the self-concept is based on one's experiences and since there has been a history of persecution of minorities it was commonly accepted that minority children will internalize these negative feelings and make them their own perception. However, in studying preschool children Davids found no significant differences between self-concept scores obtained from black and white

children. There was a tendency for it to be lower in blacks, however, this was not statistically significant. It was concluded that at this early age experiences outside of the family unit are minimal and therefore do not have as great an impact on self-concept as does the family or in particular the mother.

In the current school curricula there appears to be less prejudicial material being presented, however, middle class WASP values are still generally encouraged. There is some tolerance for racial and/or cultural differences, although the majority still rules in terms of values and behavior patterns (Glock & Siegelman, 1971). It may be that those students whose school environment is racially integrated may have more of a chance to discover essential similarities where they had previously assumed differences, and prejudices crumble. The behavior and interactions of these students may become more homogeneous.

According to Coleman (1981, 1982), in a study of black children in multicultural and non-multicultural day care programs, there were no significant differences in self-concepts between children in multicultural and non-multicultural programs. The impact of mixed values did not appear to influence the development of self-concept, at least at a young age. The findings

demonstrate that black children can and do feel positively about themselves as individuals. The black students in the multicultural settings did, however, appear to have a more pro-white racial attitude than those in non-multicultural programs.

In a study of eight to sixteen-year old children enrolled in a reading clinic, it was found that black children had slightly but significantly higher self-concepts when they were compared to a normative, non-clinical population (Rees, 1980).

Different findings were noted by Osborne and Legette (1982), and Hare (1975, 1976). Studies of self-concept differences noted that the mean scores of black students were significantly lower than those for white students on global self-concept as well as academic self-concept scores. Other significant differences were noted between black and white students in terms of school self-esteem and sociability. Home self-concept did not appear to vary by race, however. Other studies indicate no significant racial differences exist in self-concept development.

In a study of disparity between real and ideal self, Phillips and Zigler (1980), found that black students had smaller real-ideal self disparities. The findings suggest that perhaps the black students have initially lower aspirations and therefore the incongruence is not so

acutely felt. In spite of the smaller real-ideal self disparity, the findings also suggested that black children had real self-images commensurate with those of their white classmates.

Sampson (1981), studied multi-racial groups of students, and found no significant difference in self-concept among the different ethnic groups.

According to Dohrenwend (1969), the issue of race and mental health has yet to be resolved. Evidence seems to suggest that there is no difference between whites and blacks in the rates of certain psychological disorders. Some sociopathic tendencies are more pronounced among blacks and Puerto Ricans, however, this finding may be explained by the higher level of stressors in the black and Hispanic communities even when compared to whites in the same social class. There are often less social support systems available in the minority communities to help ameliorate the impact of the stressors. These differences in behavior may be due more to class membership than race.

It would appear from the conflicting evidence reported above, that the question of race and self-concept is not an easy one to pin down. It may well be that other cultural, economic and religious factors which may be associated with varying racial groups are intervening

variables which are not being controlled. Some evidence suggests that when socioeconomic status is controlled, racial differences become minimal.

Achievement and Self-Concept

It is not clearly demonstrated which came first, positive self-concept then successful school achievement, or vice versa.

In a study of the relationships among self-concept, school achievement and sensor-integration abilities in learning disabled children (Doyle, 1977, 1978), it was found that academic achievement and some sensory integration scores did not significantly correlate with self-concept. Only perceptual motor abilities were significant. It was concluded that a child develops a concept of self from his or her ability to manipulate the environment by performing motor-related tasks, a sort of performance, as opposed to academic achievement. It is true that as an infant and a toddler the child's environment involves manipulating toys and objects much more than any other type of activity, consequently, the extent to which the child is successful will certainly have an impact on his/her self-concept. After that stage of development, however, the success with more academic,

non-manipulable variables must have similar impact on the continued development of the self-concept.

According to Savage (1982), academic variables were found to account for the greatest proportion of variance in both situation-specific and "general" self-esteem. He concluded that academic achievement among fifth and sixth graders was a significant predictor of self-esteem.

Gronlund (1959) found that successful school achievement may attract recognition and respect from other students which in turn places the individual in a favorable position to be rated highly on a sociometric measure, indicating relatively good social adjustment. Another possible relationship is that being rated positively by peers (or reacted to positively by peers) contributes to school achievement. Both directions of influence are likely.

According to Leviton (1975), when children are accepted, approved and liked for what they are, they acquire an attitude of self-acceptance. With such an attitude, they have the freedom to venture forth into the school situation, and be successful. Personality characteristics such as kindness, cooperativeness, generosity, sincerity, helpfulness, considerateness and friendliness have frequently been mentioned as personality characteristics of both the highly socially accepted

individuals and those of high academic achievement.

Global self-concept has as one component academic self-esteem which may be related to school achievement. Children who possess the intellectual ability and academic skills necessary for successful school achievement are likely to feel good about themselves and develop a positive self-concept. It may also be true that a positive self-concept enhances school achievement in children already possessing adequate academic skills. In summary, the evidence suggests that there is an interaction effect between self-concept and school achievement with a reciprocal influence between the two variables.

Gender Differences and Psychological Development

There is some evidence to suggest gender differences in the rate of psychological development. In a study by Phillips and Zigler (1980), it was found that among a sample of boys and girls in second and fifth grades, boys had greater self-image disparities between ideal self and real self than girls. It was theorized that the disparity among girls may be due, in part, to lower aspirations of their ideal selves. Also supporting the contention that girls self-concepts are somewhat lower overall than boys, was the investigation by Gold, Brush and Sprotzer (1980)

where they sampled over 300 children in third and eighth grades. Their findings indicated that girls scored lower on the self-concept measure than boys. The girls saw themselves as less intelligent and less self-confident although they did not relate this to sex stereotyping. For example, they personally did not feel that all girls are less intelligent or less confident than boys.

Still, other studies reveal that no sex differences exist when examining self-concept. McIntire and Drummond (1977) investigated the relative contribution of a variety of variables on self-concept development in fourth grade children. They found that personality variables such as emotional stability, emotional lability and self-doubt accounted for 44.3 percent of the variance in self-concept measures. They determined that sex, ethnicity, and intellectual ability were of little predictive value. Because not all the variance was accounted for they determined that there may be other unknown variables which contribute to self-concept development. Hare (1975, 1976) in his investigation also determined that no significant sex differences were noted among fifth grade students. He determined that other variables have a greater impact on the development of self-concept.

Looking separately at social-emotional functioning and sex differences, evidence suggests that boys had more

problems in terms of school variables than did girls. A behavior checklist was utilized to determine the frequency of conduct, personality, and social problems in school. It was found that boys were generally more uncooperative, disruptive, inattentive, immature and antisocial than girls (Lindholm, Touliatos, & Rich, 1977). Again, no clear cut evidence provides information as to significant, consistent, sex differences in self-concept development and social-emotional functioning.

Ancillary Intervening Variables

There are several other maternal and family-related factors, (maternal level of education, birth order, sibling number and status of child in the family) which may also serve to affect the psychological development of children.

There does not appear to be much evidence related to the relationship among mother's education, childrearing practices, self-concept, and/or offspring adjustment. However, in a study by Dohrenwend (1969) it was found that individuals displaying more sociopathic responses on a questionnaire generally had fewer years of education. In fact, sociopathy was inversely related to educational level. Whether the additional exposure to education "taught" socially-acceptable responses, or exposure to

formal education contributed to more open-minded, thoughtful responses is not clear. As in the studies of maternal age and socioeconomic status on childrearing practices, it may well be that lower maternal educational levels are not directly related to inadequate parenting, and the poor self-concept development of children. It may be that it is just one link in a vicious cycle of little education, lack of employment opportunity, poverty, despair, poor self-concept, inadequate parenting, and maladjusted children.

According to Forer (1976), since the family is the child's first social group the child is always influenced by the members of the unit. It was found that firstborn children followed by other children in the family have more need for approval than laterborns, and only children. Therefore they tend to have lower self-esteem than later children. Only children tend to have higher self-esteem than those from any other position and firstborns and onlies tend to seek approval of important people more often. Based on these findings, we may expect that later borns and onlies will be more compliant in the classroom situation than firstborns.

Sociability is the natural disposition to join others for companionship and social relations rather than to satisfy a need for emotional support and/or approval.

Laterborn children have been found to be more socially adept than elder siblings. They tend to not place as much value on the approval of authority figures. The increased interaction and communication between siblings carries over to easier social relationships with adults. Youngest children are usually more popular with peers than the others. They are often fun-loving and lighthearted. Middle second borns are often placed in a position of competition for attention and approval. They may take on a negative identity as they search for Self. Later middles are generally well-adjusted because there is less pressure on them and they have more freedom to be themselves.

In a study of temperament (Persson-Blennow & McNeil, 1981), no certain conclusions could be drawn regarding the question of an association between temperament and birth order. The study investigated temperament at six months, one year and two years and concluded that it may be that temperament differences do not arise relating to birth order until the child is older.

Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957), studied the child-rearing patterns and attitudes of 379 mothers. They found that 62 percent of the mothers were judged to be "delighted" about their first pregnancy, but when the child was the second or later, only 34 percent of the

mothers were so judged. Other evidence, however, suggests that later born children are more readily accepted because the parents feel more comfortable and capable in their parenting abilities. Currently the evidence does not appear to be conclusive regarding birth order, social-emotional adjustment and self-concept.

Based on evidence of studies examining socioeconomic status, child-rearing attitudes, self-concept and other variables, it may be hypothesized that the extent to which additional children contribute to the economic, social, physical or psychological difficulties of the mother and/or family, may be related to the attitudes of the mother toward her child. Therefore, additional children may be a blessing or a curse depending upon many factors.

In the United States in 1974, there were 970,000 divorces with an average of 1.22 children per divorce. A conservative estimate suggests that there are 15 million children under 18 living in step-families. The step-family may bring with it foreign and inexperienced ways of communicating. The new family unit may be assailed by ambivalent feelings and behaviors, and by new attitudes which are in conflict with old ones. However, according to Roosevelt and Lofas (1976), the parents in a step-family may have developed a kind of second sight derived from prior experience and the family may

experience a new found harmony. In any family situation where the mother-child relationship is not "natural" such as in adopted, step, foster and extended circumstances, there is the possibility of communication difficulties and feelings of estrangement. As previously mentioned in the introduction, however, the biological fact of motherhood does not necessarily lead to appropriate, nurturing mother-child attitudes and practices either.

Recapitulation

This chapter has attempted to relate maternal and family-related variables to the development of the self-concept and social-emotional functioning of children. It appears that mothers' attitudes toward their children affect the development of identity and trust, and subsequently influence overall psychological adjustment. Evidence suggests that family warmth, accepting attitudes, and clearly defined limits contribute to psychologically healthy children who have generally positive self-concepts and who interact in socially appropriate ways. Maternal self-concept was also found to be related to the development of children whose adjustment to life is healthy. A positive self-concept apparently allows the mother to develop accepting attitudes toward the child, and to make a positive adjustment to motherhood. Being

generally satisfied with their lives, mothers with positive self-concepts have the ability to meet their childrens' needs, to be nurturing and affectionate. This acceptance of the child thereby contributes to the growth of a trusting, secure individual, one capable of interacting positively with others. In many families today one parent is absent as a result of divorce, separation or death. In these cases, the mother is the general caretaker and the impact of this situation on the child is an area of concern. The findings suggest that the reactions of children and their families to a divorce or loss of a parent is actually more important to a healthy psychological adjustment than the actual event itself. Children who are provided with support, are allowed to communicate if possible with their absent parent, and are allowed to express their feelings, often adjust fairly well to the change in family structure. Other variables may also have an impact on childrens' development of self.

In examining the evidence relating socioeconomic status to psychological development, there appear to be substantial contradictory findings. What seems to emerge is the notion that the nature of the reaction to physical and economic stressors associated with differing socioeconomic levels is more important than the actual

socioeconomic level in terms of psychological adjustment. Where there are greater expectations which are not met, and where values clash with the reality of the situation, the influence of socioeconomic level of psychological adjustment is more acutely felt. Therefore, a low socioeconomic level does not necessarily contribute to psychological maladjustment, nor does high socioeconomic status guarantee a well-adjusted secure child.

Motherhood places unique demands on a woman whether she is healthy or poor, married or unmarried, secure or insecure. It was often believed that a mother's age, especially if she were too young, would adversely influence her child's development. Some evidence supports this conclusion especially when the young mother is alone and has no support system. Adolescents have emotional and physical needs themselves which often go unmet when they become young mothers. However, other findings suggest that the adjustment to, and acceptance of the parent role, in addition to the ability to meet another's needs, are more important factors than mere chronological age when considering the psychological growth of the child. In some cases, however, young mothers often end their education early, may spend much of their lives at or near the lowest socioeconomic level and therefore, may provide

a higher risk for problem parenting and difficulty with their children.

Sex and ethnic difference have often been examined when addressing the psychological development of children. There appears to be a substantial amount of conflicting evidence which suggests that other economic, cultural, social and familial factors contaminate their influence. For example, findings suggest that the extent to which a child contributes to the economic, social, physical and/or emotional difficulties of the mother and family is related to the psychological growth of the child. The child may be seen as a blessing and totally accepted or viewed as a burden and rejected. This maternal adjustment to, and attitudes toward development of the child occur not only between natural mother and child, but also between adopted mother and child, and step-mother and child. At times there are feelings of estrangement and at other times new found family harmony. It has been found that natural motherhood is not a guarantee of a nurturing, accepting mother-child relationship.

When consideration of a child's social-emotional functioning in school is taken, that child's achievement level must be addressed. The evidence seems to indicate an interaction effect with achievement and self-concept, with a reciprocal influence between the two.

It appears from the nature of the related literature that a mother's self-concept and attitudes toward her child seem to be significantly related to the self-concept and social-emotional functioning of her child. Other intervening variables also appear to exert some influence, however, the nature and direction of that influence is not clearly established.

Given the complexity of the psychological development of the child, it is not surprising that there are many variables reportedly contributing to said development. The present study was designed to further delineate these variables and determine the extent to which they affect the social-emotional functioning and self-concept development of the child.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Hypotheses to be Tested

In order to answer the research questions presented in Chapter I, the following null hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between maternal-child relationship attitudes, and the social-emotional functioning of children.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between maternal-child relationship attitudes, and the self-concept of children.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between maternal self-concept, and the social-emotional functioning of children.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant relationship between maternal self-concept, and the self-concept of children.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in the social-emotional functioning of children across family socioeconomic levels.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in the self-concept of children across socioeconomic levels.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the social-emotional functioning of children across maternal marital status circumstances.

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference in the self-concept of children across maternal marital status circumstances.

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference in the social-emotional functioning of children across ethnic background conditions.

Hypothesis 10: There is no significant difference in the self-concept of children across ethnic background conditions.

Hypothesis 11: There is no significant relationship between achievement level and the social-emotional functioning of children.

Hypothesis 12: There is no significant relationship between achievement level and the self-concept of children.

Hypothesis 13: There is no significant difference in the social-emotional functioning of children across genders.

Hypothesis 14: There is no significant difference in the self-concept of children across genders.

Description of the Research Setting

The subjects were drawn from nine elementary schools in three south surburban Cook County school districts. One district has been totally integrated for ten years and includes children from a wide variety of socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds. The other two districts are predominantly white, and middle class with relatively small minority representation.

Subjects

The subjects for this study included 94 sixth grade students selected from nine elementary schools and fifteen individual classrooms. In addition to the students, their mothers also served as subjects in the investigation. The total subject number was comprised of 47 mother-son pairs and 47 mother-daughter pairs. These 94 subject mother-child pairs represented 25 percent of the total 380 possible pairs of sixth grade students and mothers in the three districts.

Procedure

Prior to the testing, the superintendents of ten south surburban Cook County school districts were contacted and asked for approval to conduct the research study in their elementary schools. Of the superintendents

contacted, three agreed to the investigation. The school districts contacted were all located in the same general geographic region (south surburban) and had enrollments of over 1,000 students. After receiving permission from the superintendents and school boards, the sixth grade class lists were obtained and letters describing the study along with a consent form for participation and a release of information form were mailed to the mothers of each of the 380 sixth grade students (see Appendix E). Of the 380 consent forms mailed, 173 (46%) were returned indicating 113 (30%) affirming, and 60 (16%) declining the invitation to participate in the study. To those 113 mother-child pairs for whom consent was obtained, a packet of the following forms was sent along with instructions for completion, and a self-addressed, stamped envelope for their return:

2 - Tennessee Self Concept Scales

1 - Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation

1 - Demographic variables form

1 - letter with instructions (see Appendix F)

Of the 113 packets of test instruments mailed, 94 (83%) were completed and returned. Therefore, the final sample represented 25 percent of the population universe of sixth grade students and their mothers.

While awaiting the arrival of the test instruments which the mothers and children completed at home, each of the fifteen classrooms was visited by the investigator, and the students and teachers were taught how to complete the repertory grid. The students were encouraged to make honest appraisals of themselves and their peers, and anonymity was assured. Since the investigator took time to explain each construct and to answer any questions, good rapport appeared to be established. The students were instructed to circle a 3-digit code number on the grid corresponding to their name. This code number served to identify each mother-child pair and was utilized as the only identifying piece of information. After the repertory grids were completed, the pages with the ratings and code numbers were removed from the list of names thereby assuring confidentiality. The repertory grid was completed within one-half hour for most students and their teachers. Also obtained were the childrens' fifth grade standardized achievement grade equivalent scores (total) and a standardized measure of intelligence. After completion of the study instruments, the involvement by the teachers, students and mothers was terminated.

Instrumentation

Repertory Grid Technique:

To assess the social-emotional functioning of the children, a repertory grid technique was utilized (see Appendix A for details). Kelly (1955) developed his theory of personal constructs and the repertory grid technique to examine sets of bipolar constructs or discriminations such as honest-dishonest, nice-nasty. Kelly assumed that we never affirm anything without simultaneously denying something. For example, if we feel a person is a responsible individual we affirm this notion and by so doing we, at the same time, deny that the person is irresponsible. We do not necessarily verbalize what we are denying, however, it is implied by our affirmation.

The grid used in the present study consisted of ten constructs which have been demonstrated to be the best discriminating categories for predicting socially and emotionally adjusted children. According to Gresham (1982), there are many traits which when measured in multiple ways will distinguish between those children with behavior disorders and those without. Some of those traits found to be distinguishing characteristics are the ability of the child to sit quietly for periods of time, the ability to focus attention on the teacher or task, to establish and maintain eye contact, to be able to convey

feelings appropriately and to have appropriate affect for a given situation. Gresham utilized a social-emotional behavior scale to predict group membership (emotionally disabled versus nonhandicapped) in elementary school children. Gresham examined the following thirteen general areas closely:

1. Independent work
2. Expressing feelings
3. Positive attitudes toward self
4. Movement around environment
5. Attending behavior
6. Classroom discussion
7. Coping with conflict
8. Completing tasks
9. Gaining attention
10. Following directions
11. On-task behavior
12. Accepting authority
13. Ethical behavior

Of these thirteen categories, the first five were shown to be the best predictors of group membership. In the present investigation, the following ten constructs were derived from the best discrimination categories listed above.

1. Uses free time constructively
2. Expresses feelings and controls self
3. Makes positive statements about self
4. Moves around the classroom and school without disturbing others
5. Listens to the teacher and follows directions
6. Gets along well with others, doesn't fight or argue
7. Works hard on class work
8. Helps others, shares ideas and supplies
9. Is generally trustworthy and honest
10. Is an important member of the class

Each of the ten constructs was presented and discussed so that the definitions would be consistent and so that each student would have the same, clear understanding of the variable. The students and their teacher in each of the 15 classrooms were asked to rate each of their classmates and themselves on a scale of 7-1, with 7 being "Most Like the Student; and 1 being "Least Like the Student". (The teachers did not complete a self-rating).

In his investigation of sociometry in the classroom, Gronlund (1959) concluded that although the studies of teachers reflect a moderate degree of accuracy in perceiving the social relations of pupils, the use of

sociometric measures is essential for providing a comprehensive picture of the student. He did list some limitations on sociometric measures which included the fact that the ratings may not reveal all aspects of socialization and status, nor all personality components. Limitations are minimized, however, by supplementing sociometric results with more than one rating. Thus, self, peer and teacher ratings serve to maximize the information obtained.

In a study of teacher and peer rating agreement, Tyne and Flynn (1981) found 55 percent agreement in identifying students with interpersonal adjustment problems in the higher elementary grades. The peers and teachers appeared to be in agreement on the identification of at-risk children. According to Spivak and Swift (1977), in a study of high-risk children, it was noted that teacher ratings were effective predictors of later child school adjustment problems. However, in another study of teacher ratings, Stevenson, Parker, Wilkenson, Hegion and Fish (1976) found that the average ratings for girls made by teachers were generally higher than those for boys. It was not established whether the girls actually demonstrated better classroom adjustment than boys, or whether the women teachers were biased in favor of girls. Overall, the predictive validity of the teacher ratings

was high for achievement although ratings of personal-social characteristics were more elusive.

It would appear then that most findings suggest fairly close agreement between teachers' judgment and pupils' choices on a sociometric measure. This further supports the fact that teachers' judgments of pupils' social relationships should be used as supplement to sociometric results. With regard to self-ratings, pupils with low sociometric status according to peer ratings have generally lower adjustment on self-ratings than those with high ratings. Overall then, there appears to be agreement among all three measures--peer, self and teacher ratings.

It has been demonstrated (Ahmann & Glock, 1975), that on rating scales, specific examples of behavior will do much to offset disparity of judgment that arises because different raters employ different criteria in judging pupils according to general descriptive terms. The constructs which comprised the repertory grid technique were generally stated behaviorally in order to eliminate individual interpretations.

According to Singleton (1982), in a study of 127 fifth grade boys, it was concluded that children's perceptions were more strongly influenced by actual behavior than by reputational information. Children were accurate in their perceptions of the amount of cooperative

behavior exhibited, and greater amounts of cooperative behavior were significantly positively correlated with greater liking and higher ratings on the sociometric rating scales.

In order to effectively assess affective characteristics in the schools, it is important to establish good rapport with the students and to insure anonymity. This helps to eliminate the influence of social desirability (the tendency to respond in socially acceptable ways), and acquiescence (the tendency to agree with statements if unsure) when students respond (Ander, 1981). Also, a Likert-type scale is a fairly easy system to use and it allows each individual to respond in terms of direction (positive to negative) and intensity (high to low).

Studies by Witrol and Thompson (1953), and Thompson and Powell (1951), have long since established the stability of sociometric results over time at the elementary school level, and the trend toward increased stability with increased age. They found stability coefficients which ranged from .60 to .92 on the sixth grade populations tested. The use of more than one measure also tended to increase the stability.

On the social-emotional functioning measure utilized in the present investigation, the highest possible score

obtainable on each of the three ratings (self, peer, and teacher) is 700, the lowest 100. Each of the rating scores was considered separately when analyzing the data to ascertain the individual influence each exerts and to determine what, if any, relationship exists among them.

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale

To measure the self-concept of the children and their mothers the Tennessee Self Concept Scale was utilized (see Appendix B). The scale consists of 100 self-descriptive statements to which the subject gives one of five responses ranging from "Completely True" to "Completely False". A Total P (positive) score is obtained which is considered to be a measure of the overall level of self-esteem. The Total P (positive) score represents a composite of the following measures:

1. Identity (What I am)
2. Behavior (What I do)
3. Moral-Ethical self
4. Family self
5. Self-satisfaction
6. Physical self
7. Personal self
8. Social self

According to Fitts (1972) in his study of self-concept and psychopathology, he developed the Tennessee Self Concept Scale in 1955, and found that the scale identified diagnosed neurotic individuals by their low self-esteem measures. He found that individuals whose personality traits were deviant had deviant self-concepts and that personality and behavior were compatible with self-concept. He reported that individuals develop coping mechanisms to avoid any loss of self-esteem and thereafter become fixated at a level of coping and carry their self-concepts and accompanying behavior into adulthood.

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale was normed on a broad sample of over 600 people ranging in ages from 12 to 68 years old. The sample included representation from nearly all social, economic and ethnic groups, and educational levels from sixth grade through the Ph.D. degree. The Test-Retest reliability coefficient for the Total P score was .92. In addition, coefficients for the Empirical scales ranged from .87 - .92. Validation procedures utilized included content validity, discrimination between groups, correlation with other personality measures, and personality changes under particular circumstances. It was found that the self-concept scale significantly discriminated between individuals along the psychological health continuum. It

also correlated well with other personality measures such as Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. Finally, to insure content validity, an item was retained in the Scale only if there was unanimous agreement by the judges that it was classified correctly.

For purposes of the present investigation, individual scores were obtained for each of the eight measures comprising the Total P score. These ranged from T score values of 01-99 with the higher scores relfecting a more positive self-concept. Scores were also obtained for the Empirical Scales as well. These scales are related to measures of psychological health and range on a continuum from psychosis to personality integration. The Empirical Scales, however, were not utilized to derive the self-concept measure.

The Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation

In order to ascertain the maternal-child relationship attitudes, the Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation scale (MCRE) was utilized (see Appendix C). This instrument, developed by Roth (1980) objectively measures mothers' attitudes and how they relate to their children. For the present study, each child's mother completed the MCRE

"keeping in mind" the subject child while considering the statements.

The MCRE consists of 49 statements measuring four important areas of the mother-child relationship--Acceptance, Overprotection, Overindulgence and Rejection. The Acceptance scale was designed to measure loving, affectionate mother-child relationships, sincere interest in the child, firmness and nondestructive controls, reasonable demands of the child and perceptions of the child as a good child. The scale labeled Overprotection measures fear of neglect indicated by parents' overconcern with the child's health and achievement, excessive control and prevention of the development of independent behavior. The Overindulgence scale measures excessive gratification of the requests and demands of the child, lack of parental control, and constant defense of the child from attacks by other children and authorities. The fourth scale labeled Rejection measures neglect of the child ranging from disavowal to more subtle means such as leaving the child to fend for his or her self, excessive punishment, humiliation of the child, and denying the child pleasures and advantages. The scales of the MCRE may be placed on an acceptance-nonacceptance dimension representing a positive-negative polarity. Attitudes such as rejection, overprotection and overindulgence are placed on the

negative end being forms of nonacceptance and devaluation of the child by the mother, and acceptance-type attitudes are found on the positive end of the dimension.

A split-half technique using Pearson-product moment correlations, was applied to the first-half versus second-half scale scores to obtain reliability estimates. The reliability coefficients were .57 for Acceptance, .53 for Overprotection, .41 for Overindulgence, and .47 for Rejection. A measure of validity on the test was the intercorrelation between the scales. It was expected that a high negative correlation should exist between the Acceptance scale and the nonacceptance scales. The mean coefficient of correlation was -.55, with Overprotection (-.68), Overindulgence (-.47) and Rejection (-.45) being most closely related to nonacceptance attitudes in that order.

Demographic Variables Form

A short demographic variables form was developed to ascertain various maternal and familial characteristics which may have an influence on the self-concept and social-emotional functioning of children (see Appendix D for details). The information obtained included mother's marital status, age and educational level, number of siblings, birth order and sex of the subject child, race,

occupational status, and status of the subject child (adopted, step or natural).

The socioeconomic status of the subjects' families was determined by securing information about the occupational status of the head-of-household. The occupation description (title and duties) was then rated on a 7 point scale according to the "Revised Occupational Rating Scale from W. L. Warner, M. Meeker, and K. Eell's Index of Status Characteristics" (Miller, 1964). According to Warner (1949), occupation is the best predictor of either social participation or the whole socioeconomic cluster represented by the general factor identified by factor analysis. In a study by Hollingshead and Redlich (1958), the Occupation Scale was found to be the best single predictor of social class position within a seven point range.

The information obtained from the demographic variables form was correlated with the measures of the child's self-concept and social-emotional functioning.

Treatment of the Data

In order to test the hypotheses, Analysis of Variance, Bivariate Regression, and Multiple Regression statistical analyses were utilized. Descriptive statistics and measures of correlation were also obtained

on the dependent variables. The following chapter presents the results of the hypotheses testing as well as the descriptions and correlations of the data.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

In this chapter the data collected will be analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistical procedures. The test of significance used for each of the null hypotheses numbered 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13 and 14 is Analysis of Variance. Bivariate Regression was employed to test null hypotheses numbered 3 and 4, and Multiple Regression was utilized to test null hypotheses numbered 1, 2, 11 and 12. Finally an overall statistical treatment of all of the data is presented as a result of the Multiple Regression Analysis procedures.

Intercorrelations Among the Dependent Variables

The dependent variable of social-emotional functioning is a composite of three individual parts, a self-rating (SESR), a teacher rating (SETR) and a peer rating (SEPR). Each of these parts was statistically tested and analyzed separately. The other dependent variable of self-concept was presented as a single, one-part variable.

Although both social-emotional functioning and self-concept tend to reflect psychological health, they

are considered to be different, independent measures. To determine what, if any, relationship exists among the dependent variables, correlation coefficients were obtained.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics - Dependent Variables

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range	n
Child's self-concept CSCT	47.66	11.34	22-74	92
Social-emotional functioning (teacher rating) SETR	487.99	151.11	110-700	93
Social-emotional functioning (peer rating) SEPR	490.62	94.72	266-663	93
Social-emotional functioning (self rating) SESR	534.22	100.75	210-680	93

Table 2 presents the intercorrelation coefficients obtained among of the dependent variables.

Table 2

Summary of Correlation Coefficients (r) and Coefficients of Determination (R^2) for Dependent Variables

	CSCT		SETR		SEPR		SESR	
	r	R^2	r	R^2	r	R^2	r	R^2
CSCT	1.00	1.00	0.29	.08	0.21	.04	0.39	.15
SETR	0.29	.08	1.00	1.00	0.62	.38	0.32	.10
SEPR	0.21	.04	0.62	.38	1.00	1.00	0.56	.31
SESR	0.39	.15	0.32	.10	0.56	.31	1.00	1.00

An examination of the correlations presented in the table reveals that self-concept and social-emotional functioning are not highly correlated and, in fact, represent two distinct features of psychological health. Although an individual's global self-concept may include a school-related component, the two variables are not closely related. It is interesting to note that the self-concept measure is more closely correlated to the self-rating on the social-emotional functioning instrument. This is not unusual given that both are self measures.

Examining the social-emotional functioning rating scores reveals that the ratings between teachers and peers are most closely related (R^2 =.38) indicating some agreement between the two when assessing and rating students on school-related behaviors. There also appears to be some agreement between peers and students' self-ratings (R^2 =.31). The least amount of correlation appears to exist between students' self-ratings and their teachers' ratings of them. Students on the average tend to view themselves in a more positive, well-adjusted light than do their teachers or peers. Since there were differences among the ratings, each social-emotional functioning score was correlated separately with the independent variables.

Intercorrelations Among the Independent Variables

In chapter three, coefficients of correlation were presented for each of the four attitude measures which comprise the Mother-child Relationship Evaluation scale (MCRE). Similar negative correlations were noted between the acceptance attitude measure (MCAA) and each of the nonacceptance attitude measures in the present study. These data support the relationships presented in chapter three.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics - Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation (MCRE)

Mother-Child Relationship Attitudes	Mean	SD	Range*	n
Acceptance (MCAA)	57.60	9.51	25-75	94
Overprotection (MCOP)	39.96	8.90	25-66	94
Overindulgence (MCOI)	45.48	8.46	25-68	94
Rejection (MCAR)	46.35	8.60	25-63	94

*Scores within the average (normal) range on the MCRE were between 43-57.

Table 4

Correlation Coefficients (r) and Coefficients of Determination (R^2) of Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation (MCRE)

	MCAA		MCOP		MCOI		MCAR	
	r	R^2	r	R^2	r	R^2	r	R^2
MCAA	1.00	1.00	-.53	.28	-.28	.02	-.48	.23
MCOP	- .53	.28	1.00	1.00	.51	.26	.40	.16
MCOI	- .28	.02	.51	.26	1.00	1.00	.37	.13
MCAR	-0.48	.23	.40	.16	.37	.37	1.00	1.00

As was found during the development of the MCRE, the attitude measures of overprotection, rejection and overindulgence were found to negatively correlate with the acceptance attitude measure. The measure of overprotection appears to be most negatively correlated with acceptance, followed by rejection.

Correlated positively with each other were the overprotection, and overindulgence attitude measures which would initially appear to be the opposite. However, both attitude measures involve an unusually large amount of involvement with the child and may in certain situations

occur simultaneously. For purposes of this study, each of the four attitude measures was treated as an independent variable and correlated separately with each dependent variable.

Analysis of the Null Hypotheses

In this section a thorough analysis of the study hypotheses is presented. Where regression analysis was employed, T values were calculated for statistical significance testing. Where ANOVA was utilized an F-ratio was calculated for significance testing. A statistical association was considered significant if the t value or F-ratio exceeded the .05 level of statistical significance. Interpretation of the findings will be discussed for each hypothesis. For those hypotheses which have multiple parts, each section will be analyzed separately and also considered as a whole.

Null Hypothesis One

(There is no significant relationship between maternal-child relationship attitudes, and the social-emotional functioning of children.)

The data associated with null hypothesis one are included in three sections since each social-emotional functioning rating was analyzed separately.

Part A - This section analyzes the relationship among social-emotional functioning (self-rating - SESR) and each of the four components of the mother-child

relationship evaluation acceptance (MCAA), overprotection (MCOP), overindulgence (MCOI) and rejection (MCAR). Since null hypothesis one is being statistically treated by the use of regression analysis, it was necessary to assume a linear relationship among the maternal-child relationship attitudes and the social-emotional functioning scores. The end product of the regression analysis ideally is to be able to specify a regression equation that may be used to predict and explain the dependent variable.

An inspection of the plots of the residuals reveals no clearly discernible linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables. They appear to be randomly distributed within a range of -3.5 to +2.0. There is no clearly described pattern to the distribution, that is, they do not change in any systematic way with the independent variable. The failure of the scatterplot to suggest a linear relationship indicates a failure to reject null hypothesis one. Table 5 presents a statistical analysis of the variables which confirms the lack of significance.

Table 5

Summary of Multiple Regression of Social-Emotional Functioning (self-rating) and Mother-Child Relationship Attitudes

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t	PR>t
Acceptance (MCAA)	-1.59	1.39	-1.14	.26
Overprotection (MCOP	-2.04	1.57	-1.30	.20
Overindulgence (MCOI)	-0.45	1.51	-0.30	.76
Rejection (MCAR)	0.05	1.45	0.03	.97
Constant	725.20	5.06	143.21	.0001

n=92 R^2=.031 MSE=101.37

F=.72 df = 92

As may be seen from Table 5 the calculated values of t (-1.14, - 1.30, - 0.30 and .03) are not significant. The probability that the slope equals zero ranges from .20 to .97 and, in addition, the coefficient of multiple determination, R^2, indicates that the mother-child relationship attitudes account for only 3% of the variance in social-emotional functioning as measured by a self-

rating. Therefore, part A of null hypothesis one is not rejected.

Part B - This section analyzes the relationship among social-emotional functioning (teacher rating - SETR) and each of the four components of the mother-child relationship evaluation - acceptance (MCAA), overprotection (MCOP), overindulgence (MCOI) and rejection (MCAR). Once again, inspection of the plots of the residuals reveals no clearly discernible linear relationship. They appear to be randomly distributed within a range of -2.5 to 1.5. The scatterplot for the acceptance component of the independent variable, however, appears to have a distribution of values around higher points which is not characteristic of a healthy plot of residuals. The scatterplots do not suggest a linear relationship and statistical analysis of the variables (see Table 6 for details) confirms the lack of significance.

Table 6

Summary of Multiple Regression of Social-Emotional Functioning (teacher rating) and Mother-Child Relationship Attitudes

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t	PR>t
Acceptance	0.56	2.03	.27	.78
Overprotection	-2.83	2.29	-1.24	.21
Overindulgence	-0.73	2.21	- .33	.74
Rejection	-2.19	2.12	-1.03	.30
Constant	704.52	208.72	3.38	.001

n=92 R^2=.085 MSE=147.74

F=2.06 df=92

As may be seen from Table 6 the calculated values of t (.27, - 1.24, -.33 & -1.03) are not significant. The probability that the slope equals zero ranges from .21 to .78 and, in addition, the coefficient of multiple determination, R^2, indicates that mother-child relationship attitudes account for only 8.5% of the variance in social-emotional functioning as measured by a teacher rating. Therefore, part B of null hypthesis one is also not rejected.

Part C - This section analyzes the relationship among social-emotional functioning (peer rating-SEPR) and each of the four components of the mother-child relationship evaluation acceptance (MCAA), overprotection (MCOP) overindulgence (MCOI), and rejection (MCAR). A perusal of the residual plots reveals no clearly delineated linear relationship. The values appear to clump together on the MCAA and MCOP scatterplots and all the values are distributed in a range of -2.5 to 2.0. The scatterplots do not suggest any linear relationship and the formal statistical analyses of the data support this conclusion. Table 7 presents the results of the statistical testing.

Table 7

Summary of Multiple Regression of Social-Emotional Functioning (peer rating) and Mother-Child Relationship Attitudes

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t	PR>t
Acceptance	0.77	1.31	.59	.56
Overprotection	-1.48	1.47	-1.01	.32
Overindulgence	-0.33	1.42	- .23	.82
Rejection	0.44	1.36	.33	.74
Constant	499.89	134.30	3.72	.0003

n=92 R^2=.04 MSE=95.06

F=.84 df=92

As may be seen from Table 7 the calculated values of t (.59, -1.01, -.23 & .33) are not significant. The probability that the slope equals zero ranges from .31 to .81 and the coefficient of multiple determination, R^2, indicates that the mother-child relationship attitudes accounts for only 4% of the variance in social-emotional functioning as measured by a peer rating. Therefore, part C of hypothesis one is not rejected.

Since all parts of null hypothesis one were retained, the most legitimate interpretation of hypothesis one is that evidence for a conclusion has not been established. Not rejecting hypothesis one does not necessarily indicate that there is no relationship among mother-child relationship attitudes and the social-emotional functioning of children. Rather, it demonstrates that no relationship is discernible when measured as it was with a sample population of this size.

Interpretation of hypothesis one must involve an exploration into the variety of reasons why the null hypothesis was not rejected. Some of the most common reasons why a retained null hypothesis occurs are:

1. The null hypothesis is false, however, internal validity problems contaminated the investigation thereby clouding the actual relationship among the variables.

2. The null hypothesis is false, however, the research design lacked the power to reject it.

3. The null hypothesis is indeed true.

Because the statistical treatment in hypothesis one involves regression analysis, there are additional possibilities why failure occurred in uncovering statistical significance. These reasons are:

4. inadequate sample size

5. Type II error

6. Specification error

7. Restricted variance in the independent variable.

It is not possible to know which reasons are true and therefore it cannot be established that any one reason should be considered the primary possibility.

With regard to internal validity problems for this study, extraneous variables were controlled by developing individual hypotheses for each of those independent variables which may possibly be related to social-emotional functioning in children. Of course, it is still possible that some independent variable was overlooked and is affecting the relationship.

In terms of the research design power, the sample size, heterogeneity of the subjects and the nature of the statistic used to test the hypothesis were taken into account. The sample size approached 100 which may be considered respectable and lends itself to sophisticated

statistical analysis. The population of sixth grade students and their mothers represented several ethnic groups, ranging in socioeconomic/occupational status from unskilled workers at low SES levels to professional individuals at the highest SES levels. The demographics of the subjects' families were also diverse. Scores on the measures of the dependent variables ranged from nearly the lowest score to nearly the highest score possibly obtained.

When consideration is given to the instruments utilized, it is evident that they are designed to measure the variable as accurately as possible. Development of the social-emotional functioning repertory grid instrument incorporated current data on the subject of social-emotional functioning and followed established criteria in the design of the sociometric form and the presentation of the measure. The hypotheses formulated included those variables thought to have some relationship and the choice of multiple regression analysis insures that the most powerful appropriate statistic will be used to test the hypotheses.

Discussion of reason three, the null hypothesis is in fact true, shall be considered later after the more technical problems are covered. The question of inadequate sample size has been demonstrated to be a somewhat unlikely reason for failure to uncover

statistical significance. It may be, however, that a significantly larger sample size may help to detect more subtle relationships. The question of Type II error concerns appear when the researcher has chosen a .01 statistical significance level and the calculations show significance at the .05 level. One might wonder if the significance level was set too high since the null hypothesis might be significant at a level between .01 and .05. At the .01 level, the null hypothesis would not be rejected, however, at a lower significance level (.02 - .05) the null hypothesis would be rejected. The .05 level of significance was selected for this study and the calculations showed that the values of t and PR>t lacked any statistical significance. Therefore, the probability that Type II error (accepting a false null hypothesis) was committed is an unlikely reason.

In considering the possibility that the regression equation has misspecified the relationship among social-emotional functioning and maternal-child relationship attitudes, the analysis of the plot of residuals should be reconsidered. If the relationship follows a curve, rather than a straight line, this curvilinearity would be causing lack of statistical significance being shown. However, the scatterplot of scores related to testing null hypothesis one shows neither a linear, nor a nonlinear pattern. Since no

pattern is clearly discernible, it may well be that social-emotional functioning and maternal-child relationship attitudes are not related.

Another possible reason for not finding statistical significance is variance restriction in the independent variable. The Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation measure of attitudes divides the realm of mother-child relationship attitudes into four parts which represent a continuum from acceptance to rejection. Scores on each of the 4 parts of the instrument ranged from the lowest possible score to nearly the highest with individual mothers scoring at different levels within the entire measure. Even for the few individuals who scored identically on one part of the measure, these scores could be arrived at through a variety of combinations of answers. Therefore, there is almost no variance restriction in the independent variable.

Finally, the reason why statistical significance was not shown may be due to the fact that the null hypothesis is true. The attitudes a mother has toward her child may not actually be translated into any measurable behavior which would substantially impact on the student. Although parents, especially mothers, are thought to significantly influence their children, perhaps within the school setting other variables, such as teachers' attitudes, sex, age and race of the teacher and the influence of peers are

intervening variables which may serve to offset the maternal effects. It may also occur that a father's attitudes toward his child may also contribute to the social-emotional functioning of the child. Since fathers were not included in the present investigation their effect can not be measured at this time.

Null Hypothesis Two

(There is no significant relationship among maternal-child relationship attitudes, and the self-concept of children.)

The data related to testing null hypothesis two relates the child's self-concept score (CSCT) with each of the four parts of the maternal-child relationship attitude measure. Since null hypothesis two is being statistically treated by the use of regression analysis, it was necessary again to assume a linear relationship among the childrens' self-concept and the maternal-child relationship attitudes of acceptance, overprotection, overindulgence and rejection. The data are presented in toto and analyzed separately by type of attitude measure.

An analysis of the plot of the residuals reveals that the values tend to be distributed about zero and lie between ± 2. However, for the attitude measures of acceptance, overprotection and overindulgence, the values do not appear to be randomly scattered, and in fact group together toward one end or the other of the scatterplot. For the rejection attitude measure, however, the values are distributed in what appears to be an expected,

scattered random pattern. This pattern suggests that there may be a correlation between childrens' self-concept and the maternal-child relationship attitude of rejection. Indeed, the formal statistical analysis confirms this. The data are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Summary of Multiple Regression of Childrens' Concept and Mother-Child Relationship Attitudes.

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t	PR>t
Acceptance	-0.17	.15	-1.16	.25
Overprotection	0.15	.16	.93	.36
Overindulgence	0.03	.16	.19	.85
Rejection	-0.60	.15	-3.88	.0002
Constant	77.57	15.00	5.16	.0001

n=91 R^2=.15 MSE=10.67

f=3.93 df=91

As may be observed from Table 8 the t scores for three of the maternal-child relationship attitudes, namely, acceptance, overprotection and overindulgence are -1.16, .93 and .16 respectively, and are therefore not significant. The probability that the slope equals zero

ranges from .25 to .85 for these three attitude measures.

Analysis of the data associated with the fourth mother-child relationship attitude measure of rejection reveals that the t score (-3.88) is significant, and, in addition, the probability is at the .0002 level of significance. Considering the coefficient of multiple determination it appears that maternal-child relationship attitudes (especially rejection) account for 15% of the variance in the child's self-concept. While this R^2 is rather small (below .2) it may still be informative. Rather, the X and Y may actually have a close relationship, but it is nonlinear. In this instance, however, nonlinearity can be ruled out. Therefore, it may be suggested that maternal-child relationship attitudes help to explain the childrens' self-concept, but account for only 15% of the variance.

As observed from the data, the maternal-child relationship attitudes of acceptance, overprotection and overindulgence were not found to be significant and therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected for three of four components of the independent variables. Since, however, the one component attitude of rejection was found to be statistically significant, it may be assumed that the common reasons for not rejecting an hypothesis are not operating. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected for one component of the independent variable, namely

the rejection attitude scale. Since significance was established, it will be assumed that the population size, heterogeneity of the subjects, instrumentation and statistic utilized were adequate. A likely reason for significance with only one attitude measure lies in the assumption that only maternal rejection correlates with childrens' self-concept. The one attitude instrument (Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation) evenly distributed the 48 statements to cover each of the four attitudes. Placed on an acceptance-nonacceptance dimension representing a positive-negative polarity, the three attitudes of overprotection, overindulgence and rejection are placed on the negative end, while acceptance-type attitudes lie on the positive end. Although overprotection and overindulgence are considered to represent non-acceptance, they do so more subtly than the scale of rejection. Therefore, it may be suggested that the extreme measure of rejection is a more powerful attitude and impacts the self-concept development of children more significantly. The statements associated with the rejection scale include strongly negative attitudes which are more easily detected than the slightly negative, neutral or positive attitudes reflected in the other three scales.

Given the findings presented in Table 8, it may be concluded that a mother's rejecting attitudes toward her

child adversely influences the child's self-concept. Although the rejecting attitudes do not account for all of the variance in the self-concept, it contributes it's percentage significantly.

Null Hypothesis Three

(There is no significant relationship between maternal self-concept and the social-emotional functioning of children).

The data associated with testing null hypothesis three are included in three sections since each social-emotional functioning rating was analyzed separately. Null hypothesis three was being analyzed by regression analysis and therefore a linear relationship was assumed.

Part A - This section analyzes the relationship between social-emotional functioning (self-rating - SESR) and maternal self-concept. An inspection of the plot of the residuals reveals no clearly delineated pattern for the values. The scores appear to be randomly distributed, lie between -3.0 to 2.0, and tend to group toward the center of the plot. The failure of the scatterplot to suggest a linear relationship contributes to a failure to reject null hypothesis three for a self-rating of social-emotional functioning.

An analysis of the results of the statistical procedure used to test null hypothesis three confirms the lack of correlation. The data are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Summary of Bivariate Regression of Social-Emotional Functioning (self-rating) and Maternal Self-Concept.

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t	PR>t
Maternal self-concept (MSCT)	1.74	1.16	1.50	.14
Constant	443.50	61.98	7.16	.0001
n=90	R^2=.02	MSE=100.09		
F=2.26	df=90			

It may be observed from Table 9 that the t score (1.50) is not significant, and that the probability of the slope being equal to zero is .14. Therefore, there was no significant relationship established. In addition, the coefficient of determination, R^2, indicates that maternal self-concept accounts for only 2% of the variance in social-emotional functioning as measured by a self-rating. Therefore, Part A of the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Part B - This section analyzes the relationship between social-emotional functioning (teacher rating-SETR) and maternal self-concept. An analysis of the scatterplot of residuals reveals a random distribution of values which lie between -2.5 and 1.5. This pattern suggests no clearly discernible relationship between social-emotional functioning (teacher rating) and maternal self-concept.

Examination of the formal, statistical hypothesis testing confirms this suggestion. Table 10 presents the data.

Table 10

Summary of Bivariate Regression of Social-Emotional Functioning (teacher rating) and Maternal Self-Concept.

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t	PR\>t
Maternal self-concept (MSCT)	3.04	1.74	1.75	.08
Constant	330.11	92.79	3.56	.0006

n=90 R^2=.03 MSE=149.86
f=3.07 df=90

As indicated in Table 10, the t score of 1.75 is not significant, and the probability of the slope being equal to zero lies at the .08 level. Also, the coefficient of determination, R^2, indicates that maternal self-concept accounts for only 3% of the variance in social-emotional functioning as measured by a teacher rating. Considering a level of significance of PR¢t set at .05, the value of .08 may warrant further study of the possible relationship between the two variables. However, for purposes of this investigation, part B null of hypothesis three is not rejected.

Part C - This section analyzes the relationship between social-emotional functioning (peer rating - SEPR) and maternal self-concept. An inspection of the plot of residuals indicates a random distribution of values which lie between -2.5 and 2.0 and have a tendency to group toward the middle of the scatterplot. This type of pattern does not indicate a linear relationship and suggests no significant relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Examination of the formal statistical data in Table 11 confirms this observation.

Table 11

Summary of Bivariate Regression of Social-Emotional Functioning (peer rating) and Maternal Self-Concept.

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t	PR t
Maternal self-concept (MSCI)	1.42	1.10	1.29	.20
Constant	416.55	58.96	7.07	.0001

n=90 R^2=.02 MSE=95.22
F=1.66 df=90

It is evident from examining Table 11 that the t score (1.29) is not significant, and that the probability of the slope being equal to zero is .20. The coefficient of determination indicates that maternal self-concept accounts for only 2% of the variance in social-emotional functioning as measured by a peer rating. Therefore, Part C of the null hypothesis is not rejected.

There may be several reasons why null hypothesis two was not rejected. It may be that no relationship actually exists among the variables and the null hypothesis is not false. The null hypothesis may be false, however, the design of the study lacks the power to detect the relationship, or internal validity problems contaminated the correlation. Since it is not possible to know which reasons are true, it cannot be established that

any one reason should be considered the primary possibility.

As indicated with hypothesis one, with regard to internal validity problems extraneous variables were controlled by developing individual hypotheses for each of those independent variables which may possibly be related to social-emotional functioning in children. It is a possibility, however,that an independent variable was overlooked and is affecting the relationship.

When considering the research design, the heterogeneity of the respondents, the sample size and the statistical analysis utilized must be considered. The mother-child pairs differed demographically in many ways including economically, racially and socially. The sample size of 94 pairs, although not the majority of the universe of mother-child pairs, represents a population which lends itself to powerful statistical analysis.

For purposes of this study, regression analysis was utilized and is considered to be a powerful procedure. The instrumentation utilized was developed and selected to measure the variables of self-concept and social-emotional functioning as accurately as possible. The social-emotional measure incorporates current data on social-emotional development and the repertory grid format provides a proven vehicle by which to access the variable. The individual ratings by peer, teacher and self were

analyzed separately thereby controlling for any contaminating influence among the three. In addition, the self-concept instrument includes self-concept measures in many areas such as family, physical self and social self.

In considering the possibility of Type II error (accepting a false null-hypothesis), attention may be turned to the arrived calculations for the probability of t. The data in Tables in 9 and 11 show that the value of t was not significant at the .05 level. However, in Table 10 the probability of t being equal to zero is .08 which approaches the .05 level of significance. It may be that the variables of maternal self-concept and the teacher rating of social-emotional functioning are somewhat correlated, yet the relationship was not observed given these measures. This possible relationship warrants further study. The self-concept instrument, as indicated before, is composed of categorical self-concept measures. In a future investigation, the self-concept measure corresponding to family life should be used separately when correlating it with a measure of social-emotional functioning as measured by the classroom teacher. Perhaps teachers, because they are predominantly women and often mothers, are more closely aligned with mothers on a measure of social-emotional functioning than are peers or the children themselves.

The scatterplots of social-emotional functioning

(SESR, SETR & SEPR) and maternal self-concept (MSCT) are to be checked when considering the misspecification of the regression equation. As indicated, neither linear nor nonlinear patterns of any sort can be detected. If there were significant relationships among the variables then a line, curve or parabola would be discernible.

Another reason for not having found statistical significance supporting the rejection of null hypothesis three might be restricted variance in the independent variable. The Tennessee Self Concept Scale Total P (positive) score reflects the overall self-concept level. This is comprised of self-concept measures in eight different areas from identity to family and social self. The instrument covers the broadest possible range of self-concept components, and the mothers' scores ranged within 50 T score points reflecting a wide range of responses. It may be for this investigation that analysis of each of the self-concept components separately would have allowed for a finer, more specific relationship to have been discerned.

Finally, the reason why statistical significance was not shown may be due to the fact that the null hypothesis is true. Maternal self-concept does not affect the social-emotional functioning of children as measured by teachers, peers, and the children themselves.

Given that maternal self-concept and social-emotional

functioning as measured by the teachers approached correlation, albeit, not significantly, it may be concluded that the null hypothesis, as tested, is true.

However, had the self-concept measure been divided into its components, a relationship may have been observed. This hypothesis warrants further study to actually resolve the question.

Null Hypothesis Four

(There is no significant relationship between maternal self-concept and the self-concept of children).

The data associated with hypothesis four relates childrens' self-concept with the maternal self-concept measure. Since hypothesis four is being statistically treated by the use of regression analysis, it was necessary to assume a linear relationship between the variables.

Analysis of the plot of residuals reveals that the values generally lie between ± 2.0 and are randomly scattered throughout the plot. This pattern suggests that a relationship exists between maternal and child self-concept. The data obtained through formal statistical testing confirm this relationship and are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Summary of Bivariate Regression of Childrens' Self-Concept and Maternal Self-Concept.

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t	PR>t
Maternal self-concept (MSCT)	0.25	.13	1.92	.05
Constant	34.71	6.85	5.07	.0001
n=91	R^2=.04	MSE=11.17		

As may be observed from Table 12, the t score (1.92) may be considered significant with the probability of t being equal to zero at the .05 level. In the significant relationship, however, the coefficient of determination indicates that maternal self-concept accounts for only 4% of the variance in the child's self-concept. Although the R^2 is small, it may still be informative. It may be suggested that maternal self-concept does help explain children's self-concept but accounts for only a small part of the explanation. Therefore, the null hypothesis four is rejected. As was previously reported in Chapter I, self-concept refers to how an individual perceives him or herself in terms of ability, value, worth and limitations (Calhoun & Morse 1977). If a mother has a positive

self-concept then it may be assumed that her self-perceptions include competence in her mother role. This adjustment to motherhood may indeed become translated into attitudes and behaviors directed toward her child. The child in turn, perceives acceptance and may incorporate this into a positive self-concept. Given the small R^2 value, other variables may also be influencing the child's development of self-concept. The influence of fathers and other significant people in the child's life was not measured. It may be that the self-concept of these other individuals also account for a percentage of the variance. It would be interesting to further study this relationship. Perhaps the self-concept components relating to family self and personal self could be analyzed separately. This would serve to eliminate the influence of the other components. Also, it would be interesting to analyze how paternal self-concept influences the child's self-concept. Although other variables may help to explain the variance in childrens' self-concept, the data do support the literature findings of a relationship between maternal and childrens' self-concept.

Null Hypothesis Five

(There is no significant difference in the social-emotional functioning of children, across family socioeconomic levels).

The data related to testing null hypothesis five compares social-emotional functioning of children in seven socioeconomic levels. Each of the three measures of social-emotional functioning was examined separately. The measures obtained as well as descriptive statistics are presented in Tables 13, 14, 16, and 18. In order to determine whether the differences among the means are great enough to be statistically significant, analysis of variance (ANOVA) techniques were employed. Tables 15, 17, and 19 summarize the results of the calculations. Summary statistics are presented in total in Table 13.

Table 13

Social-emotional functioning (self-SESR, teacher-SETR and peer-SEPR ratings) across seven socioeconomic levels.

Socioeconomic Levels	Variable	Mean*	Standard Deviation	n
Soc. 1	SESR	515.56	129.82	9
	SETR	567.78	117.45	9
	SEPR	523.33	91.98	9
Soc. 2	SESR	552.73	72.40	11
	SETR	550.91	135.68	11
	SEPR	482.73	99.25	11
Soc. 3	SESR	514.55	94.50	22
	SETR	445.00	186.67	22
	SEPR	466.55	103.26	22
Soc. 4	SESR	570.91	93.32	11
	SETR	523.64	154.87	11
	SEPR	549.09	83.77	11
Soc. 5	SESR	537.06	98.98	17
	SETR	474.24	121.08	17
	SEPR	490.12	88.55	17
Soc. 6	SESR	545.71	113.32	14
	SETR	460.71	130.88	14
	SEPR	491.86	78.87	14
Soc. 7	SESR	511.33	117.98	9
	SETR	461.22	158.82	9
	SEPR	454.00	103.72	9

*possible scores ranged from 100-700 with 700 reflecting more positive social-emotional functioning.

Part A-This section compares the social-emotional functioning (self-rating) across seven socioeconomic

levels. The descriptive statistics for part A are found in Table 14.

Table 14

Social-Emotional Functioning (self-rating) Across Socioeconomic Levels.

Variable*	Mean	n
Soc. 1	515.56	9
Soc. 2	552.73	11
Soc. 3	514.55	22
Soc. 4	570.91	11
Soc. 5	537.06	17
Soc. 6	545.71	14
Soc. 7	511.33	9

MSE=10429.3

*Socioeconomic Levels from 1-7 with 1 being highest and 7 lowest level.

As may be observed, the means differ from each other and the ANOVA calculations are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Summary of ANOVA of Social-Emotional Functioning (self rating) Across Socioeconomic Levels.

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	36925.76	6	6154.29	.59	.74
Within groups	896918.56	86	10429.28		
Total	933844.32	92			

The assumption underlying the analysis-of-variance procedure is that if the groups to be compared are truly random samples from the same population, then the between-groups mean square should not differ from the within-groups mean square by more than the amount we would expect from chance alone.

As the difference between the mean squares increases, the F-ratio increases and the probability of the null hypothesis being correct decreases.

The end product of the ANOVA is the F-ratio. For hypothesis five, the F-ratio (.59) is not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis five (part A) is not rejected. With retention of null hypothesis five, part A, it may be said that the measures obtained from the

seven socioeconomic levels do not differ from each other significantly.

It would appear that membership in the lowest socioeconomic level is associated with the lowest social-emotional functioning score (self-rating) and that the highest rating is found in the middle socioeconomic level. Membership in the highest level, which is comprised of parents who are professional, highly educated individuals in sophisticated occupations, appears to be related to relatively low social-emotional rating scores as determined by a self-rating. Although these differences are not significant, the trend observed goes contrary to what might be expected given the evidence reported in the literature. Perhaps a larger and more representative sample would have provided more significant data.

Part B - This section compares the social-emotional functioning (teacher rating) across seven socioeconomic levels. Descriptive statistics related to testing null hypothesis five (part B) are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Social-Emotional Functioning (teacher rating) Across Socioeconomical Levels.

Variable*	Mean	n
Soc. 1	567.78	9
Soc. 2	550.91	11
Soc. 3	445.00	22
Soc. 4	523.64	11
Soc. 5	474.24	17
Soc. 6	460.71	14
Soc. 7	461.22	9

MSE = 22384.8

*Level 1 corresponds to highest socioeconomic level and follows a continuum to level 7 representing the lowest.

Again, it may be observed that the means differ from each other and follow a different pattern from high to low than those in the self-rating groups. Table 17 presents the results of the statistical testing of hypothesis five, part B.

Table 17

Summary of ANOVA of Social-Emotional Functioning (teacher rating) Across Socioeconomic Levels.

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	175558.51	6	29259.75	1.31	.26
Within groups	1925090.48	86	22384.77		
Total	2100648.99	92			

Analysis of the data in Table 17 reveals that the F-ratio (1.31) is not statistically significant and therefore there is no significant difference in social-emotional functioning as measured by a teacher rating across socioeconomic levels. Part B of null hypothesis five is also not rejected. It is interesting to note that the pattern of teacher ratings from high socioeconomic to low socioeconomic groups follows a completely different direction from that of the self-rating table. It may be that teachers are more keenly aware of the socioeconomic level of their students and are somewhat influenced by this knowledge. Since there was a nonrepresentative sample, and no significance was obtained, this thought is merely speculation and not meant to be an empirically supported statement.

Part C - This section compares the social-emotional functioning (peer rating) across socioeconomic levels.

Table 18

Social-Emotional Functioning (peer rating) Across Socioeconomic Levels.

Variable*	Mean	n
Soc. 1	523.33	9
Soc. 2	482.73	11
Soc. 3	466.55	22
Soc. 4	549.09	11
Soc. 5	490.12	17
Soc. 6	491.86	14
Soc. 7	454.00	9

*Level 1 represents the highest socioeconomic level, #7 the lowest and the rest are all in between.

Statistical testing of hypothesis five, Part C produced the data in Table 19.

Table 19

Summary of ANOVA of Social-Emotional Functioning (peer rating) Across Socioeconomic Levels.

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	72769.80	6	12128.30	1.30	0.23
Within groups	752646.02	86	8751.69		
Total	825415.82	92			

Since the F-ratio equals 1.39, there is no statistically significant difference among the levels and therefore, null hypothesis five, Part C is not rejected.

Although a significant difference was not observed across the seven socioeconomic levels, same interesting trends may be noted.

Those children from families in the lowest socioeconomic level were generally rated or were among the three lowest groups on the social-emotional functioning measure by teachers, peers and self-ratings. The children representing the middle socioeconomic level (Soc. 4) were rated highest by peer and self measures which may reflect familiarity with the "middle-of-the-road" orientation. Teachers rated the middle level in the top three, however, appeared to rate the children higher as the socioeconomic

level increased. Except for a low rating of those children in the high middle level (Soc. 3) nearly all the others followed this aforementioned pattern. However, just as individuals among groups are different, people within groups also differ and consequently there may actually be no significant difference between socioeconomic groups when assessing social-emotional functioning.

Null Hypothesis Six

(There is no significant difference in the self-concept of children across socioeconomic levels).

The data related to testing null hypothesis six compares childrens' self-concept measures across seven different socioeconomic levels. The values obtained as well as descriptive statistics are presented in tables 20 and 21. In order to determine whether the mean differences across the levels are statistically significant, analysis of variance (ANOVA) techniques were utilized.

Table 20

Children's Self-Concept Score (CSCT) Across Socioeconomic Levels.

Variable	Mean*	Standard Deviation	N
Soc. 1	47.20	14.52	10
Soc. 2	44.45	9.62	11
Soc. 3	46.82	10.31	22
Soc. 4	52.55	10.72	11
Soc. 5	48.63	13.60	16
Soc. 6	45.69	9.24	13
Soc. 7	49.33	12.29	9

*Scores ranged from 01-99 with a higher score reflecting a more positive self-concept.

As may be observed, the means do differ among the levels with the highest self-concept measures being found in the middle socioeconomic level (Soc. 4) and the lowest found in the second to the highest level. Again, caution must be exercised due to the fact that there are unequal n's in the cells.

Table 21 presents analysis of variance summary table.

Table 21

Summary of ANOVA of Children's Self-Concept Across Socioeconomic Levels.

Source of Variance	SS	f	Ms	F	PR>F
Between groups	483.71	6	80.62	.61	.72
Within groups	11208.84	85	131.87		
Total	11692.55	91			

As may be observed, the F-ratio (.61) is not significant and therefore null hypothesis six is not rejected. A look at the descriptive statistics does not reveal a pattern which may be analyzed. There does not appear to be any observable relationship between childrens' self-concept and family socioeconomic level. As the literature reported, it may well be that the reaction of children toward socioeconomic stressors may be more important to the development of self-concept than the mere fact of membership at a certain level.

Considering that the childrens' self-concept score is a composite of self-concept measures covering eight areas including personal self, family self and social self, it may be that this global self-concept is not influenced by socioeconomic level. However, it is

possible that certain self-concept component measures may be influenced by socioeconomic status. This question should be addressed in further study.

Null Hypothesis Seven

(There is no significant difference in the social-emotional functioning of children across maternal marital status conditions).

The data related to testing null hypothesis seven compares the social-emotional functioning scores of children across maternal marital status conditions. Descriptive statistics are presented comparing all data, and then each of the three measures of social-emotional functioning is examined separately. In addition, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed to test the significance of the mean differences observed. Table 22 presents the descriptive statistics for all the data.

Table 22

Social-Emotional Functioning (Self-SESR; Teacher-SETR and Peer-SEPR Ratings) Across Maternal Marital Status Conditions.

Maternal Marital Status	Variable	Mean*	Standard Deviation	N
MMS-1 (Single Mother)	SESR	320.00	---	1
	SETR	490.00	---	1
	SEPR	266.00	---	1
MMS-2 (Married)	SESR	541.07	97.19	76
	SETR	491.21	147.28	76
	SEPR	494.89	93.29	76
MMS-3 (Divorced)	SESR	500.45	95.93	11
	SETR	503.73	162.01	11
	SEPR	491.09	91.93	11
MMS-4 (Separated)	SESR	566.00	---	1
	SETR	200.00	---	1
	SEPR	379.00	---	1
MMS-5 (Widowed)	SESR	545.00	152.64	4
	SETR	455.00	200.42	4
	SEPR	492.25	89.10	4

*Possible scores ranged from 100-700 with the highest numbers reflecting more positive social-emotional functioning.

Part A - This section compares the social-emotional functioning (self-rating) across maternal marital status levels. Table 23 presents the descriptive statistics followed by Table 24 which reports the results of the Analysis of Variance.

Table 23

Social-Emotional Functioning (Self-rating) Across Maternal Marital Status Groups

Variable	Mean	n
MMS-1	320.00	1
MMS-2	541.07	76
MMS-3	500.45	11
MMS-4	566.00	1
MMS-5	545.00	4

Table 24

Summary of ANOVA of Social-Emotional Functioning (self-rating) Across Marital Status Groups

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between Groups	63466.92	4	15866.73	1.60	.18
Within Groups	870377.40	88	9890.65		
Total	933844.32	92			

As may be observed from the data presented, the F-ratio is not statistically significant and therefore, there is no significant difference in social-emotional functioning as measured by a self-rating across maternal marital status conditions. Null hypothesis seven, part A is consequently not rejected. Again, caution must be exercised due to the nonrepresentative sample. It may be expected that in a random sample the ratio between two different groups would not be equal to 1.0 given that in the general population married mothers still out number those in any other marital status group. With, however, only one member in two of the five groups it is virtually impossible to observe the actual relationship operating in the population as a whole.

Part B - This section compares social-emotional functioning (teacher rating) across maternal marital status conditions.

On the average, the teacher ratings appear to be lower than self-ratings across each of the marital status groups.

Table 25

Social-Emotional Functioning (teacher rating) Across Marital Status Conditions

Variable	Mean	n
MMS-1	490.00	1
MMS-2	491.21	76
MMS-3	503.73	11
MMS-4	200.00	1
MMS-5	455.00	4

MSE = 22839.1

The Analysis of Variance technique yielded results which were not statistically significant. These data are presented in Table 26.

Table 26

Summary of ANOVA of Social-Emotional Functioning (teacher rating) Across Marital Status Groups

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	90808.17	4	22702.04	.99	0.41
Within groups	2009840.81	88	22839.10		
Total	2100648.98	92			

The F-ratio is .99 and not significant which indicates that null hypothesis seven, part B is not rejected. It may be said that the mean differences among the marital status groups are not greater than would be expected by chance. Again, caution must be taken due to the nonrepresentative sample.

Part C - This section compares social-emotional functioning (peer rating) across maternal marital status conditions. Descriptive statistics reveal mean differences across the groups.

Table 27

Social-Emotional Functioning (peer rating) Across Maternal Marital Status Groups

Variable	Mean	n
MMS-1	266.00	1
MMS-2	494.89	76
MMS-3	491.09	11
MMS-4	379.00	1
MMS-5	492.25	4

MSE = 8648.87

The Analysis of Variance treatment of the data yields results presented in Table 28.

Table 28

Summary of ANOVA of Social-Emotional Functioning (peer rating) Across Marital Status Groups.

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	64315.01	4	16078.75	1.86	.12
Within groups	761100.81	88	8648.87		
Total	825415.82	92			

The F-ratio (1.86) is not statistically significant and therefore null hypothesis seven, part C is also not rejected. The retained null hypothesis indicates that social-emotional functioning does not differ significantly across maternal marital status situations. Although the member in group one (single mother) was rated lowest by self and peer ratings, no other pattern was discernible among the groups. A larger sample population, which would provide for larger n's, may have been helpful for achieving a truer picture. As the literature explains, it may be that other family dimensions in addition to psychological adjustment to the marital status condition, influence the social-emotional functioning of the child. Merely a divorce, death or separation, for example, may not adversely impact the child.

Null Hypothesis Eight

(There is no significant difference in the self-concept of children across maternal marital status conditions.)

The data associated with testing null hypothesis eight are presented in a descriptive table (29) and in an analytical table (30). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) techniques were employed to compare the mean children's self-concept measure across marital status groups.

Table 29

Childrens' Self-concept Across Marital Status Groups

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
MMS-1	43.00	---	1
MMS-2	48.03	10.82	75
MMS-3	44.82	14.08	11
MMS-4	26.00	---	1
MMS-5	55.25	8.58	4

A substantial difference appears to exist between maternal marital status four (separated) and the other groups. However, caution must be exercised due to the fact that the group sizes are quite discrepant. The ANOVA results reveal that these observed differences are not

statistically significant.

Table 30

Summary of ANOVA of Childrens' Self-Concept Across Marital Status Groups

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	820.22	4	205.05	1.64	.17
Within groups	10872.33	87	124.97		
Total	11692.55				

As may be observed, the F-ratio (1.64) is not significant and therefore, null hypothesis eight is not rejected. Children's self-concept does not appear to differ significantly across varying marital status conditions. The family and personal adjustment to the situation may be more important and influential than the actual situation itself. It also may be concluded that a difference does exist, however, given these data, no conclusion regarding a significant difference was observed.

Null Hypothesis Nine

(There is no significant difference in the social-emotional functioning of children across ethnic background conditions).

The data related to testing null hypothesis eight compares the social-emotional functioning of children across ethnic background conditions. Descriptive statistics comparing all the data are presented in addition to the data examined separately by rating. Given the property of the data, the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) approach was determined to be the most powerful statistic that could be used. Table 31 presents the descriptive statisticaal summary table for all the data.

Table 31

Social-Emotional Functioning (self-SESR, teacher-SETR, and peer-SEPR ratings) Across Ethnic Backgrounds

Ethnic Background	Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
	SESR	532.73	101.41	85
ETH-1	SETR	498.39	150.35	85
(white)	SEPR	493.91	97.20	85
	SESR	548.57	105.74	7
ETH-2	SETR	387.14	122.30	7
(black)	SEPR	459.00	58.56	7
	SESR	570.00	---	1
ETH-3	SETR	310.00	---	1
(Hispanic)	SEPR	433.00	---	1

As may be observed from the table, self-rating social-emotional functioning scores appear to be on the average higher than teacher and peer ratings in all ethnic groups. The discrepancy between teacher and peer ratings when compared to self-ratings seems to be greater in the black and Hispanic groups. However, caution must be exercised due to the unequal n's in the groups.

The analyses of the ANOVA-treated data are presented separately by rating groups as are the descriptive statistics.

Part A - This section compares the social-emotional functioning (self-rating) across ethnic backgrounds.

Table 32

Social-Emotional Functioning (self-rating) Across Ethnic Groups

Variable	Mean	n
ETH-1	532.73	85
ETH-2	548.57	7
ETH-3	570.00	1

MSE = 10343.7

An observation of the mean differences suggest that as a group, the Hispanic individuals have the highest self-rating of social-emotional functioning, followed by the Black group and white group in that order. However, the uneven n's throw doubt upon this observation. Having greater numbers which would at least approximate the actual minority population percentages in the area, may have proved helpful in clarifying the relationship. The data in Table 33 presents the results of the ANOVA.

Table 33

Summary of ANOVA of Social-Emotional Functioning (self-rating) Across Ethnic Groups

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	2909.83	2	1454.91	.14	.86
Within groups	930934.49	90	10343.71		
Total	933844.32				

Given an F-ratio of .14 which is not significant, null hypothesis nine, part A is not rejected. It would appear that the observed differences among the ethnic groups are not significant given the findings reported here.

Part B - this section compares social-emotional functioning (teacher rating) across ethnic background conditions.

Table 34

Social-Emotional Functioning (teacher rating) Across Ethnic Groups

Variable	Mean	n
ETH-1	498.39	85
ETH-2	387.14	7
ETH-3	310.00	1

MSE = 22095.4

From a perusal of the values presented, it may be observed that on the whole the teacher ratings are lower than self-ratings and follow a pattern the reverse of the self-rating. The teachers appear to rate individuals in the white ethnic group higher than the Blacks and Hispanics. Whether these observed differences are significant or not may be detected in Table 35 which presents the ANOVA data.

Table 35

Summary of Social-Emotional Functioning (teacher rating) Across Ethnic Groups

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	112061.94	2	56030.97	2.54	.08
Within groups	1988587.04	90	22095.41		
Total	2100648.98	92			

Although the F-ratio (2.54) is not significant, it approaches significance at the .05 level (PR>F=.08) and may suggest a need for further study. For purposes of this study, however, null hypothesis nine, part B is not rejected.

Given that the teachers participating in this investigation were predominantly white women, it may indicate a tendency toward some form of prejudice either conscious or unconscious on their part. Since the social-emotional functioning instrument measures behaviors which are consistent with acceptable school behaviors, and schools are generally white, middle class institutions, it is not surprising that some individuals simply by virtue of their skin color or surname may be unknowingly

discriminated against. Further study of this phenomenon would be beneficial to help clarify the issue.

Part C - This section compares the social-emotional functioning (peer rating) across ethnic backgrounds.

Table 36

Social-Emotional Functioning (peer rating) Across Ethnic Groups

Variable	Mean	n
ETH-1	493.91	85
ETH-2	459.00	7
ETH-3	433.00	1

MSE = 9046.44

As the above data indicates, the peer ratings of social-emotional functioning follow the same pattern as the teachers, that is, rating members in ethnic group one (white) higher than those in group two (black) and group three (Hispanic). Whether these mean differences are significant is addressed in Table 37.

Table 37

Summary of ANOVA of Social-Emotional Functioning (peer rating) Across Ethnic Groups.

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	11236.58	2	5618.29	.62	.54
Within groups	814179.24	90	9046.43		
Total	825415.82	92			

The F-ratio (.62) is not significant and therefore, null hypothesis nine, part c is not rejected.

The results related to testing null hypothesis nine must not be interpreted as absolute evidence for assuming that there is no significant difference among the variables. It may only be said that evidence for a conclusion concerning the variables has not been observed. There were observed differences in the social-emotional functioning scores among the groups, however, statistical testing does not support the observed differences. Further study is warranted when the group sizes more closely approximate the general population percentages. The teacher ratings of children from varying ethnic groups especially warrants further investigation since teachers'

expectations for, and beliefs about students are extremely important.

Null Hypothesis Ten

(There is no significant difference in the self-concept of children across ethnic background conditions).

The data associated with testing null hypothesis ten compare childrens' self-concept across varying ethnic groups. Descriptive statistics are presented in addition to the results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique employed to statistically test the values.

Table 38

Childrens' Self-concept Across Ethnic Backgrounds

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
ETH-1	47.35	11.50	85
ETH-2	51.43	8.94	7
ETH-3	-----	-----	0

As may be observed, a difference exists between the mean self-concept scores of members in the White group (ETH-1) and those in the Black group (ETH-2). No value was obtained for members in the Hispanic group (ETH-3) due to

failure to complete the self-concept instrument. Analysis of variance was employed to test the observed differences for significance.

Table 39

Summary of ANOVA of Childrens' Self-concept Across Ethnic Backgrounds

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	107.43	1	107.42	.83	.36
Within groups	11585.12	90	128.72		
Total	11692.55	91			

An analysis of the results reveals an F-ratio (.83) which is not significant, and therefore null hypothesis ten is not rejected. The observed differences do not appear to be significant, although caution must be exercised due to the uneven group sizes. Self-concept appears to be influenced by factors other than ethnic background.

Null Hypothesis Eleven

(There is no significant relationship between achievement level and the social-emotional functioning of children).

The data associated with testing null hypothesis eleven are included in three sections as each social-emotional functioning rating was analyzed separately. For the purposes of this study achievement level is a two-part variable with values obtained for grade equivalent and intelligence quotient. The scores were taken from the fifth grade standardized achievement tests taken by each of the students. Not all of the subjects had standardized IQ scores and these subjects were omitted.

Part A - This section analyzes the relationship among social-emotional functioning (self rating) and each of the achievement measures (GACH-grade equivalent; QACH-intelligence quotient). Since this hypothesis is to be statistically treated by Multiple Regression, it was necessary to assume a linear relationship among the variables.

An inspection of the plots of residuals reveals that the values lie between -3.0 to 2.0 and generally lie toward the middle and left side of each plot. No patterns or linear relationships are discernible. The failure of the scatterplots to suggest a linear relationship contributes to a failure to reject null hypothesis eleven. Statistical analysis of the variables confirms a lack of significance; the results are presented in Table 40.

Table 40

Summary of Multiple Regression of Social-Emotional Functioning (self-rating) and Achievement Levels.

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t	PR>t
GACH (grade equivalent)	1.27	.78	1.64	.10
QACH (intelligence quotient)	.84	1.32	.64	.53
Constant	340.40	105.84	3.22	.0019

N=79 R^2 = .14 MSE = 97.89

F=6.38 df = 79

As may be observed from Table 40, the t scores (1.64 and .64) are not significant. The probabilities that the slopes equal zero are .10 and .53 and the coefficient of multiple determination (R^2) is .14 which indicate that achievement level accounts for 14% of the variance in social-emotional functioning (self-rating). Therefore, Part A of hypothesis eleven is not rejected. It appears that neither their grade equivalent functioning nor their measured intellectual potential (IQ) significantly influences children's perceptions of their social and emotional adjustment to school.

Part B - This section analyzes the relationship among social-emotional functioning (teacher rating), and each of the achievement levels.

An inspection of the plots of residuals reveals that the values for both the GACH plot and the QACH plot lie essentially between ±2.0 and are randomly distributed throughout the plots. There does appear to be a slight gathering of values toward the middle of each plot and this would represent a normal curve distribution of intelligence quotients, and a somewhat "middle ground" or average for the grade equivalents. Given the nature of these variables this pattern is not unexpected. The regression analysis reveals some significance and the results are presented in Table 41.

Table 41

Summary of Multiple Regression of Social-Emotional Functioning (teacher rating) and Achievement Levels.

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t	PR>t
GACH	3.01	1.06	2.84	.005
QACH	1.28	1.80	.71	.47
Constant	118.86	144.72	.82	.41
n = 79	R^2 = .29	MSE = 133.86		

An analysis of the data in Table 41 reveals that the t score (.71) for achievement level, represented by intelligence quotient, is not significant and the probability that the slope equals zero is .47. This measure of achievement level does not appear to be significantly related to social-emotional functioning as measured by a teacher rating. However, when the grade equivalent achievement measure is analyzed the situation is dramatically different. The t score of 2.84 is significant at the .005 level and the R^2 value of .29 indicates that achievement as measured by a grade equivalent score accounts for 29% of the variance in social-emotional functioning as measured by a teacher rating. Therefore, part B of null hypothesis eleven is rejected for one measure of achievement (grade equivalent).

Since teachers are primarily concerned with actual academic functioning in the classroom rather than academic potential (IQ), the grade equivalents of children would be more consistent with actual classroom performance and hence more likely to influence teachers' behaviors and attitudes.

These results may indicate that when teachers assess a student's overall social-emotional functioning and adjustment in the classroom, they consider to a substantial degree, the approximate grade equivalent at

which the child is functioning. There may or may not actually be a correlation between actual social-emotional functioning and equivalent grade, however, there does appear to be a significant relationship between a teacher's perceptions of a child's social-emotional functioning and the grade level at which the child performs. Although, it is not discernible from these data, the question obviously arises that since teachers are aware of the level of functioning of their students, are they biasing themselves in believing that the lower functioning students are somehow less adjusted to school and that higher functioning students are more socially-emotionally well-adjusted than the average? This question suggests the need for further study to determine the true nature of the relationship. These results may be of particular interest when addressing the issue of learning disabled children. These "average" to "above average" students generally functioning below grade level in one or more academic areas. Their teachers may recognize their low functioning and become biased and alert for lower levels of social-emotional functioning.

On the other side of the coin, the teachers' rating of social-emotional functioning may be most representative of actual observed behaviors and it may well be that students who function below grade level are less well-adjusted socially and emotionally to the demands of

schools which reward success, foster competition and encourage excellence. These goals and expectations may unduly frustrate the lower functioning student and in turn contribute to a poorer adjustment both socially and emotionally. Clearly more research in this area is warranted.

Part C - This section analyzes the relationship among social-emotional functioning (peer rating) and each of the achievement measures.

An inspection of the plots of residuals reveals that the values lie generally between $\pm$ 2.0 with a few outside of those parameters. They are randomly scattered with a tendency to gather toward the middle of the scatter plot as in a normal curve distribution. The data obtained from the regression analysis reveals some significance.

Table 42

Summary of Multiple Regression of Social-Emotional Functioning (peer rating) and Achievement Levels

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t	PR>t
GACH	2.54	.57	4.45	.0001
QACH	.20	.97	.21	.83
Constant	275.55	78.14	3.53	.0007

n = 79 R^2 = .43 MSE = 72.27
F=28.70 df=79

As may be observed from the data presented, the t score (.21) for the achievement level represented by the intelligence quotient is not significant and the probability of the slope being equal to zero is .83. This measure of achievement level does not appear to be significantly related to social-emotional functioning as measured by a peer rating. However, as with the teacher rating results, when the grade equivalent achievement measure is analyzed a different picture emerges. The t score of 4.45 is significant at the .0001 level and accounts for 43% (R^2 = .43) of the variance in social-emotional functioning as measured by a peer rating. Therefore, part C of null hypothesis eleven is rejected for the achievement measure of grade equivalence.

Referring back to the correlational data presented in the first part of chapter IV, it was observed that the teacher ratings and peer ratings were more closely correlated than teacher-self, or peer-self ratings. Therefore, it is not unexpected that the results of the teacher and peer ratings would be similarly related.

A similar argument may be made for an explanation of the significant results. Given the nature of schools; competitive, structured, demanding of acquiescence, and achievement-oriented, it is not surprising that students who experience academic difficulties would have a more frustrating time adjusting both socially and emotionally to school. Their peers are likely to be in an advantageous position to observe this adjustment. Although actual grade equivalents would not likely be available to students, their observations and peer interactions provide a clear picture of individual level of functioning. It seems probable that peer ratings are less biased than self or teachers, and correspond closely to the actual relationship between achievement (grade equivalent) and social-emotional functioning in children.

It would appear then from the data presented that achievement level, based on grade equivalent is significantly related to social-emotional functioning as measured by teacher and peer ratings. These ratings are generally more objective than a self-rating and therefore

tend to correlate with each other. The self-rating of social-emotional functioning does not appear to be influenced by achievement level whether represented by grade equivalent or intelligence quotient.

With regard to the absence of significance of the intelligence quotient achievement level across all social-emotional functioning measures, this IQ measure is not generally an observable phenomenon in the same way that grade equivalency is. Therefore, it's relationship to behavioral measures is not observed. It is still unclear what relationship, if any, exists, and what influence IQ may have on social-emotional functioning.

Null Hypothesis Twelve

(There is no significant relationship between achievement level, and the self-concept of children).

The data associated with testing null hypothesis twelve relates childrens' self-concept with each of two levels of achievement, namely, grade equivalence and intelligence quotient. The use of Multiple Regression analysis made it necessary to assume a linear relationship.

An inspection of the residual scatterplots reveals that the values lie between -2.5 to 2.0 on each of the plots. There is a tendency for the values to gather around the middle area of each plot representing a fairly normal distribution of grade equivalences and IQ scores. No clear pattern or linear relationship is observed which

suggests that the null hypothesis may indeed be true. Analysis of the statistical data confirms the null relationship.

Table 43

Summary of Multiple Regression of Childrens' Self-Concept and Achievement Level.

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t	PR>t
GACH	.12	.86	1.39	.16
QACH	-.04	.15	-.33	.74
Constant	43.25	12.04	3.59	.0006
n = 78	R^2 = .04	MSE = 11.12		

Analysis of the regression data reveals t scores of 1.39 and -.33 both of which are not significant. The probabilities that the slope is equal to zero are .16 and .74 and the R^2 (.04) indicates that only 4% of the variance in self-concept is accounted for by the achievement measures. Therefore, null hypothesis twelve is not rejected. The common reasons for retention of a null hypothesis have been discussed when analyzing previous hypotheses. The sample size, heterogeneity of

subjects and statistics utilized were adequate. Two possible explanations are offered for the absence of significance. It may be that the global self-concept instrument which is a composite of several self-concept measures is too general to allow for a narrow relationship to be observed. Perhaps an analysis of each subscore of the self-concept instrument would yield different results and a relationship may be observed.

Another likely explanation is that the null hypothesis is true and there is no relationship between self-concept and achievement level. As was reported earlier, self-concept and social-emotional functioning are not closely correlated. Whereas the social-emotional functioning (self-rating) may reflect, in part, childrens' self-appraisal of school-related activities, the self-concept measure would include other areas outside of school. Even if a child's achievement level is low, he or she may be competent and self-confident in other unrelated areas, and not unduly affected by school performance. In either circumstance, further study analyzing the self-concept components separately may prove interesting.

Null Hypothesis Thirteen

(There is no significant difference in the social-emotional functioning of children across genders).

The data associated with testing null hypothesis thirteen compares social-emotional functioning of children across genders. Descriptive statistics comparing all the

data are presented in addition the data are examined separately. Each social-emotional functioning rating (self-SESR, teacher-SETR, and peer-SEPR) was analyzed by Analysis of Variance. Table 44 presents the descriptive statistics for all the data.

Table 44

Social-Emotional Functioning Across Genders

Gender	Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
Girls	SESR	523.54	112.12	47
	SETR	525.74	135.91	47
	SEPR	512.91	87.21	47
Boys	SESR	545.24	87.53	46
	SETR	449.41	157.44	46
	SEPR	467.85	97.57	46

As may be observed, on the average, the teacher and peer ratings for the girls appear to be higher than for the boys. Self-rating, however, follows a different pattern with boys perceiving themselves as functioning higher in the social-emotional dimension. These observed differences were examined and analyzed individually.

Part A - This section compares social-emotional functioning (self-rating) across genders.

Table 45

Social-Emotional Functioning (self-rating) Across Genders

Variable	Mean	n
Girls	523.64	47
Boys	545.24	46

The data suggests that boys' self-perceptions of social-emotional functioning are generally higher than girls. Statistical testing of the data suggests that these differences are not significant.

Table 46

Summary of ANOVA of Social-Emotional Functioning (self-rating) Across Genders

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	10847.10	1	10847.10	1.07	.30
Within groups	922997.22	91	10142.82		
Total	933844.32	92			

Given an F-ratio of 1.07 which is not significant, null hypothesis thirteen, part A is not rejected. It appears that the self-perceptions of social-emotional functioning do not differ significantly enough to suggest any clear pattern.

Part B - This section compares social-emotional functioning (teacher rating) across genders.

Table 47

Social-Emotional Functioning (teacher rating) Across Genders.

Variable	Mean	n
Girls	525.74	47
Boys	449.41	46
	MSE = 21595.6	

The data observed suggests that on the average, girls are given higher social-emotional functioning ratings by teachers than are boys. This difference appears to be significant given the ANOVA results.

Table 48

Summary of ANOVA of Social-Emotional Functioning (teacher rating) Across Genders.

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	135450.90	1	135450.90	6.27	.01
Within groups	1965198.08	91	21595.58		
Total	2100648.98	92			

Inspection of the data reveals that the F-ratio (6.27) is significant at the .01 level and therefore, null hypothesis thirteen, part B is rejected.

The differences observed between boys and girls on the social-emotional functioning (teacher rating) are greater than would have been arrived at by chance alone. Teachers either perceive that girls are more socially-emotionally adjusted, or indeed boys tend to display more behaviors which are not considered appropriate for the classroom. Since most teachers of sixth graders are women, and expectations for the classroom include those skills and behaviors traditionally thought to be more feminine (politeness, cooperation, sociability), it is not surprising that girls would generally rate higher on a

measure of social-emotional functioning when evaluated by a teacher.

Part C - This section compares social-emotional functioning (peer rating) across genders.

Table 49

Social-Emotional Functioning (peer rating) Across Genders

Variable	Mean	n
Girls	512.91	47
Boys	467.85	46
	MSE = 8551.64	

Again, the observed data indicates that on a peer rating of social-emotional functioning, girls on the average rate higher than boys. These findings seem to support those data observed in the teacher rating. As indicated in the correlations in chapter four, teacher ratings and peer ratings of social-emotional functioning are more closely aligned than self-ratings. Whether or not these gender differences are significant is answered in the ANOVA data.

Table 50

Summary of ANOVA of Social-Emotional Functioning (peer rating) Across Genders

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	47216.23	1	47216.23	5.52	.02
Within groups	778199.59	91	8551.64		
Total	825415.82	92			

Analysis of the data reveals that the F-ratio of 5.52 is significant at the .02 level, and therefore, null hypothesis thirteen, part C is rejected.

Childrens' teachers and peers tend to similarly perceive social-emotional functioning, rating girls generally higher than boys. Although the gender and classroom expectations of the teacher may be factors which bias teachers in their perceptions, these factors are unrelated to peer ratings. It may well be then that boys display those attitudes and behaviors which are not assessed to be as appropriate when considering social-emotional functioning. According to Lindholm, Touliatos and Rich (1977), in a study of school-related problems, boys were found to be generally more uncooperative, inattentive, immature and antisocial than

girls. The data reported to test null hypothesis thirteen (parts B and C) support these findings.

Null Hypothesis Fourteen

(There is no significant difference in the self-concept of children across genders).

The data associated with testing null hypothesis fourteen compares childrens' self-concepts across genders. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed to statistically test the observed differences.

Table 51

Childrens' Self-Concept Across Genders

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Girls	45.50	11.37	46
Boys	49.83	11.00	46

MSE = 125.13

As may be observed in table 51, the data reveal that boys have a generally higher self-concept than girls.

Table 52

Summary of ANOVA of Childrens' Self-Concept Across Genders

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	PR>F
Between groups	430.44	1	430.44	3.44	.06
Within groups	11262.11	90	125.13		
Total	11692.55				

Although the F-ratio approaches the significance level (.06) for purposes of this investigation, the F-ratio is not significant and therefore, null hypothesis fourteen is not rejected.

The generally higher self-concept measure for boys is not significantly different from the girls, however, the statistical findings suggest that further study may be warranted. The literature presents evidence which is contradictory in that some studies indicate that boys have higher self-concepts, and others report that girls rate themselves higher. Since the global self-concept score is a composite of a variety of self-concept measures (physical-self, family-self, social-self and so on), it may be that the differences would become more significant if the individual self-concept components were compared

individually. Perhaps boys score higher in such areas as physical-self and psychological-self whereas girls score higher in family- and social-self measures. These are questions which need to be explored much more fully.

Overall Multiple Regression Analysis

With the use of multiple regression, all of the independent variables may be tested for significant relationships with the dependent variables. This is useful in two ways. First, it almost inevitably offers a fuller explanation of the dependent variables since few phenomena are products of a single cause. Second, the effect of a particular independent variable is confirmed because the possibility of distorting influences from the other independent variables is removed. While the statistical control of multiple regression is weaker than experimental control, it still has value. The careful introduction of additional variables into a regression equation permits greater confidence in the findings.

In the present study, four of fourteen independent variables were significantly related to either the social-emotional functioning or the self-concept of children. Specifically, the maternal-child relationship attitude of rejection, maternal self-concept, achievement level and gender of child were found to be statistically

significant when tested separately. Will these independent variables still prove to be significant predictors of social-emotional functioning and self-concept when they are all treated in combination? In addition, other possibly influential demographic variables were added to the multiple regression even though they were not tested individually as separate hypotheses. Although the literature addresses these factors, their influence was thought to be minimal and consequently they were not included in the development of the hypotheses. These supplementary variables include birth order of child, number of siblings in the family, educational level of mother, age of mother and status of child in the family (adopted child, step-child, natural child and so on).

Table 53 gives the description of the variables included in the overall multiple regression analysis.

Table 53

Description of Study Variables

Variable	Computer Abbreviation	Description
Y_1	SESR	social-emotional functioning (self rating)
Y_2	SETR	social-emotional functioning (teacher rating)
Y_3	SEPR	social-emotional functioning (peer rating)
Y_4	CSCT	childrens' self-concept
X_1	GACH	achievement level (grade equivalency)
X_2	QACH	achievement level (intelligence quotient)
X_3	SEX	gender
X_4	E_1	ethnic group (white)
X_5	E_2	ethnic group (black)
X_6	E_3	ethnic group (Hispanic)
X_7	E_4	ethnic group (Asian)
X_8	SC_1	social class (1 = highest, 6 = lowest)
X_9	SC_2	social class
X_{10}	SC_3	social class
X_{11}	SC_4	social class
X_{12}	SC_5	social class

Table 53 continued

Variable	Computer Abbreviation	Description
X_{13}	SC_6	social class
X_{14}	MCAA	maternal-child relationship attitude (acceptance)
X_{15}	MCOP	maternal-child relationship attitude (overprotection)
X_{16}	MCOI	maternal-child relationship, attitude (overindulgence)
X_{17}	MCAR	maternal-child relationship attitude (rejection)
X_{18}	MSCT	mothers' self-concept
X_{19}	M_1	mother-child relationship (natural)
X_{20}	M_2	mother-child relationship (step)
X_{21}	B_1	birth order - first
X_{22}	B_2	birth order - second
X_{23}	B_3	birth order - third
X_{24}	B_4	birth order - fourth
X_{25}	B_5	birth order - fifth
X_{26}	SIB	number of siblings
X_{28}	MA	maternal age
X_{29}	MEL	maternal educational level
X_{30}	MM_1	mothers' marital status (single mother)
X_{31}	MM_2	mothers' marital status (married)

Table 53 continued

Variable	Computer Abbreviation	Description
X_{32}	MM_3	mothers' marital status (divorced)
X_{33}	MM_4	mothers' marital status (separated)

By analyzing the multiple regression of all independent variables on each dependent variable it is possible to arrive at a best two-variable model which will serve to help explain the relationship of the independent variables to the dependent variables. For parsimony only the best two-variable models will be presented and discussed individually for each dependent variable.

When all of the variables are included, there is no best two-variable model for social-emotional functioning (self-rating) since significance is not obtained. It is not until six variables (E_2, E_3, SIB, B_6, and SC_3) are removed that a two-variable model becomes clearly evident.

Table 54

Best Two-Variable Model - SESR

Variable	Coefficient	SE	F	PR>F
SC_4	0.29	.14	3.98	.05
SC_5	0.35	.13	6.57	.01
Constant	-0.09			

$R_2 = .48$

F=1.72 df=77

The results indicate that two variables of social class are significantly related to the social-emotional functioning as measured by a self-rating. It would appear that membership in the middle and lower middle classes, (SC_4 & SC_6) influences how children function socially and emotionally in school, and affects especially self-perceptions of adjustment to the classroom environment. It has been reported that public schools currently cater to and were actually developed to serve the "masses" or the middle class of the society, and classroom norms generally reflect the values and culture of the middle class. According to the two-variable model, the middle to lower middle socioeconomic levels account

for a substantial amount of the variance in social-emotional functioning (self-rating).

Analysis of the data presented in the overall multiple regression, and associated with social-emotional functioning (teacher rating) reveals that when all of the variables are entered into the regression, only one appears to be significant (sex). An F-ratio of 5.03 and PR>F = .02 indicates that the gender of the child is related to social-emotional functioning as measured by a teacher rating. When four variables (E_2, E_4, E_3 and QACH) are removed the best two-variable model includes achievement level (grade equivalency) and gender.

Table 55

Best Two-Variable Model - SETR

Variable	Coefficient	SE	F	PR>F
GACH	0.40	.14	7.79	.007
SEX	-0.27	.11	5.26	.02
Constant	-0.057			

R^2 = .56

The data reveal that both gender and achievement level (grade equivalent) are related to social-emotional

functioning as measured by a teacher rating. Grade equivalency was found to be significant at the .005 level in hypothesis eleven when analyzed individually, and gender was significant at the .01 level when testing null hypothesis thirteen. It would appear that these two independent variables account for a significant amount of variance in the dependent variable.

Observation of the data presented in the overall multiple regression, and associated with social-emotional functioning (peer rating) indicates that when all the variables are entered into the regression, there are six independent variables which attain significant levels. These are SIB, B_3, QACH, MSCT, B_1 and B_4 in order of significance. It is surprising that neither of the two variables which were tested individually (QACH and MSCT) was significant. However, formal hypothesis testing did not include the birth order (B_3, B_1, B_4) and sibling (SIB) variables since these variables were not included in the formal generation of the hypotheses. For parsimony, the best two-variable model is presented and discussed next.

Table 56

Best Two-Variable Model - SEPR

Variable	Coefficient	SE	F	PR>F
SIB	-0.31	.14	4.71	.03
B_3	-0.73	2.34	4.46	.04
Constant	-0.067			

$R^2 = .68$

The results reveal that both number of siblings in the family and birth order (third born) are significantly related to social-emotional functioning as measured by a peer rating. Since neither of these variables was tested individually, there has been no discussion of their significance.

As reported in the literature, laterborn children have been found to be more socially adept than elder siblings and are generally well-adjusted because there is less pressure on them. Perhaps the increased interaction and communication among siblings also carries over into easier social relationships with others. Therefore, the increased socialization experienced within a family unit

with older siblings may enhance the social-emotional functioning of children as observed by their peers.

These results reveal an error in the development of hypotheses formulated here because they were not considered significant enough to be included in the formal hypotheses. Therefore, further study in this area is strongly suggested.

Analysis of the data associated with childrens' self-concept reveals that when all of the variables are entered into the multiple regression, four independent variables are significant, namely MCAR, MM_4, M_2, and B_3. It appears that maternal-child attitudes on the rejection scale are significantly related to childrens' self-concept. In addition, the marital status of separation, being a step-child, and being third born also are related to childrens' self-concept. Table 57 presents the best two-variable model.

Table 57

Best Two-Variable Model - CSCT

Variable	Coefficient	SE	F	PR>F
MCAR	-0.46	.15	9.40	.003
MM_4	-0.28	.11	6.73	.01
Constant	-0.38			

$R_2 = .53$

In hypothesis two, it was observed that the maternal-child relationship attitudes associated with the rejection scale were significantly related to childrens' self-concept. Apparently, these negative, rejecting attitudes adversely affect children. The literature presented evidence that unconditional acceptance of the child enhances positive self-concept development. The results of this study reveal that accepting attitudes have far less impact on positive self-concept development than rejecting attitudes have on negative self-concept development. Perhaps the accepting attitudes that children may receive from others around them (relatives, teachers, peers) do not compensate for the negative, rejecting attitudes of the most significant person in their lives.

The other significant variable, namely, the marital status of separation, also appears to adversely affect children. It may be that women who are separated from their husbands unconsciously or consciously have rejecting attitudes towards their children. It may be that the child reminds them of their spouse, the child may be a source of conflict between the two, or the child may simply be an easy "target" for displaced anger. Whatever the reason, having a separated mother negatively impacts on the child's self-concept.

When testing null hypothesis eight, it was observed that there was no significant difference in self-concept across maternal marital status conditions. It was noted, however, that the uneven group sizes made the analyses questionable. Further study with a more evenly distributed population would prove beneficial. Also to be studied further is the step-child/step-mother relationship, and birth order as they affect self-concept.

In general, it appears that several variables which were formally presented and tested as hypotheses were significant in the best two-variable models when taken individually by dependent variable. However, other significant variables were not included in the formal hypotheses testing and warrant further study.

Summary of Results

In this chapter, the results were analyzed statistically by the use of Analysis of Variance, Bivariate Regression and Multiple Regression techniques. Fourteen hypotheses guided the study with each formulated in an attempt to determine which maternal, familial and/or personal variables might help to explain the social-emotional functioning and self-concept of children.

Null hypothesis one was tested utilizing multiple regression procedures and the results indicated that there

was no significant relationship between maternal-child relationship attitudes and social-emotional functioning in children. Null hypothesis one was not rejected. When testing whether a significant relationship existed between maternal-child relationship attitudes and childrens' self-concept, multiple regression was again employed. It was found that the maternal-child relationship attitudes associated with the rejection scale were significant and therefore, null hypothesis two was not rejected for the rejection attitude measure.

To test null hypotheses three and four, bivariate regression analysis was employed to determine the relationship between maternal self-concept and the social-emotional functioning and self-concept of children. No significant relationship was found between maternal self-concept and social-emotional functioning and null hypothesis three was not rejected. In hypothesis four, however, maternal self-concept was found to be significantly related to children's self-concept. Therefore, null hypothesis four was rejected.

When self-concept and social-emotional functioning of children was analyzed across socioeconomic levels no significance was found. Both null hypotheses five and six were not rejected.

Children's self-concept and social-emotional functioning were analyzed across maternal marital status

conditions and there was no significance observed. Again, both null hypotheses seven and eight were not rejected.

Across ethnic background conditions it was found that neither children's self-concept nor social-emotional functioning were significantly different and null hypothesis nine and ten were not rejected.

Null hypotheses eleven and twelve were tested for a significant relationship between achievement level and both social-emotional functioning and self-concept in children. In testing null hypothesis eleven, multiple regression was employed and, statistical significance was found between achievement level (grade equivalency) and both teacher and peer ratings of social-emotional functioning. Therefore, parts B and C of null hypothesis eleven were rejected. When analyzing self-concept and achievement, no significance was found. Null hypothesis twelve was not rejected.

The social-emotional functioning of children and self-concept were analyzed across genders to test null hypotheses thirteen and fourteen. It was found that boys generally rated lower on teacher and peer social-emotional functioning ratings; therefore, parts B and C of null hypothesis thirteen were rejected. On the other hand, although self-concept differences across genders were not found to be significant, further study appears warranted

to clarify the relationship. Null hypothesis fourteen was not rejected.

In the overall multiple regression analysis of all independent variables, it was found that the best two-variables model for each of the four dependent variables included several formerly tested variables (MCAR, SC_4, SC_6, GACH, SEX, and MM_4). However, other demographic variables not included in the formal hypothesis testing also were found to be significant (B_3 and SIB). It was concluded these variables should have been included in the formulation of the original hypotheses tested in the present study.

In addition to the significant relationships established, this investigation suggests areas for further study. These are systematically discussed in Chapter V along with a presentation of a summary statement and conclusions.

CHAPTER V

Discussion

Summary of the Findings

The overall purpose of the investigation was to determine the nature of the relationship among maternal self-concept, maternal-child relationship attitudes, selected demographic variables, and the social-emotional functioning and self-concept of sixth grade children. It has been established (Berzonsky, 1981; Stone, 1981) that the psychological development of the child may be traced to parental attitudes toward the child, and the nature of the child's responses to those attitudes. Leviton (1975) likewise stated that when a child is accepted and approved of, he or she will acquire an attitude of self-acceptance and develop a positive self-concept. In addition, this self-acceptance would provide the child with the freedom to venture forth into the school situation and be successful.

Keeping these findings in focus, the present study was designed to identify those variables which may influence the child's self-concept and social-emotional functioning in school, and to present suggestions for change and the enhancement thereof. With the

identification of those variables significant to childrens' self-concept (maternal self-concept and maternal attitudes of rejection), and those significant to social-emotional functioning (gender, and grade equivalency), progress may be made toward the prevention of psychological problems and the enhancement of psychological health.

Throughout the past decade or so self-concept building and parent education programs have been developed. It is assumed that identification of the significant aforementioned maternal variables would provide a framework for the development of even more relevant intervention strategies. Furthermore, it would appear that working with mothers directly to build concepts and to modify negative mother-child attitudes would prove beneficial to their offspring and make the mother-child relationship a more positive, fulfilling experience.

The findings reported here suggest that the variables of gender and level of achievement (grade equivalence) are significantly related to the social-emotional functioning of children. Although gender is one variable which may not be manipulated, teaching and encouraging boys and girls to respond more similarly may prove helpful to boys' social and emotional adjustment in

school. This may involve both family members and school personnel becoming less sexually discriminatory when it comes to behaviors and attitudes expected and tolerated. Considering achievement in school, when students achieve below grade level their frustration tolerance and motivation are often observed to be lower. Consequently, their social and emotional functioning in school may deteriorate. This speculation is supported by the results of the present study and suggests some areas for intervention. Social skills development in addition to academic remediation may prove to be important and necessary programs in order for students to have not only an academically successful school experience, but one which is also personally fulfilling. Although the primary focus of the schools is academic preparation, this by itself is worthless if schools and families do not work to also develop psychologically and socially adjusted "good" citizens.

In addition to the variables mentioned above, socioeconomic level (middle class), birth order (third born), number of siblings in the family and the marital status of separation also were demonstrated to be significantly related to self-concept and/or social-emotional functioning. Their significance was observed when all or most of the independent variables

were entered into a multiple regression equation. Again these data suggest that programs in social skills development and parent education may serve to reduce or eliminate their effect on the dependent variables of self-concept and social-emotional functioning.

It may be that direct intervention with children is not sufficient to ensure well-adjusted, psychologically healthy individuals. An effort may be needed to enhance the self-concept and child-rearing skills of parents in addition. Furthermore, curricula may need to expand beyond the traditional 3 R's and help prepare students both socially and emotionally.

The traditional argument that the schools can't do it all (academic, social, and emotional development) may need to be debated repeatedly since it is clear that all of these areas need to be promoted. The involvement and cooperation of families, social service agencies, schools and churches is needed in order to solve the dilemma. In the long run, however, each of these areas of personal development must be addressed, and the sooner the better.

The conclusions that the research findings reported here indicate are as follows:

1. There is no significant relationship between maternal-child relationship attitudes, and the social-emotional functioning of children.

2. There is a positive, significant relationship between the maternal-child relationship attitude of rejection, and the self-concept of children.

3. There is no significant relationship between maternal self-concept, and the social-emotional functioning of children.

4. There is a positive, significant relationship between maternal self-concept, and the self-concept of children.

5. There is no significant difference in the social-emotional functioning of children across family socioeconomic levels.

6. There is no significant difference in the self-concept of children across socioeconomic levels.

7. There is no significant difference in the social-emotional functioning of children across maternal marital status conditions.

8. There is no significant difference in the self-concept of children across maternal marital status conditions.

9. There is no significant difference in the social-emotional functioning of children across ethnic background conditions.

10. There is no significant difference in the self-concept of children across ethnic background conditions.

11. There is a positive, significant relationship between achievement level (grade equivalence) and social-emotional functioning as measured by teacher and peer ratings.

12. There is no significant relationship between achievement level, and the self-concept of children.

13. There is a positive, significant difference is the social-emotional functioning of children across genders when measured by teacher and peer ratings.

14. There is no significant difference in the self-concept of children across genders.

As reported, several variables appear significantly related to the self-concept and social-emotional functioning of sixth grade children. Given these findings, several recommendations may now be made.

The following recommendations are based upon the conclusions and research data presented above:

1. The concept of parent training and licensure should be explored further. Prospective parents would be taught skills and provided with information to help prepare them for parenthood. Ongoing education throughout the period of development of the child would insure early

identification of problems, encouragement and feedback, and strategems for more effective and rewarding parenting.

2. Parent-infant programs should be developed and provided by hospitals, churches and other community facilities where new parents may be supervised while caring for their children. These may take the form of a day care center where beginning parenting skills could be fine tuned.

3. Parent support groups should be organized where members may discuss feelings, concerns, frustrations and experiences with others. The understanding and support of other parents would be invaluable.

4. Support systems should be available for single parents whose parenting issues may be somewhat different. The provision of cooperative babysitting, for example, would allow for a break from child-rearing responsibilities and may provide for a more fulfilling experience.

5. Other groups or programmed materials which may be utilized at home may be helpful for the enhancement of parents' self-concept. Perhaps a series of "classes" on television would serve this need.

6. Programs, groups and materials could be developed and presented to help parents raise their children without sexual stereotypes. Boys might be encouraged to be less aggressive and more cooperative, and girls might be encouraged to be more assertive and less cautious. The goal would be to raise children who are well-rounded socially and emotionally, and who are able to adjust to various situations.

7. School curricula should include education for parenthood. These might include materials geared toward each grade level and continued throughout the school career of the child from kindergarten to high school.

8. All students could be required to serve time as a "parent helper" in an actual day care center. Perhaps schools may serve as preschool day care facilities with the school children assisting in the care of the children. This would allow both boys and girls to explore their nurturing ability and to develop skills which will be utilized later.

9. Programs should be developed and utilized which teach social skills. Students would learn how to adjust to new situations, and how to interact and to express themselves appropriately. Personal growth, assuming responsibility and getting along with others would be the major goals of such programs.

10. Groups should be organized where self-concept enhancement would be the focus. Students would work on development of positive self-concepts, focus on strengths and weaknesses and learn to identify and utilize their potential.

11. Special social skills programs and self-concept groups should be developed to focus specifically on the special education of the academically below average student. These students may have personal issues specifically related to their school difficulties.

12. School personnel should be provided with inservice training which would prepare them for dealing with the affective side of students also. They should be encouraged to abandon outdated sexual stereotypes and relate to boys and girls more similarly. In turn, the behaviors of boys and girls may become closer and boys may be less likely to occupy most of the seats in classes for children with adjustment problems.

13. For those children who have already been determined to have poor self-concepts or social-emotional adjustment problems, counseling should be provided to help them learn new ways of coping and viewing themselves.

14. Generally, the affective development of children would be considered as important as the cognitive development. This would require involvement by both families and schools.

Recommendations for Further Study

1. Replication of the study utilizing father-child pairs would provide important missing information regarding paternal-child relationships and their impact on self-concept and social-emotional functioning.

2. Replicate the study utilizing a population which is more evenly distributed with regard to ethnic groups and marital status conditions.

3. Study each of the self-concept component measures separately instead of the global self-concept measure. More subtle relationships may emerge especially with regard to gender differences.

4. Study social-emotional functioning as it relates to each of the maternal self-concept component measures. Perhaps significant relationships may emerge when self-concept is broken down into specific areas.

5. Design an experimental study which would examine the results of self-concept building programs and/or social skills development programs on the social-emotional functioning and self-concept of children.

6. Replicate the study utilizing children in various age groups to assess peer and parental influences.

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APPENDIX A

REPERTORY GRID

Repertory Grid Rating Scale

The following repertory grid components were constructed in such a way that the instruction sheet was on top, followed by the page which contained the code numbers and student names. Stapled to the right-hand side of the code number/name sheets were ten individual sheets each containing one of the constructs and the rating scale numbers. These ten pages were attached, one upon the other from 1-10, so that each student and teacher would lift up the sheets and rate themselves and peers on each of the ten variables. These ten pages were then removed from the list of names thereby insuring anonymity.

REPERTORY GRID RATING SCALE

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read before beginning.

1. Locate your name within the list of student names.
2. Circle the number directly to the left of your name (this will be your code number for the study).
3. Locate and circle your code number on each of the lift-up sheets.
4. After discussion of each variable, you will rate each classmate and yourself on a seven point scale. A score of 7 means that it is MOST LIKE the student; a score of 1 means it is LEAST LIKE the student.
5. Be sure to circle only one number for each student and yourself.
6. Make sure you rate every student and yourself on every variable.
7. Be honest and careful. Thank you for your cooperation.

TEACHERS: Please check the box indicating Teacher Evaluation, on each lift-up sheet as well as on the name side. Proceed to rate each student as directed above in the instructions.

RATING SCALE:

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
most like student				least like student		

VARIABLES:

1. Uses free time constructively
2. Expresses feelings and controls self
3. Makes positive statements about self
4. Moves around the classroom and school without disturbing others
5. Listens to the teacher and follows directions
6. Gets along well with others; doesn't fight or argue
7. Works hard on class work
8. Helps others; shares ideas and supplies
9. Is generally trustworthy and honest
10. Is an important member of the class

REPERTORY GRID RATING SCALE

7 6 5 4 3 2 1

most like student ..... least like student

E01 .....
E02 .....
E03 .....
E04 .....
E05 .....
E06 .....
E07 .....
E08 .....
E09 .....
E10 .....
E11 .....
E12 .....
E13 .....
E14 .....
E15 .....
E16 .....
E17 .....
E18 .....
E19 .....
E20 .....
E21 .....
E22 .....
E23 .....
E24 .....
E25 .....
E26 .....
E27 .....
E28 .....
E29 .....
E30 .....

☐ Teacher Evaluation

C	D	H	L	N	W		
1. USES FREE TIME CONSTRUCTIVELY							
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	01
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	02
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	03
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	04
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	05
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	06
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	07
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	08
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	09
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	10
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	11
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	12
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	13
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	14
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	15
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	16
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	17
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	18
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	19
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	20
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	21
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	22
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	23
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	24
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	25
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	26
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	27
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	28
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	29
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	30

☐ TEACHER EVALUATION

C	D	H	L	N	W		
2. EXPRESSES FEELINGS AND CONTROLS SELF							
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	01
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	02
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	03
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	04
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	05
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	06
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	07
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	08
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	09
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	10
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	11
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	12
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	13
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	14
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	15
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	16
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	17
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	18
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	19
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	20
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	21
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	22
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	23
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	24
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	25
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	26
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	27
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	28
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	29
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	30

☐ TEACHER EVALUATION

C D H L N W

3. MAKES POSITIVE STATEMENTS ABOUT SELF

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	01
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	02
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	03
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	04
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	05
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	06
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	07
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	08
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	09
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	10
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	11
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	12
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	13
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	14
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	15
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	16
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	17
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	18
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	19
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	20
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	21
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	22
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	23
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	24
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	25
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	26
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	27
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	28
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	29
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	30

☐ TEACHER EVALUATION

C D H L N W

4. MOVES AROUND THE CLASSROOM AND SCHOOL WITHOUT DISTURBING OTHERS

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	01
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	02
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	03
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	04
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	05
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	06
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	07
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	08
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	09
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	10
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	11
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	12
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	13
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	14
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	15
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	16
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	17
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	18
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	19
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	20
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	21
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	22
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	23
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	24
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	25
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	26
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	27
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	28
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	29
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	30

☐ TEACHER EVALUATION

C D H L N W

5. LISTENS TO THE TEACHER AND FOLLOWS DIRECTIONS

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	01
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	02
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	03
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	04
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	05
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	06
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	07
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	08
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	09
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	10
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	11
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	12
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	13
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	14
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	15
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	16
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	17
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	18
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	19
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	20
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	21
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	22
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	23
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	24
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	25
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	26
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	27
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	28
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	29
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	30

☐ TEACHER EVALUATION

C D H L N W

6. GETS ALONG WELL WITH OTHERS, DOESN'T FIGHT OR ARGUE

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	01
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	02
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	03
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	04
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	05
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	06
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	07
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	08
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	09
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	10
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	11
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	12
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	13
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	14
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	15
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	16
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	17
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	18
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	19
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	20
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	21
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	22
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	23
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	24
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	25
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	26
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	27
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	28
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	29
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	30

☐ TEACHER EVALUATION

C D H L N W

7. WORKS HARD ON CLASS WORK

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	01
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	02
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	03
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	04
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	05
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	06
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	07
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	08
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	09
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	10
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	11
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	12
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	13
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	14
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	15
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	16
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	17
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	18
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	19
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	20
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	21
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	22
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	23
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	24
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	25
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	26
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	27
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	28
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	29
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	30

☐ TEACHER EVALUATION

C D H L N W

8. HELPS OTHERS; SHARES IDEAS AND SUPPLIES

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	01
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	02
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	03
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	04
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	05
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	06
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	07
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	08
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	09
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	10
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	11
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	12
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	13
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	14
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	15
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	16
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	17
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	18
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	19
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	20
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	21
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	22
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	23
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	24
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	25
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	26
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	27
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	28
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	29
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	30

☐ TEACHER EVALUATION

C D H L N W

9. IS GENERALLY TRUSTWORTHY AND HONEST

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	01
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	02
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	03
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	04
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	05
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	06
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	07
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	08
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	09
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	10
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	11
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	12
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	13
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	14
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	15
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	16
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	17
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	18
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	19
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	20
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	21
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	22
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	23
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	24
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	25
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	26
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	27
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	28
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	29
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	30

☐ TEACHER EVALUATION

C D H L N W

10. IS AN IMPORTANT MEMBER OF THE CLASS

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	01
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	02
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	03
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	04
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	05
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	06
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	07
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	08
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	09
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	10
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	11
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	12
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	13
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	14
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	15
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	16
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	17
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	18
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	19
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	20
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	21
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	22
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	23
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	24
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	25
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	26
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	27
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	28
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	29
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	30

☐ TEACHER EVALUATION

APPENDIX B

TENNESSEE SC SCALE
(Modified Instructions)

TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALE

by

William H. Fitts, PhD.

Published by

Counselor Recordings and Tests

Box 6184 - Acklen Station Nashville, Tennessee 37212

MODIFIED INSTRUCTIONS

Do not fill in your name or any other identifying information. Your code number has already been recorded.

The statements in this booklet are to help you describe yourself as you see yourself. Please respond to them as if you were describing yourself to yourself. DO NOT OMIT ANY ITEM! Read each statement carefully; then select one of the five responses listed below. On the answer tabs which are stapled into the booklets, put a circle around the response you chose. If you want to change an answer after you have circled it, do not erase it but put an X mark through the response and then circle the response you want.

When you are ready to start, find the box on this instruction sheet marked time started and record the time. When you are finished, record the time finished in the box on this instruction sheet marked time finished.

Before you begin, be sure that you have circled either M for mother, or S for student, and recorded the time.

Remember, put a circle around the response number you have chosen for each statement. You will find these response numbers repeated at the bottom of each page to help you remember them.

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false & Partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

_____ Time started _____ Time finished.

M - Mother S - Student

REMEMBER* Answer every item.

1. I have a healthy body..... 1 2 3 4 5

3. I am an attractive person..... 1 2 3 4 5

5. I consider myself a sloppy person..... 1 2 3 4 5

19. I am a decent sort of person..... 1 2 3 4 5

21. I am an honest person..... 1 2 3 4 5

23. I am a bad person..... 1 2 3 4 5

37. I am a cheerful person..... 1 2 3 4 5

39. I am a calm and easy going person..... 1 2 3 4 5

41. I am a nobody..... 1 2 3 4 5

55. I have a family that would always help me in any kind of trouble..... 1 2 3 4 5

57. I am a member of a happy family..... 1 2 3 4 5

59. My friends have no confidence in me..... 1 2 3 4 5

73. I am a friendly person..... 1 2 3 4 5

75. I am popular with men..... 1 2 3 4 5

77. I am not interested in what other people do..... 1 2 3 4 5

91. I do not always tell the truth..... 1 2 3 4 5

93. I get angry sometimes..... 1 2 3 4 5

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

2. I like to look nice and neat all the time 1 2 3 4 5

4. I am full of aches and pains 1 2 3 4 5

6. I am a sick person 1 2 3 4 5

20. I am a religious person 1 2 3 4 5

22. I am a moral failure 1 2 3 4 5

24. I am a morally weak person 1 2 3 4 5

38. I have a lot of self-control 1 2 3 4 5

40. I am a hateful person 1 2 3 4 5

42. I am losing my mind 1 2 3 4 5

56. I am an important person to my friends and family 1 2 3 4 5

58. I am not loved by my family 1 2 3 4 5

60. I feel that my family doesn't trust me 1 2 3 4 5

74. I am popular with women 1 2 3 4 5

76. I am mad at the whole world 1 2 3 4 5

78. I am hard to be friendly with 1 2 3 4 5

92. Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about 1 2 3 4 5

94. Sometimes, when I am not feeling well, I am cross 1 2 3 4 5

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

7. I am neither too fat nor too thin..... 1 2 3 4 5

9. I like my looks just the way they are..... 1 2 3 4 5

11. I would like to change some parts of my body..... 1 2 3 4 5

25. I am satisfied with my moral behavior..... 1 2 3 4 5

27. I am satisfied with my relationship to God..... 1 2 3 4 5

29. I ought to go to church more..... 1 2 3 4 5

43. I am satisfied to be just what I am..... 1 2 3 4 5

45. I am just as nice as I should be..... 1 2 3 4 5

47. I despise myself..... 1 2 3 4 5

61. I am satisfied with my family relationships..... 1 2 3 4 5

63. I understand my family as well as I should..... 1 2 3 4 5

65. I should trust my family more..... 1 2 3 4 5

79. I am as sociable as I want to be..... 1 2 3 4 5

81. I try to please others, but I don't overdo it..... 1 2 3 4 5

83. I am no good at all from a social standpoint..... 1 2 3 4 5

95. I do not like everyone I know..... 1 2 3 4 5

97. Once in a while, I laugh at a dirty joke..... 1 2 3 4 5

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

8. I am neither too tall nor too short..... 1 2 3 4 5

10. I don't feel as well as I should..... 1 2 3 4 5

12. I should have more sex appeal..... 1 2 3 4 5

26. I am as religious as I want to be..... 1 2 3 4 5

28. I wish I could be more trustworthy..... 1 2 3 4 5

30. I shouldn't tell so many lies..... 1 2 3 4 5

44. I am as smart as I want to be..... 1 2 3 4 5

46. I am not the person I would like to be..... 1 2 3 4 5

48. I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do..... 1 2 3 4 5

62. I treat my parents as well as I should (Use past tense if parents are not living) 1 2 3 4 5

64. I am too sensitive to things my family say..... 1 2 3 4 5

66. I should love my family more..... 1 2 3 4 5

80. I am satisfied with the way I treat other people..... 1 2 3 4 5

82. I should be more polite to others..... 1 2 3 4 5

84. I ought to get along better with other people..... 1 2 3 4 5

96. I gossip a little at times..... 1 2 3 4 5

98. At times I feel like swearing..... 1 2 3 4 5

Responses -	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

13. I take good care of myself physically.....1 2 3 4 5

15. I try to be careful about my appearance.....1 2 3 4 5

17. I often act like I am "all thumbs".....1 2 3 4 5

31. I am true to my religion in my everyday life.....1 2 3 4 5

33. I try to change when I know I'm doing things that are wrong.....1 2 3 4 5

35. I sometimes do very bad things.....1 2 3 4 5

49. I can always take care of myself in any situation.....1 2 3 4 5

51. I take the blame for things without getting mad.....1 2 3 4 5

53. I do things without thinking about them first.....1 2 3 4 5

67. I try to play fair with my friends and family.....1 2 3 4 5

69. I take a real interest in my family.....1 2 3 4 5

71. I give in to my parents. (Use past tense if parents are not living).....1 2 3 4 5

85. I try to understand the other fellow's point of view.....1 2 3 4 5

87. I get along well with other people.....1 2 3 4 5

89. I do not forgive others easily.....1 2 3 4 5

99. I would rather win than lose in a game.....1 2 3 4 5

Responses -	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

14. I feel good most of the time 1 2 3 4 5

16. I do poorly in sports and games 1 2 3 4 5

18. I am a poor sleeper 1 2 3 4 5

32. I do what is right most of the time 1 2 3 4 5

34. I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead 1 2 3 4 5

36. I have trouble doing the things that are right 1 2 3 4 5

50. I solve my problems quite easily 1 2 3 4 5

52. I change my mind a lot 1 2 3 4 5

54. I try to run away from my problems 1 2 3 4 5

68. I do my share of work at home 1 2 3 4 5

70. I quarrel with my family 1 2 3 4 5

72. I do not act like my family thinks I should 1 2 3 4 5

86. I see good points in all the people I meet 1 2 3 4 5

88. I do not feel at ease with other people 1 2 3 4 5

90. I find it hard to talk with strangers 1 2 3 4 5

100. Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today 1 2 3 4 5

Responses-	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C

MCRE

The Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation

1980 Edition Manual

Robert M. Roth, Ph.D.

Published by

WPS
WESTERN PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES
PUBLISHERS AND DISTRIBUTORS
12031 WILSHIRE BOULEVARD
LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA 90025
A DIVISION OF MANSON WESTERN CORPORATION

The Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation

Robert M. Roth, Ph.D.

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Name _____ Age _____ Years Married _____ Date _____

Address _____ Telephone No. _____

No. of Children _____ Names and Ages of Children _____

_____

Child Presented _____

DIRECTIONS:

To better understand you and your child, and your relationship with your child, please express your opinions or your feelings about the statements in this evaluation. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers, only your opinions or feelings. Let your personal experiences decide your answers. Keep in mind the child for whom you are seeking help.

Do not spend too much time on any one statement. If you are in doubt, circle the opinion or feeling closest to expressing your feelings at this time. *Be sure to answer all statements.*

Read each statement carefully, then draw a circle around the opinion or feeling to the right of the statement which comes closest to your opinion or feeling.

If you *strongly agree* with the statement or feeling, circle the letters SA; if you *agree*, circle the letter A; if you are *undecided*, circle the letters UN; if you *disagree*, circle the letter D; and if you *strongly disagree*, circle the letters SD. You will have time to answer all the statements. When you finish please turn in your booklet. *Now begin.*

	Strongly Agree (5)				Agree (4)				Undecided (3)				Disagree (2)				Strongly Disagree (1)			
	A	OP	OI	R	A	OP	OI	R	A	OP	OI	R	A	OP	OI	R	A	OP	OI	R
1. If possible, a mother should give her child all those things the mother never had.		SA				A				UN				D				SD		
2. Children are like small animals and can be trained like same as puppies.				SA				A				UN				D				SD
3. Children cannot choose the proper foods for themselves.		SA				A				UN				D				SD		
4. It is good for a child to be separated from its mother from time to time.				SA				A				UN				D				SD
5. "Having fun" usually is a waste of time for a child.		SA				A				UN				D				SD		
6. A mother should defend her child from criticism.		SA				A				UN				D				SD		
7. A child is not at fault when it does something wrong.			SA				A				UN				D				SD	
8. When a mother disapproves of an activity of her child, she should overemphasize its danger.				SA				A				UN				D				SD

	Strongly Agree (5)				Agree (4)				Undecided (3)				Disagree (2)				Strongly Disagree (1)			
	A	OP	OI	R	A	OP	OI	R	A	OP	OI	R	A	OP	OI	R	A	OP	OI	R
9. My child cannot get along without me.		SA				A				UN				D				SD		
10. My child does not get along with other children as well as it should.				SA				A				UN				D				SD
11. A mother should be resigned to the fate of her child.	SA				A				UN				D				SD			
12. A mother should see that her child's homework is done correctly.		SA				A				UN				D				SD		
13. To raise a child suitably, the mother should know fairly well what she would like her child to be.				SA				A				UN				D				SD
14. A mother should "show off" her child at every opportunity.			SA				A				UN				D				SD	
15. It takes much energy to discipline a child properly.			SA				A				UN				D				SD	
16. A mother should never leave her child by itself.		SA				A				UN				D				SD		
17. With the right training, a child can be made to do almost anything.				SA				A				UN				D				SD
18. It is good for a mother to cut her child's hair if it dislikes going to the barber.			SA				A				UN				D				SD	
19. I often threaten to punish my child but never do it.			SA				A				UN				D				SD	
20. When a child disobeys in school, the teacher should punish it.				SA				A				UN				D				SD
21. My child annoys me.				SA				A				UN				D				SD
22. It is the mother's responsibility to see that her child is never unhappy.		SA				A				UN				D				SD		
23. A child is an adult in small form.				SA				A				UN				D				SD
24. A mother cannot spend too much time reading to her child.			SA				A				UN				D				SD	
25. A child needs more than two medical examinations each year.		SA				A				UN				D				SD		
26. Children cannot be trusted to do things by themselves.		SA				A				UN				D				SD		
27. Breast feeding should be stopped by the mother as soon as possible.				SA				A				UN				D				SD
28. Children should always be kept calm.		SA				A				UN				D				SD		
29. A child should not have a fixed allowance.			SA				A				UN				D				SD	
30. I often play practical jokes on my child.				SA				A				UN				D				SD

	Strongly Agree (5)				Agree (4)				Undecided (3)				Disagree (2)				Strongly Disagree (1)			
	A	OP	OI	R	A	OP	OI	R	A	OP	OI	R	A	OP	OI	R	A	OP	OI	R
31. The mother should lie down with her child if it cannot sleep.			SA				A				UN				D				SD	
32. Often children act sick when they are not sick.				SA				A				UN				D				SD
33. Children can never bathe themselves as they should.		SA				A				UN				D				SD		
34. A child should not be scolded for grabbing things from an adult.			SA				A				UN				D				SD	
35. When a mother has problems with her child with which she cannot deal, she should seek the proper help.	SA				A				UN				D				SD			
36. When a child cries, it should have the mother's attention at once.			SA				A				UN				D				SD	
37. Somehow, I cannot refuse any request my child makes.			SA				A				UN				D				SD	
38. Children have rights of their own.	SA				A				UN				D				SD			
39. A mother should always see that her child's demands are met.			SA				A				UN				D				SD	

	(1)				(2)				(3)				(4)				(5)			
40. A child should not get angry at its mother.	SA				A				UN				D				SD			
41. Young children, like toys, are for their parents' amusement.	SA				A				UN				D				SD			
42. Childbearing is a responsibility of marriage.	SA				A				UN				D				SD			
43. There are certain right ways of raising a child, no matter how the parents feel.	SA				A				UN				D				SD			
44. Children should be seen but not heard.	SA				A				UN				D				SD			
45. A mother should control her child's emotions.	SA				A				UN				D				SD			
46. Since thumbsucking is an unhealthy habit, it should be stopped by all means.	SA				A				UN				D				SD			
47. It is not too helpful for a mother to talk over her plans with her child.	SA				A				UN				D				SD			
48. A child should please its parents.	SA				A				UN				D				SD			

END

Raw Scores (See manual for scoring instructions)

A [ ] OP [ ] OI [ ] R [ ]

Mother-Child Relationship Profile

Percentile	A	OP	OI	R	Percentile	T
	53	46	45	44		75
						74
99	52	45	44	43	99	73
			43			72
		44	42	42		71
	51					70
			41	41		69
		43	40			68
						67
95	50	42		40	95	66
	49	41	39			65
	48	40				64
90	47	39		39	90	63
			38			62
	46	38	37	38		61
			36			60
						59
80	45	37	35	37	80	58
75	44			36	75	57
		36	34			56
70	43			35	70	55
		35				54
60	42	34	33	34	60	53
		33	32	33		52
						51
50	41	32	31	32	50	50
		31				49
						48
40	40	30	30	31	40	47
						46
30	39	29	29	30	30	45
						44
25	38			29	25	43
20	37	28	28	28	20	42
						41
	36	27	27	27		40
	35	26	26	26		39
	34					38
10	33	25	25	25	10	37
	32			24		36
		24				35
5	31	23	24	23	5	34
	30					33
		22	23	22		32
	29			21		31
		21	22			30
	28			20		29
						28
1	27	20	21	19	1	27
						26
	26	19	20	18		25
Percentile	A	OP	OI	R	Percentile	T

APPENDIX D

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES FORM

ID # _____

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES FORM

1. SEX OF SUBJECT CHILD: ___1. Male ___2. Female

2. MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIP: ___1. Natural ___2. Step ___3. Adopted
___4. Foster ___5. Other

3. BIRTH ORDER OF SUBJECT CHILD: _____
(first, second, fifth, etc...)

4. NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN FAMILY: _____

5. ETHNIC BACKGROUND: ___1. White ___2. Black ___3. Hispanic
___4. Asian ___5. Other

6. AGE OF MOTHER: _____ years

7. HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL LEVEL ATTAINED BY MOTHER: (circle highest number)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 ..grade school.. 9 10 11 12 ..high school.. 13 14 15 16 ..college or technical training..

17 18 19 20 ..post graduate..

8. MOTHER'S MARITAL STATUS: ___1. Single mother ___2. Married
___3. Divorced ___4. Separated ___5. Widowed

9. OCCUPATION - HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD:
Title of occupation _____
Duties _____
_____
Employed currently? ___1. Yes ___2. No

10. USUAL SOURCES OF INCOME: ___1. Salary ___2. Public Aid
___3. Child Support ___4. Other

ndr/83

APPENDIX E

CONSENT FORM AND LETTER FOR PARTICIPATION

NANCY DORT ROSSOW
9820 S. Prospect Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60643

February 21, 1984

Dear Concerned Mother:

We know as parents that children not only learn basic academic skills in school, but also how to interact socially with others. We also know that parents and other important people influence the social/emotional development of children.

Currently I am working as a school psychologist in south suburban Cook County while pursuing my Ph.D. at Loyola University of Chicago. For my dissertation, I am studying the relationship among maternal self-concept, maternal-child relationship and social/emotional functioning in children. My study design requires that I obtain consent to work with your sixth grade child.

You are being requested to complete two brief questionnaires, one relating to your self-concept and the other one relating to your maternal-child relationship. You will also be asked to complete a short information form. Your child will be asked to complete the self-concept measure and a specially constructed Repertory Grid Rating Scale which is designed to assess social/emotional functioning of self and peers. I will also need to obtain your child's standardized achievement scores. All mother-child pairs will be provided with a code number and this number will be used instead of names. Confidentiality is assured. You will receive your questionnaires, including your child's self-concept measure, at home by mail and may complete them in the comfort of your own home. I will instruct your child in the procedures for completion of the rating scale during the school day. This should take a minimal amount of time. The students' teacher will also be asked to complete a teacher evaluation.

After the data are collected I will analyze them and relate the results to your school district and to you. It is hoped that the results of this study may provide additional, valuable information about that most important relationship - mother and child.

Please complete the enclosed consent form and return it to me as quickly as possible. You may withdraw your consent at anytime with no penalty. If you wish to contact me and discuss this further please feel free to call - 532-7300 extension #146 (office), or 445-7597 (home). Thank you for your time, interest, and assistance with this important research.

Sincerely,

Nancy D. Rossow

Nancy D. Rossow, M.P.H., M.Ed.
School Psychologist

NANCY DORT ROSSOW
9820 S. Prospect Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60643

CONSENT/INFORMATION RELEASE FORM

I _____ (please print), Mother/Female Parent

of _____ (child's name) do/do not

grant my consent for my child's participation in the research study of N.D. Rossow, investigating the social/emotional functioning of children.

Please check the appropriate box to the extent indicated below:

☐ MY CHILD AND I CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY - THIS INCLUDES COMPLETION OF THE FOLLOWING FORMS:
- self-concept measure
- mother-child relationship evaluation survey
- general information form
- peer/self rating scale

and I also authorize the release of my child's standardized achievement test scores.

☐ NEITHER MY CHILD NOR I WILL PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY

I understand that I may withdraw my consent at any time without penalty, that our answers will be kept in stictest confidence, and that the research involves no risk of harm to myself or my child. Please return this consent form in the self-addressed, stamped envelope as quickly as possible. Thank you for your cooperation.

SIGNED: _____

DATE: _____

ndr/83

APPENDIX F

LETTER WITH FORMS
(Instructions on Completion)

NANCY DORT ROSSOW
9820 S. Prospect Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60643

March 12, 1984

Dear Parent:

Enclosed are the questionnaires which you and your child have recently agreed to complete. Each form has been assigned a number code and no other identifying information is needed.

You should complete the Demographic Variables Form, the Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation form, and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. Your child should complete only the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. A set of modified instructions has been stapled to the inside of the self-concept form and should be followed carefully. Please be sure to answer every item - DO NOT OMIT ANY.

After completion of the forms, please return them as quickly as possible in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided for your convenience.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Nancy D. Rossow

Nancy D. Rossow, M.P.H., M.Ed.
School Psychologist

Encl.

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by **Nancy Dort Rossow** has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. Ronald R. Morgan, Director
Associate Professor,
Educational Foundations, Loyola

Dr. Jack A. Kavanagh
Associate Professor and Chairman,
Educational Foundations, Loyola

Dr. Carol G. Harding
Assistant Professor
Educational Foundations, Loyola

Dr. William Watts
Lecturer
Guidance and Counseling, Loyola

The final copies have been examined by the director of 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 Philosophy.**

12/7/84
Date

Ronald R. Morgan
Director's Signature