SELF-CONCEPT AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVEL OF NEGRO TEENAGE GIRLS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Psychologists, sociologists and other educators have recently shown much interest in the development of concepts, particularly those related to the self. Self-concept refers to the process of identity development which occurs in each individual (Kvaraceus, 1965). The question, "Who am I?" must be faced by every individual and his answer will either be the beginning of a satisfying maturation and life experience, or the beginning of a steadily depressing regression into antisocial behavior (Gregory, 1966).

Whatever it is that causes an individual to act or not to act, a significant role is played in this determination by what the person thinks about himself (Wylie, 1961). A person's view of himself determines in part how he will behave. Consequently, one's self-concept is important.

The problem of achieving positive self-concept is intensified for the Negro because for years he has been made to feel inferior. Racial and cultural pride often are not felt by the Negro child, partially because Negro history has been excluded from the school textbooks. He has no past of his own, no heroes. This exclusion often leaves the child without Negro models to imitate or identify with. An effort to counteract this lack of cultural pride is at the heart of the black movement with its many variations of "black is beautiful."

Another factor that has hindered the development of positive self-concept among Negroes is an unstable family structure, a home in which the Negro male does not perform according to the norm because in many instances he cannot secure adequate employment. Lumer (1965) stated that Negroes often earn far less than whites with comparable education, even in the same jobs. Kvaraceus, et. al. (1965) described the Negro state: the last hired and the first fired, charged more for insurance, a harder time obtaining credit or any kind of bank loan and relegated to living in decaying sections of town. In spite of all this, the enduring grief lies in being made to feel different, inferior, as if one is "a subhuman breed of animal."

During slavery, Negro family life as it existed centered inevitably around the woman. A variety of economic and social factors since Emancipation have kept the woman in dominant roles (Silberman, 1964). Whereas the Negro father is often unable to obtain employment, the mother can frequently find employment as a maid or baby-sitter. Restlessness, partially created by this economic status, often causes the Negro male to desert his family. He cannot assure his wife of support or his children of food and shelter (Grier and Cobb, 1968). More Negro girls than boys go to college—among whites, the reverse is true—so the matriarchy perpetuates itself (Silberman, 1964).

Because of this "pattern of life," many Negro children have few experiences with stability, warmth, attention and

security from two parents, all of which are taken for granted as part of the necessary environment for positive self-concept development. Jersild (1952) stated high school teachers find many Negro youngsters have had a long history of being pushed about, neglected or rejected, with damaging effects on their attitudes toward themselves. This is especially true of youngsters from disadvantaged homes.

The black man was brought to this country forcibly and was completely cut off from his past. He was robbed of language and culture. He was forbidden to be an African and never allowed to be an American. Other groups have come to these shores and retained an identification with their homeland. Except for the Negro, all sizable groups in America have been able to keep old customs and traditions. In support of this Grier and Cobbs (1968, p. 23) stated: "The Jew achieves a sense of ethnic cohesiveness through religion and a pride in background, while the black man stands in solitude."

Other factors that have contributed to the Negro's feeling of inferiority include low quality education, crowded living, and poor working conditions. These conditions have also been thrust on many immigrants upon their arrival to this country. However, with higher education, achieved social status and cultural change, they often lose their "foreign identity" and become accepted in our society as first class citizens. In the main, Negroes are different.

Regardless of education, cultural change or acquired status, they are marked to remain separate or different.

Self-concept is the value core that marks behavior and determines one's general outlook on life. To quest for and not be able to achieve, to dream and never see dreams realized, to work to no apparent end, to try without success and to search without finding, has been the legacy of Negroes for generations. The odds are small that a Negro child can grow up without being abused or patronized, without being convinced by a hundred big and small humiliations, that he has no worth and no chance (Silberman, 1964). It is noteworthy then, that a black child in America can emerge with a positive self-concept in a country with a heritage of racism. Any group of people subjected to the same conditions of the Negro would probably behave accordingly, complete with the development of negative self-concept. Perhaps, a big factor in negative self-concept stems from the low plateau on which the Negro male is placed. Without him in a leadership role. it is difficult for Negro families to fit within the "texture of white America."

Attitudes concerning race are formed at an early age. By first grade, if not sooner, Negro children have negative feelings about themselves. Silberman (1964) sites research that was done with Negro and Caucasian slum children at the Institute for Developmental Studies, New York Medical College. The youngsters were given a test in which they

were asked to complete a number of sentences. One of them read: "When I look at myself, I feel ______."

Thirty percent of the Caucasian children completed the sentence with some unfavorable judgment about how they compared to other children, but a full eighty percent of the Negro slum children drew an unfavorable judgment about themselves. This self-deprecation continues and expands as the child matures. Goodman (1966) stated that even at the age of four, children regard "white" as right, good, pleasant, and "black" as wrong, dirty, and unpleasant. No one wants to be black.

Long ago in the United States, basic decisions were made. The most important of these made color the crucial variable. This began as the cornerstone of the system of black slavery. After refinement, it has remained to become imbedded in the national character. Persisting to this day is an attitude, shared by black and white alike, that black is inferior. This belief permeates every facet of this country and it is the etiological agent from which has developed the national sickness (Grier and Cobbs, 1968).

Black men hear on all sides that success lies in being like white people. This cannot be obtained. The question posed by Grier and Cobbs (1968, p. 163) is timely: "Is it any wonder, then, that this consequence of racial prejudice is deadly to the intellectual flowering of black people?"

The use of hair straighteners and skin bleaches have been

used by some Negroes, to no avail, in an attempt to come close to the white ideal. According to Clark (1963), even when the minority approximates the majority group's standards, norms and expectations, he may still find himself unwanted. Whether a new Negro self-concept is emerging because of integration, poverty programs, Negro revolts, natural hair styles, Afro-American costumes and other African identification remains to be seen.

The Negro's self-concept development has been left largely to chance, and this is not as it should be. Positive self-concept development is essential if one is to participate as a "fully functioning" member in society. If we are to help young people be self sufficient and productive citizens, we must guide them in developing positive self-concepts. Before Negro parents, teachers and other significant adults can help young people develop positive self-concepts, they must have positive feelings about themselves. Caucasian adults working with Negro students must also have positive feelings about themselves but in addition, they must have positive concepts about Negroes.

Wylie (1961) stated that parental concepts are both consciously and unconsciously woven into the life pattern of children. There is some evidence, not entirely free of possible artifact, to suggest that children's self-concepts are similar to the view of themselves which they attribute to their parents. There is also limited evidence that a

child's level of self-regard is associated with the parents reported level of regard for him. Further evidence suggests that children see the like-sexed parents' self-concept as being somewhat more like their own self-concept. It is of importance that parents have positive self-concepts because of their impact on self-concept development of their children.

In spite of society's view of the Negro, a number of studies have demonstrated that Negro parents have high aspirations for their children. All too often, however, the aspirations remain little more than vague and unfulfilled dreams, for neither the parents nor the youngsters have any notion of what, specifically, has to be done to fulfill the aspirations. Nothing in their experience enables them to know what kind of aptitudes are required to become a doctor, lawyer, or engineer (Silberman, 1964).

With conditions in our society suggesting that development of positive self-concept is difficult for the Negro youth, it is necessary to examine family patterns in order to determine whether there is a relationship between particular life style variables and development of self-concept. Such information could be useful to family life educators, guidance counselors and teachers in their work with students and their families. Specifically, the objectives of this research were to explore differences between Negro girls with positive self-concepts and negative self-concepts in relation to the following factors:

- 1. Social class
- 2. Parents' education
- 3. Parents' employment
- 4. Family structure
- 5. Aspirations of the subjects
- 6. Grade point average of the subjects

The following hypothesis was tested: There is no relationship between self-concept scores and

- A. Social class level
- B. Educational level of parent
 - 1. Father
 - 2. Mother
- C. Occupational level of parent
 - 1. Father
 - 2. Mother
- D. Family structure
 - 1. Marital status of parent
 - 2. Family size
 - 3. Ordinal position of subject
- E. Aspirations of subjects
 - 1. Education
 - 2. Marriage
 - Employment
- F. Grade point averages of subjects

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Self-concept has been variously defined as "that organization of qualities that the individual attributes to himself" (Munat, 1968, p. 4); "the foundation for the entire personality" (Gregory, 1966, p. 53); "a learned constellation of perceptions, cognitions and values" (Wylie, 1961, p. 121). The self-concept is a vital part in the make-up of each individual.

Formation of Self-Concept

Moustakas (1966, p. 12) stated that "in the early development of the self, self-confirmation precedes the confirmation of others...affirming the value of one's own experience comes first in the process, recognition and valuing of others comes later." This awareness of self and others grows, through making comparisons, finding likenesses and differences (Goodman, 1966). The home is the first social institution that influences a child's attitude. His peers, school, and community are also great influential agencies leading to a self-concept that can be classified into two broad categories: positive and negative. Gregory (1966) stated that from a positive self-concept, a happy and productive personality emerges; from a negative self-concept comes an unbalanced and unhappy person. The self-concept, to be sound, must avoid the two extremes of personal evaluation—too much importance or absolute

worthlessness. To develop positive self-feeling is perhaps more difficult for the American Negro than for any other group of people. Many years ago the Emancipation Proclamation was signed. To millions of Negro slaves, who had experienced great injustice, this came as a "beacon of hope." But one hundred years later, the Negro is still not free. The life of the Negro is still crippled by prejudices, segregation, discrimination and poverty (King, 1968).

Prejudice: Self-Concept Development

Allport (1954) defines prejudice as a feeling, favorable or unfavorable, toward a person or thing, prior to, or not based on actual experience. Clark (1963) has classified prejudices into three categories: positive, neutral, and negative. Positive prejudices reflect the accumulated knowledge of the culture; it is neither necessary nor reasonable for an individual to try to make a personal verification of all concepts. Neutral prejudices are those which do not help or harm; negative prejudices are destructive and harmful. Prejudices against the Negro are of the negative variety. As Allport (1954, p. 139) observed:

What would happen to your own personality if you heard it said over and over again that you were lazy, a simple child of nature, expected to steal and had inferior blood?...Suppose this opinion were forced on you by the majority of your fellow citizens and suppose nothing you could do would change this opinion because you happen to have black skin.

Even Negroes themselves add to the myth that black is inferior. Research has shown that in a number of Negro families the lighter skinned children are favored by the parents (Herman, 1966). It is also interesting to note that most of the Negro leadership group today are not Negroid in physical appearance (Kvaraceus, et.al., 1965). Although each individual has his own unique personality, shaped by his special endowments and experiences, the ubiquity of racial prejudice in the United States guarantees that virtually every Negro-American faces at some level the impersonal effects of discrimination, the frightening feel of being a black man in what often appears to him to be a white man's world (Munat, 1968).

Many teachers and principals honestly believe that

Negro children are educable only to an extremely limited

extent. When teachers have a low expectation level for children's learning, the children seldom exceed that expectation,

which is a self-fulfilling prophecy (Kvaraceus, et.al., 1965).

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) stated that a child's short
comings may originate not in his different ethnic, cultural

or economic background, but in his teacher's responses to

that background. Perhaps more attention in educational

research should be focused on the teacher.

Fink (1962) stated academic underachievers often obtain average or better scores on tests of intelligence than the academic achievers. This indicates the primary operant factor in academic underachievement is not lack of intelligence alone. Other factors associated with academic underachievement are hostility, emotional disturbances, poor home background, low socio-economic level, poor teaching and inadequate school facilities, all of which at one time or another plague most Negroes. Jensen (1969) pointed out that "many other traits, habits, attitudes and values enter into a child's performance in school besides just his intelligence, and those noncognitive factors are largely environmentally determined, mainly through influence within the child's family."

A study (Fink, 1962) conducted in a rural high school, located in the Central Valley of California, involving minth grade boys and girls, concerned self-concept and academic achievement. Self-concept was measured by instruments generally used by school psychologists. Collected data was presented to three judges, two school psychologists and a clinical psychologist. They were asked to make a determination as to adequacy of inadequacy of self-concept of each child. The results of this study appear to confirm the hypothesis that a relationship does exist between adequacy of self-concept and level of academic achievement. This conclusion appears to be unquestionable for boys, considerably less for girls. According to Fink (1962) an adequate self-concept is related to high academic achievement and an inadequate self-concept is related to low academic achievement.

Green (1966) stated that Negro students score lower on standardized achievement and aptitude tests. Suburban school districts are facing the problem of grouping students on the basis of test scores. Consequently, teachers are segregating their classrooms. This often produces a feeling of inferiority on the part of the Negro student and feelings of superiority on the part of the white student. This also leads to the negative self-perception of Negro students.

Race prejudices are developed very early in life. A study of the development of racial awareness in Negro children was made by Clark and Clark (1955). The investigators gave each child a sheet of paper with drawings of a leaf, an apple, an orange, a mouse, a boy and a girl, plus a box of twenty-four colored crayons. Each child was tested alone and asked to color the leaf, apple, orange, and mouse. If the child responded correctly, it was assumed that he knew what colors things really are. When asked to color the boy or girl, all of the Negro children with very light skin color, colored the figure representing themselves with the white or yellow crayon. The researchers concluded these children were reacting in terms of their own skin color. But 15 percent of the children with medium-brown skin color and 14 percent of the dark-brown children also colored their "own" figure with either white or a yellow crayon or with some bizarre color like red or green. Yet these children were quite accurate in their ability to color the other pictures. Their

refusal to choose an appropriate color for themselves was interpreted as an indication of emotional anxiety and conflict in terms of their own skin color. Because they wanted to be white, they pretended to be. This often leads to the development of negative self-concept, which is often as crippling and just as hard to overcome as any physical handicap. Actually, it may be even more crippling because it is often hidden from the view of the observer (Kvaraceus, 1965).

Poverty: Self-Concept Development

Research has shown that poverty is also a contributing factor to the Negroes' problem. A large majority of Negroes are confronted with an inadequate food supply, dilapidated housing, low quality education, unstable family life, crowded living conditions and unemployment. Herman (1966) stated that only a small percentage of Negroes are even one generation removed from abject poverty. According to Munat (1968), poverty means not just density of population or large families or dilapidated housing or infestation of vermin or the absence of privacy or obsolescent sanitation or low income or unemployability or retarded education or indifferent politicians or the congestion in the streets. It is all of these tangled up in the life of each person. The "poverty-stricken" child is almost defeated before he has had a chance in life.

Some psychologists say that differences along class lines are apparent by the time children are less than two years old, and children from the lower socio-economic classes

are well behind middle-class children by the time they enter school...the years from birth to around six are of critical importance for the individual's future cognitive development (Rowan, 1969).

Segregation-Integration: Self-Concept Development

Unjust segregation is still prevalent in America today. Under slavery, the black man was a psychologically emasculated and totally dependent human being. Black men continue to exhibit the inhibitions and psychopathology that had their genesis in the slave experience. The American heritage of racism will still not allow the black man to feel himself master in his own land (Grier and Cobbs, 1968). A father who feels defeated by the world is not in a good position to give his son a sense of optimism and a feeling that he can achieve something himself (Kvaraceus. et.al.. 1965).

The idea of integration carries the implication that it is better to mingle with whites and be accepted into their company than to be excluded. But, again, it is the white man who determines which black man will be worthy of his company, since few black men can integrate many situations. White people must invite black people in, or more accurately, must lower the barriers and allow the entry. "Those so blessed gain grace through proximity to whites and, by this selective process and the advantages which flow from it, is the cultural attitude of white supremacy and black inferiority maintained" (Grier and Cobbs, 1968, p. 166).

In the words of Lumer (1965), for the Negro, the war on poverty is clearly bound up with the war on discrimination and segregation. The fight for jobs requires the ending of discrimination. The fight for equal opportunity in education requires the abolition of segregated schools. And so it is in every other aspect of the struggle.

The 1954 Supreme Court decision that segregation of schools was unconstitutional pushed many Americans toward realization and acceptance of the fact that Negroes are not inferior. Generally, Negroes have negative concepts of themselves and they behave accordingly. Research seems to bear out that individual performance or behavior depends not only on how intelligent a person actually is, but also on how intelligent he thinks he is (Hamachek, 1968). Concept of self tends to continue developing in the direction in which it starts, consequently, the "beginning years" are extremely important in self-concept development. Our present Head Start program, low-cost housing and school breakfast and lunch programs are some examples of provisions being made to give deprived children a "better start."

Education: Self-Concept Development

There are many avenues that could lead toward positive self-concept development, one of which is education. The school is second only to the home as a place where the social forces which influence a child's attitude toward himself and others is concentrated. According to Jersild (1952), when-

ever the learner faces an educational situation that has significance for him as a person, the learning which takes place will involve a process of assimilation of something new into himself..."To adopt the self-concept as a basic concept in education will not add to a teacher's load in the long run, for it will make the job of teaching more meaningful and significant and more rewarding for the learner."

Our society is education oriented. With improved education, especially for the Negro male, more job opportunities are available. Better jobs provide opportunity for better living conditions and a more stable family life. This series of conditions should place the Negro in the "main stream" of our society and contribute to a more positive self-concept.

The nature of Negro intelligence and learning style was the main core of a research project just completed at the University of California and reported not only in an educational journal (Harvard Educational Review, Winter, 1969), but also in a news magazine (U.S. News and World Report, March, 1969). Jensen (1969) argues that genetics, not environment plays the major role in I.Q. scores. To support his argument he sites the 1966 findings of the Coleman Report of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. The report states that the environmental rating of the Indians was found to be below the Negro average; however, in scores on both ability and achievement tests, it was discovered

that Indians averaged six to eight points above Negroes. In rebuttal to Jensen's (1969) views on the role of heredity in human intelligence and in racial differences in I.Q., Crow (1969) stated: "It can be argued that being white or being black in our society changes one or more aspects of the environment so importantly as to account for the differences."

Identity-Acceptance: Self-Concept Development

Knowing "who you are" is a quality that is essential for the development of positive self-concepts. If we solve the problem of Negro identity, that is, aid the Negro in developing a fully positive sense of self-worth, the economic problem may well take care of itself. A person with a secure sense of self-worth does not take rebuff as a way out; he finds another door to open. Having achieved a sense of worth, the individual is able to put to work latent abilities so he will learn skills in demand on the labor market (Kvaraceus, et.al., 1965).

American Negroes have been formed by the United States. Africa gave them their color, but America gave them their personality and their culture. The central fact in Negro history is slavery, and Negroes must come to grips with it; must learn to accept it not as a source of shame, but as an experience that explains a large part of their present predicament. Only if they understand why they are what they are can Negroes change what they are. Identity is not something that can be found, it must be created (Silberman, 1964).

After identity comes self-acceptance, often thought of as the peaceful and painless co-existence between man and his emotions (McDonald, Smith, Sutherland, 1962). The Negro must learn to accept himself. The self-accepting process is one through which persons are able to achieve a measure of understanding about themselves and then are able to handle problems more adequately. The person who can accept himself is probably more accepting of others.

Self-Actualization

The process of self-development and self-concept formation continues as long as a person lives. Rogers (1954) refers to this process as "the process of becoming." Maslow (1950) refers to it as "the process of becoming self-actualizing. Following are characteristics of a self-actualizing person as described by Maslow (1950):

- He sees people and events as they truthfully are rather than forming opinions of them based on his tastes.
- II. He recognizes and admits to human nature with all its frailties, sins, weaknesses and evils rather than distorting human nature into something he would prefer it to be.
- III. His behavior is simple and natural.
- IV. He is concerned with non-personal tasks which he undertakes as his responsibilities or duties and which become his mission in life.
- V. Solitude is very important to him; he enjoys being alone.
- VI. His growth and development depends upon his own potentialities and resources rather than upon external satisfactions from other people or from the real world.

- VII. Occasionally he feels intense wonder, pleasure, awe, and costasy from the basic experiences and goods of life.
- VIII. Quite often he feels emotions which are so strong, chaotic, and wide spread that he feels at the same time more powerful and more helpless than he has ever felt before.
- IX. He has deep feelings for human beings in general and a sincere desire to help the human race.
- X. He has deep interpersonal relations with very few individuals but the relationships he has established are based on deep ties.
- XI. He respects the dignity of any human being simply because the other person is a human being.
- XII. He has definite ideas about what is ethically right and wrong and in his daily living he lives up to these moral standards.
- XIII. He finds humor from situations poking fun at human beings in general.
- XIV. His outlook on life is fresh, naive, original and inventive.

The most essential ingredient for starting a child on the road to self-actualization is, according to Rogers (1954), the presence of unconditional positive regard.

Measuring Self-Concept

Studies dealing with the concept of self came into focus during the 1940's and soon formed a new approach to the study of behavior. Snygg and Combs (1949) stated that behavior was best understood as growing out of the individual subject's frame of reference. Behavior was to be interpreted according to the phenomenal field of the subject rather than be seen

in terms of the analytical categories of the observer. As the idea of self-concept was born so were client-centered and self-centered therapy.

The emerging studies on the self have not focused on any
one area, but, rather, have spread into many areas of psychology.

Nany psychologists believe that if something exists it can be measured, thereby stimulating an interest in measuring self-concepts. Investigators have assumed the self-concept can be defined in terms of the attitudes toward the self, as determined either by the subject's reference to himself or by asking him to mark off certain self-regarding attitudes on a rating scale.

A number of methods have been used to measure the self-concept, one of which is Stephenson's (1953) Q-sort technique. Statements or words on cards are sorted to describe both the real and the ideal self. The degree of congruence between the two sorts is taken as a measure of adjustment.

Brownfain (1952) devised a measure of what he termed the stability of the self-concept. Subjects ranked themselves on twenty-five words and phrases each describing a different area of personality adjustment. The measure is not what the subject thinks of himself, but of how sure he is of what he thinks about himself. The subject is instructed to make the rating twice, first with an optimistic frame of reference and then with a pessimistic one. The degree of congruence between the two ratings is termed the degree of

stability of the self-concept.

Berger's (1952) instrument for measuring attitudes toward self and others is a thirty-six item self-acceptance and a twenty-eight item others-acceptance scale. The score for any item ranges from five to one. The acceptance of self and others scores are computed by summing the item scores for all items on that scale. A high score indicates a favorable attitude toward self or others.

In Bills (1957) Index of Adjustment and Values, (Adult form) each of thirty-seven character-trait words is ranked in three different ways. First, the subject ranks the item on the scale according to how well it describes himself.

Next, he marks the item according to how acceptant he is of the way he describes himself. Finally, he rates the item as to the degree to which he aspires to be like that item. A measure of self-acceptance is provided by the degree of similarity between the way the subject sees himself as being and the way he rates himself as accepting his self-ratings.

In an effort to test the validity of the Index of Adjustment and Values, a study of the acceptance of self was conducted at the University of Kentucky that involved twenty subjects. After the subjects were tested with the Index of Adjustment and Values, they were divided into two groups on the basis of acceptance of self scores above and below the mean score of the group. The Rorschach test was then used to measure important personality characteristics of the

groups. Two distinctly different personality groups were found based on the high and low scores assessed by the Index of Adjustment and Values. It was concluded that the Index of Adjustment and Values is able to separate groups with different personality characteristics.

An abundant amount of literature is available with regard to self-concepts and concept formation. The literature presented here is focused primarily on factors related to self-concept development of Negro youngsters.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

The principal of Martin Luther King Jr., Junior High School in Kansas City, Missouri was consulted concerning the proposed research. Permission was granted to conduct the research during regular school hours.

Martin Luther King Jr., Junior High School, located in central Kansas City, opened for the first time in September, 1968. The school, which has three grades, draws students from both middle class and lower class families. The families are generally of the working class. The enrollment of approximately 1200 students is predominantly Negro.

SUBJECTS

The subjects consisted of 144 Negro girls enrolled in the four ninth and five eighth-grade home economics classes at the junior high school. Six classes were taught by the researcher. The questionnaire that was completed in approximately seventy-five minutes, was administered to 161 subjects. It was necessary to administer the questionnaire on three different days. During the three days that data was collected a total of forty-seven students were absent. Seventeen of the papers could not be used because of incompleteness. Of the 144 usable papers, eighty-eight subjects were in the

eighth grade and fifty-six were in the ninth. Cooperation was shown by all the subjects.

INSTRUMENT

An information sheet (Appendix, p. 62) was used to obtain data concerning the education and employment of the subjects' parents, the family structure, and the aspirations of the subjects concerning education, employment and marriage.

Bills instrument (1951), An Index of Adjustment and Values (Appendix, p. 67), Junior High School Form, was used to measure self-concept or acceptance of self and beliefs about other people's acceptance of themselves. The index scales for the Junior High School Form, designated SELF and OTHERS contained thirty-five trait words and were divided into three columns: I AM LIKE THIS, THE WAY I FEEL ABOUT BEING AS I AM, I WISH I WERE. By checking items, the subjects stated in regard to each of the thirty-five trait words that he is like this "most of the time." "about half the time." or "hardly ever." He also stated how he felt about being this way as "I like it," "I neither like or dislike being this way." or "I dislike being this way." He then checked how he would like to be in respect to each of the traits using ratings of "most of the time." "about half the time." or "hardly ever." After a subject completed the SELF form, he completed the OTHERS form. In completing the OTHERS form, the subject thinks in terms of other members of his grade or

peer group and fills out the form as he thinks the average member of his grade or peer group would fill it out for himself.

On the Junior High Form, concern is with the check marks in the three sub-columns under the heading "The Way I Feel About Being As I Am." The ratings are on a three point scale; each check mark under "I like it" scores three points, each check mark under "I neither like nor dislike" scores two points, and each check mark under "I dislike" scores one point.

The total points on the SELF form are summed to arrive at a SELF score. Scores of eighty-nine or above are designated positive and those of eighty-eight and below are negative. The OTHERS form has the same dividing point.

SELF and OTHERS scores are then categorized: ++, -+, +-, or --. The first sign of each pair designates the score on the SELF form as positive or negative, and the second sign designates the OTHERS score. A ++ person is one who is accepting of himself and who believes that others in his peer group are accepting of themselves and a -- person has a negative self-score and believes that other members of his peer group are not accepting of themselves.

Before the questionnaire and index were administered the subjects were informed that they did not have to put their names on the forms, although identifying codes were on them for the use of the researcher. They were also told that the findings from the project would be of benefit in helping teachers to better understand and work with young teen-age girls. Bills instructions and examples were then read and explained to the subjects.

Hollingshead's (1957) Two Factor Index (Appendix, p. 65) was used to determine social class position of the subjects.

Occupation and education were the two factors utilized to classify the subjects into social class positions I, II, III, IV, and V, with social position I ranking the highest.

After data was obtained, the subjects were classified into groups in regard to positive or negative self-concepts and socio-economic position. Other data from information sheet was tabulated and analyzed for differences between students with positive self-concepts and negative self-concepts in relation to selected variables by means of chi square analysis.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The Index of Adjustment and Values was given to 161 subjects. Seventeen of the papers could not be used because of incompleteness. Of the 144 usable papers, eighty-eight of the subjects were in the eighth grade and fifty-six were in the ninth. Age range of the subjects was from twelve years, seven months to fifteen years, seven months with an average age of fourteen years, seven months.

The Index of Adjustment and Values produces a SELF score and an OTHERS score with a range from a low of thirty-five to a high of 105. According to Bills (1957), SELF and OTHERS scores on the Junior High Index of Adjustment and Values of eighty-nine and above are considered indicative of a positive SELF concept or a positive OTHERS concept. Scores of eighty-eight and below indicate negative self-concepts of self and others. The SELF scores in this study ranged from thirty-five to 105 and the OTHERS scores ranged from thirty-nine to 105 with a mean of ninety-two for the SELF score and 88.5 for the OTHERS score.

Using Bills' dividing line between eighty-eight and eighty-nine, fifty-five percent (79) of the subjects had positive self-concept scores and forty-five percent (65) had negative self-concept scores (TABLE 2). Groups were examined to discover differences between them in relation to: social

TABLE 1

COMPARISON OF SELF SCORES AND OTHER SCORES OBTAINED BY BILLS AND FOSTER

Population	SELF Scores	OTHERS Scores
Range		1
Bills	35-105	35-105
Foster	35-105	39-105
Mean		
Bills	88.5	88.5
Foster	92	85

TABLE 2
SELF SCORES AND OTHERSSCORES OF 144 SUBJECTS

Scores	SELF	OTHERS
Positive		
Number	79	65
Percent	55	45
Negative		
Number	64	80
Percent	44	56

position; parents' education; parents' occupation; family structure; educational and marital aspirations and grade point averages of the subjects.

Socio-Economic Position

In order to determine the socio-economic position of the subjects, Hollingshead's (1957) Two Factor Index was used. The two factors utilized to determine social position were education and occupation. The lower the scores on the Index scale the higher the occupational and educational level. Thus, an individual with graduate professional training would receive a one (1) on the educational scale and a one (1) on the occupational scale if he had a high executive position. such as the president of a large bank. The occupation score then is given a factor weight of seven (7) and education receives a factor weight of four (4). The scale scores are then multiplied by the factor weight and the sum of the two determines one's social class score (TABLE 3). By this means the subjects in the present study were placed in the following social classes: Class II, four subjects; Class III, twenty subjects: Class IV, twenty-eight subjects: and Class V. thirty subjects (TABLE 4). None of the subjects received scores that would place them in Social Class I. the highest position. Sixty-two subjects could not be categorized into a social class because of insufficient information.

Representative of the types of families that were found in social class II are a high school teacher and a

TABLE 3
HOLLINGSHEADS' TWO FACTOR INDEX

Range of Scores
11-17
18-27
28-43
44-60
61-77

TABLE 4

SOCIAL CLASS LEVEL OF SUBJECTS
WITH POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE SELF SCORES

Social Class Position		otal mple		itive orers		ative orers
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
I		• •				
II	4	3	3	75	1	25
III	20	14	12	60	8	40
IV	28	19	17	60	11	40
V	30	21	15	50	15	50
Unclassified	62	43	32	52	30	48
Total	144	•••	79	••	65	

speech therapist, both with college educations. Occupations such as construction work and school bus driver with a junior high or partial high school education are representative of families in social class V. Of the twenty-four subjects placed in the two upper social classes (II and III), fifteen had positive self-concept scores and nine had negative self-concept scores. Sixty percent (17) of the subjects in class IV and fifty percent (15) in social class V had positive self-concept scores. The subjects who could not be classified into social classes were about evenly divided into positive and negative self-scores. A chi square analysis showed no relationship between self-scores and social class level.

Parents' Education

Twenty-nine subjects omitted the question concerning education of father. Of the 115 completed answers, twenty percent (23) of the subjects reported their fathers had less than a high school education, fifty-six percent (64) reported some high school education or high school graduation and twenty-four percent (28) some college education or college graduation (TABLE 5). Some of the subjects reported the education of their fathers, even if the fathers were absent from the home.

From the 122 answers regarding mothers education, twelve percent (15) of the subjects' mothers had less than a high school education, sixty-four percent (78) had some

TABLE 5
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF SUBJECTS' PARENTS

Educational Level		otal ample		itive rers		ative rers
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Father:						
Below High School	23	20	13	5 7	10	43
Some High School or Graduate	6 4	56	35	55	29	45
Some College or Graduate	28	2 4	19	69	9	31
Mother:						
Below High School	15	12	9	60	6	40
Some High School or Graduate	78	6 4	44	55	3 4	45
Some College or Graduate	29	24	15	52	14	48

high school education or were graduates, twenty-four percent (29) had some college education or were graduates. Twenty-two subjects omitted the question (TABLE 5).

No significant difference existed between the two groups, in relation to fathers' education. However, of the twenty-eight subjects whose fathers were college educated, sixty-nine percent had positive self-concepts while only fifty-seven percent of the subjects whose fathers had no college education had positive self-concepts. The opposite direction appeared when mothers' education was considered. More subjects whose mothers' had no college education had positive self scores than did subjects with college educated mothers. Those who omitted the question concerning parents education were about equally divided between positive and negative self-concepts.

Parents' Occupations

Thirty-nine subjects omitted the question concerning their fathers' occupations. Fathers' occupations were varied. Among the 105 responses to the question the largest number were classified as unskilled jobs (53). Only two fathers were classified as "lesser professionals," according to Hollingshead's Two Factor Index (TABLE 6). Seven percent (7) were owners of small businesses, ten percent (11) had clerical or sales jobs, fourteen percent (15) were engaged in skilled occupations, eleven percent (12) had positions of a semi-skilled nature, and five percent (5)

TABLE 6

OCCUPATIONAL LEVELS OF SUBJECTS' PARENTS

Occupational Level		otal ample		itive rers		ative rers
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Father:						
Major Professionals		• •	• •			
Lesser Professionals	2	2	2	100	• •	
Owner of Small Business	7	7	5	71	2	29
Clerical and Sales	11	10	7	64	4	36
Skilled Manual	15	14	9	60	6	40
Semi-Skilled	12	11	3	2.5	9	75
Unskilled	53	51	31	59	22	41
Unemployed	5	5	3	60	2	40
Mother:						
Major Professionals		• •	• •		• •	
Lesser Professionals	10	15	3	30	7	70
Owner of Small Business		• •		••	••	
Clerical and Sales	3	5	3	100		
Skilled Manual	12	18	7	5 8	5	42
Semi-Skilled	13	20	7	5 4	6	46
Unskilled	28	42	13	45	15	55

were unemployed. Of the professional fathers, one was a secondary school teacher and the other worked in the public schools as a speech therapist. Barber shops, restaurants, and cleaners are examples of small businesses that were owned by the families. Of those that were clerical or sales oriented, the majority were post office clerks and insurance salesmen. Unskilled employees were in large part construction workers. No difference was found between groups with positive and negative self-concepts in relation to fathers occupation.

Thirty-nine subjects omitted the question concerning their mothers' occupation. Thirty-nine also stated their mothers worked but did not know the kind of work they did. In twenty-eight of the remaining 105 cases the mothers did not work. Of the sixty-six working mothers whose job classification could be determined, fifteen (10) were classified as "lesser professionals," five percent (3) had clerical jobs, eighteen percent (12) had highly skilled occupations, twenty percent (13) were in semi-skilled positions and forty-two percent (28) held unskilled positions (TABLE 6). Those mothers who were classified as professionals were nurses or teachers. Those with clerical jobs were mostly post office clerks. Skilled and semi-skilled workers were secretaries. clerks, key punch operators, practical nurses and factory workers. Jobs such as baby-sitter, bus chaperon and maids are examples of occupations of an unskilled nature.

No difference was found between groups with positive self-concepts and negative self-concepts when employment

of the mother was considered. Two subjects whose mothers did not work made the following statements in answer to the question concerning their mothers' occupations: "She doesn't have to work," "My mother is a wonderful housewife." Both subjects had positive self-concepts.

Seventy percent (66) of the mothers from intact families worked outside the home, thirty percent (28) did not. From among the sixty-six intact families, with mothers working, twenty three percent (14) of the husbands had higher job classifications than their wives, while thirty percent (24) of the wives had a higher job classification than their husbands. Job classifications were equal among forty-two percent (28) of the parents.

A number of parents had job training in addition to their formal education. Twenty-nine girls reported some extra job training for their fathers. Twelve stated their fathers had business training, sixteen were trained to operate machines and one had salesmanship training.

Seventy-one subjects reported extra job training for their mothers. Six of the mothers were trained beauticians, nine were practical nurses, four were secretaries, and sixteen had Head Start training.

FAMILY STRUCTURE

Of the 139 subjects who answered the question concerning their parents' marital status, ninety-four reported an intact family and forty-five reported a non-intact family (TABLE 7). No difference was found in the self-concept of the two groups.

The subjects listed the following as the persons with whom they lived: eighty-nine lived with both parents; forty-three lived with one parent; six lived with neither parent and six omitted the question.

Neither the ordinal position of the subjects or the number of children in the family appeared to affect positive or negative concept development. Twenty-nine percent (41) of the subjects were the oldest, seventeen percent (25) the youngest, six percent (9) were only children, and forty-eight percent (69) occupied other positions among the siblings. Family size ranged from one child to thirteen (TABLE 7).

Aspirations of Subjects

Ninety-five percent (138) of the subjects stated they planned to finish high school and five percent (6) did not plan to finish. Sixty-seven percent (96) planned to go to college, eight percent (14) did not plan to go to college, and twenty-five percent (34) were undecided about college. No relationship was found between school aspirations and self-concept scores.

Eleven percent (16) of the subjects were enrolled in a homemaking class for the first time when this data was

TABLE 7
DESCRIPTION OF FAMILY STRUCTURE

Family Characteristics		otal ample		itive rers		ative rers
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Marital Status						
Intact Families	9 4	65	5 4	57	40	43
Non-intact Families	45	35	27	60	18	40
Ordinal Position	n					
Oldest	41	29	26	63	15	37
Youngest	25	17	14	56	11	44
Only	9	6	6	67	3	33
Other	69	48	35	51	3 4	49
Number of Child	ren					
1 to 2	13	9	10	77	3	23
3 to 4	44	31	23	52	21	48
5 to 6	59	41	31	53	28	47
7 or more	28	19	13	46	15 .	5 4

collected, eighty-six percent (124) had taken homemaking before, and three percent (4) of the subjects did not respond to the question. Homemaking, English, and mathematics were listed as the favorite subjects, and mathematics, social science, and physical education were listed as least favorite subjects.

Favorite subjects marked by ten percent of those answering were: mathematics, homemaking, social sciences, physical education, and english. Three others marked by ten percent as least favorite were: mathematics, social science, and english. While mathematics was listed by nineteen percent as favorite, over thirty-four percent (50) marked it as least favorite.

In response to the question, "When do you plan to get married?", forty-two percent (62) of the subjects stated they did not know, thirteen percent (18) planned to get married after high school, three percent (6) said during college, and eleven percent (16) stated they never wanted to be married. No subjects reported plans for marriage during high school.

The subjects' aspirations concerning jobs varied. The three occupations most frequently mentioned were: nurse-twenty percent (28); teacher--sixteen percent (23); and secretary--thirteen percent (18). Six percent (9) of the subjects stated they wanted to be a model or singer, eight percent (12) wanted to be beauticians, five percent (8)

wanted to be airline hostesses, seven percent (10) omitted the question. Twenty-five percent (36) of job aspirations were classified under "other," which included such occupations as: computer programmer, x-ray technician, cartoonist, doctor, meteorologist, journalist, work in hamburger place, and housework.

Grade Point Averages of Subjects

The grade point averages of forty-eight of the fiftysix ninth grade subjects were obtained at the end of the
school year. Eight of the subjects that had participated in
the study had transferred or dropped out of school. Unit
credits and scholarship points are used to compute scholarship averages. This information was not available for the
eighth grade. Pupil achievement is evaluated by use of letter
marks with meanings as follows: "E"-excellent, "S"-superior,
"M"-medium, "I"-inferior, and "F"-failure (TABLE 8). No
difference was found between the positive self-concept group
and negative self-concept group in scholastic averages.

TABLE 8

GRADE POINT AVERAGE OF NINTH GRADE SUBJECTS

	e Point erage		ample	Post	itive rers	Nega Scor	ative rers
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
E-S	6.00-5.00	24	50	18	75	6	25
М	4.99-4.00	9	19	2	23	7	77
I-F	3.99-2.00	15	31	10	67	15	33

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Index of Adjustment and Values

The mean score on Bills Index of Adjustment and Value was 88.5 and the self score mean in the study was ninety-two. It was expected that the mean score would be lower than in Bills work and the scores of a majority of the subjects would fall in the negative category, since all of the subjects were Negro and there are many conditions which seem to negate the development of a positive self-concept.

The fairly even division of subjects into positive and negative self-concept categories might be the result of an attempt on the part of the student to "fit in," or to give answers they believed to be acceptable to the teacher.

The list of adjectives that Bills prepared in 1957 may not be as important today as they were when they were prepared. The language of the minority group, too, might give very different connotations to particular words on the list. If a list of relevant trait words were prepared the emerging picture might be different.

Work must be continued to develop instruments that have validity and reliability in measuring the feeling of Negro adolescents about themselves.

Social Class Position

It is often difficult to use any instrument that has been standardized on a white population for measuring a black population because of different life styles. In the American society

the male is considered head of the household, this is often not true in black families. "Society has rules which regulate black lives far more than the lives of white men...if a man is stripped of his authority in the home by forces outside that home, the woman naturally must assume the status of head of household" (Grier and Cobbs, 1968, p. 51). This is often the case in Negro families. If education and occupation of parents, in Negro families, are of a different social level the family often lives by the mother's standards. According to Grier and Cobbs (1968), the slave mother taught her sons not to be assertive and aggressive because it could put his life in danger. Negro mothers still, perhaps unconsciously, prepare their sons for their subordinate places in the world. Silberman (1964) stated studies have shown that generally more Negro girls than boys attend college (among whites, the reverse is true) and so the matriarchy perpetuates itself.

Forty-three percent of the subjects could not be placed in a social class level because of insufficient information concerning their fathers' education and occupation. Lack of communication between family members appears to be a problem in most families, but especially in lower class Negro families. Forty percent (58) of the subjects in this study were in social classes IV and V, the lowest on Hollingshead's scale. Only four families were in social class II and no one was in social class I.

Parents' Education

Although chi square analysis showed no relationship between self-concept scores and the educational level of either father or mother, a greater number of subjects had positive self-concepts when the father had some college education than when he did not. This was not true in regard to the mothers' education.

A larger percentage of mothers in this study (64 percent) had a high school education than the fathers (56 percent). In Negro families, frequently more girls than boys go to college (Silberman, 1964). Often boys must "drop out" of school to help support the family, especially if the father is absent from the home. There is also a feeling of "why educate the boys, they can take care of themselves." Perhaps education does not hold the same value in the Negro family as in the general population.

Parents' Occupation

Occupations of the majority of both parents in this study were of the unskilled nature. Generally, the fathers were construction workers or employees in automobile factories.

Many of the mothers were maids, waitresses, and nurses' aides. Lack of communication within the families was also exhibited here—the subjects often knew where their parents worked, but they had no idea of the kind or nature of the work. When some of the subjects were asked about their fathers' occupations, replies were of the following nature: "He didn't tell me," "I don't know," "I don't ever talk to my dad."

The subjects reported that seventy-one of their mothers had extra job training in addition to their formal education

whereas only twenty-nine girls reported their fathers had additional job training. Perhaps this is indicative of the "less aggressive" role that many Negro males assume.

Silberman (1964) stated that the Negro unemployment rate is higher than the white rate in every major occupation; however, in this study only five percent (5) were unemployed. None of the subjects stated they were on welfare, 105 mothers worked outside the home.

Family Structure

Sixty-five percent (94) of the subjects were from intact families, the remainder were from non-intact families. This appeared to have very little effect on the self-concepts of the subjects as measured by Bills' instrument. One of the reasons could be that the Negro family is primarily matriarchal even when the father is present. Another reason could be that non-intact Negro families often receive support from the communities in which they live, in regard to the rearing of their children.

Aspirations

Ninety-five percent (137) of the subjects stated they planned to finish high school and sixty-seven percent (96) planned to attend college. Three of the ninth grade girls who participated in the research and who stated they planned to finish high school, left school during the spring because of pregnancy. The question this brings to mind is: since

the girls were probably pregnant when they participated in the research, were the aspirations they stated really theirs?

Were they giving answers they thought were expected by their teacher?

According to Silberman (1964), a number of studies have shown that Negro parents have high aspirations for their children—higher, in fact, than those held by white parents in the same socio—economic class. Lee and Stith (1969) reported low—income Negro mothers appeared to have high aspirations for themselves and their children. They wanted help for themselves in achieving better interpersonal relations and wanted their children to be better prepared for adult life than they had been.

Becoming "educated" is one of the ways in which Negroes feel they can improve their present condition. Ironical as it might seem, after a Negro has become "educated" he is often resented by those in the community that are not educated. Also, he still may find many doors closed to him except in menial jobs. In the words of Grier and Cobbs (1968, p. 125): "The black man who has breached so many barriers to achieve academic status must realize that further doors are open to all save him...his is a blind alley...his achievements are circumscribed by the same impediments of discrimination as are those of this less gifted brother."

Job aspirations among the subjects varied. Perhaps those jobs mentioned more often represented the professions

that the subjects had seen more Negro females occupying than any others. The students had recently heard a lecture by a Negro airline hostess which probably accounts for high interests in that occupation. Varied job opportunities classified under "others" could be an indication of students' awareness of more job opportunities for Negroes.

Of particular interest were some comments that the subjects made in regard to the question "What kind of job do you want to have?" Many of the subjects wanted "to help others." Comments included: "taking care of the handicapped," a kind where I could help people or children in some way, maybe blind or crippled children," "I want to be a social worker," "I want to work in the field of law, I want to be able to help people." A number of the subjects also expressed interest in "making money." Comments included: "nurse or model, either one so that I can make big money," "one with high paying money," "I would love to have a job that I will have fun doing and have enough money to have the things I have always wanted."

A number of subjects wanted to get married after high school or after college, but forty-two percent stated they did not know when or if they wanted to get married. Ninety-five percent of the subjects planned to finish high school and sixty-seven percent planned to attend college.

Grade Point Average

The grade point averages were only available for fortyeight of the ninth grade subjects. Fifty percent (24) of the
subjects had an "E" or "S" grade point average, nineteen
percent (9) had a grade point average of "M" and thirty-one
percent (15) had an "I" or "F" average. It was expected that
there would be some relationship between scholastic average
and self-concepts; high scholastic average--positive selfconcept, low scholastic average--negative self-concept. However, this was not true in this study since sixty-seven percent
of the students with an "I" average had positive self-concepts
and thirty-three percent had negative self-concepts. Of the
students with "E" averages, fifty-eight percent had positive
self-concepts and forty-two percent had negative self-concepts.
Perhaps school failure or success is not important to these
children.

Self-Concept

Fifty-five percent of the subjects had positive selfconcepts and forty-five percent had negative self-concepts.

Two quite contradicting questions deserve attention. Is it
reasonable to expect half the sample of any population to
have negative self-concepts? It is important to more thoroughly
understand the conditions in the lives of these students that
might cause such a large number of them to view themselves
negatively. On the other hand, in the view of the difficulties
which Negro youth face in todays society, a second question

could be: What accounts for the positive self-concept scores? Poverty, discrimination and prejudice are three factors which may contribute to the development of negative self-concepts. In many Negro families there are two sources of income, consequently, these subjects have not experienced "dire" poverty. A number of students had perhaps led rather sheltered lives, free from "direct" discrimination. Most subjects have engaged in the use of integrated public facilities such as restrooms, restaurants, movies, and bowling alleys. Perhaps these subjects receive support from the parents and community which enables them to look ahead; to work for better opportunities for themselves and their children. The black community can capitalize on the changes which evidently are taking place.

No significant relationship was found between selfconcept scores and any of the variables tested: social class; education of parents; occupational level of parents; family structure (marital status, family size, ordinal position); aspiration of subjects (educational, marital, occupational); or academic achievement of the subjects.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

Whatever it is that causes an individual to act or not to act, a significant role is played in this determination by what the person thinks about himself (Wylie, 1961).

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between positive and negative self-concepts and the following: 1) social position, 2) parents' education, 3) parents' employment, 4) family structure, and 5) education and marital aspirations and academic achievement of the subjects.

One hundred forty-four Negro students, enrolled in home economics at a Junior High School in central Kansas City, Missouri, where the investigator taught, were asked to participate in the research project.

A questionnaire was designed to gain information about social class position, family structure, and aspirations of the subjects. Bills' Index of Adjustment and Values was used to assess self-concept and Hollingshead's Two Factor Index was used to determine social class position of the subjects.

Eighty-nine of the subjects were in the eighth grade and fifty-six were in the ninth grade. Ages ranged from twelve years, seven months to fifteen years, seven months with an average age of fourteen years, seven months.

Forty-three percent (62) of the subjects could not be classified into social class positions because of insufficient

information. A majority of the subjects classified were placed in social class positions IV and V, the lowest levels. None could be placed in social class position I. Fifty-five percent of the subjects had positive self-concepts, and forty-five percent had negative self-concepts.

Fifty-one percent (53) of the fathers were unskilled laborers and two percent (2) were classified as "lesser professionals." Fourteen percent (23) of the subjects' fathers had less than a high school education and eighteen percent (28) had some college education or were college graduates.

Ten percent (15) of the mothers were classified as "lesser professionals" and twenty-eight percent (40) held a position of unskilled nature. Eleven percent (15) of the mothers had less than a high school education and twenty percent (29) had some college education or were graduates. Sixty-five percent (94) of the subjects were from intact families.

Implications for Action and Research

Opportunities for parents, educators, and other persons interested in helping to foster positive self-concept development among Negro youngsters are numerous.

The home setting of the Negro child often does not provide ingredients for positive self-concept development-partially because the parents have often had few experiences with stability, warmth and affection to adequately guide their children. However, the schools can play a major role in developing positive self-concepts by providing warmth,

welcome, and support—which Negro children need in abundance because they have experienced much deprivation. The Negro child, from earliest school entry through graduation from high school, needs continued opportunities to see himself and his racial group in a realistically positive light. He needs to understand what color and race mean; he needs to learn about those of his race who have succeeded; he needs to clarify his understanding of Negro history and the current Negro situation. The expectation level of students should also be raised as children seldom exceed their teachers expectation for them.

Many projects currently in operation should help to improve self-concept development of the Negro child, but change is slow. Some of the projects include: desegregated schools, governmental food and housing programs, job and scholarship offerings by agencies and institutions, focus on black youngsters in textbooks, Negro history and an identification with Africa. How long will the focus on the Negro last? How long will it take to wipe out the self-hatred that has accumulated through so many generations? If the adolescent can be reached with the "new image" of the Negro, younger children can certainly be reached—the hope of the Negro lies in future generations.

More research needs to be designed to explore effects of the American color-caste system on the self-concept development of Negro children. Only when we can look beyond color, can we see the Negro as he really is--an individual, with basic human needs that must be met if he is to reach his full potential.

Different factors have different effects upon individuals. If the "pattern of life" of each subject were explored individually, one could perhaps select those variables that have contributed most toward positive or negative self-concept development. This study was designed to investigate the overt factor of family life styles and their relationship to self-concept development. Perhaps the question should be asked, "What are the factors within the "inner family circle" such as: relationships, support, values, and guidance that would aid or hinder positive concept development?" These are difficult to measure. There are evidently strengths in the Negro family which must be defined and undergirded.

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APPENDIX

PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS

1.	Age Years, Months
2.	Birth date
3.	Grade (Check one)
	8th 9th
4.	Ages of brothers,,
5.	Ages of sisters,,,
6.	Is this your first class in Home Economics? (Check one)
	Yes No
7.	Do you plan to finish high school? (Check one)
	Yes No Don't know
8.	Do you plan to go to college? (Check one)
	Yes No Don't know
9.	When do you plan to get married? (Check one)
	While you are in high school When you finish high school
	While you are in college When you finish college
	Don't know Never
10.	What kind of job do you want to have? (Explain)
	•
11.	What is your favorite school subject?
12	Uhot in your look forwards subjects
14.	What is your least favorite subject?

13.	Are your parents (Check one)
	Married Divorced Separated
	WidowedOther (Explain)
14.	Age of parents:
	Age of father Age of mother
15.	With whom do you live? (Check one)
	Both parents Mother Father
	Other (Explain)
16.	Does your father work outside the home? (Check one)
	Yes No
17.	If the above answer is yes, what kind of work does your father do? $% \label{eq:controller}$
18.	Does your mother work outside the home? (Check one)
	Yes No
19.	If the above answer is yes, what kind of work does your mother do?
20.	Check the highest grade in school your father finished.
	No school
	Less than 7 years of school (1st grade through 6th) Junior high school (7th grade through 9th)
	Some high school (10th grade through 12th) High school graduate
	Some college Finished college
21.	In addition, does your father have any other job training? (Check one)
	None Other

	Check the type of training:	
	Business Machine operator	IBM school
	Salesmanship Other (Explain)	
22.	Check the highest grade in school your	mother finished.
	Less than 7 years of school (1st Junior high school (7th grade the Some high school (10th grade the High school graduate Some college Finished college	rough 9th)
23.	In addition, does your mother have any (Check one)	other job training?
	Beauty operator Practical nurse	3
	Registered nurse Secretarial or	typing
	Head Start training Other (Exp	lain)

THE TWO FACTOR INDEX OF SOCIAL POSITION

The Scale Scores

To determine the social position of an individual or of a household two items are essential: 1) the precise occupational role the head of the household performs in the economy, and 2) the amount of formal schooling he had received. Each of these factors are then scaled according to the following system of scores.

The Occupational Scale

- Higher Executives, Proprietors of Large Concerns, and Major Professionals.
- Business Managers, Proprietors of Medium-sized Businesses, and Lesser Professionals.
- Administrative Personnel, Small Independent Businesses, and Minor Professionals.
- Clerical and Sales Workers, Technicians, and Owners of Little Businesses.
- 5. Skilled Manual Employees.
- 6. Machine Operators and Semi-Skilled Employees.
- 7. Unskilled Employees.

The Educational Scale

- 1. Graduate Professional Training
- 2. Standard College or University Graduation
- Partial College Training
 High School Graduates
- 5. Partial High School
- 6. Junior High School
- 7. Less Than Seven Years of Schooling

Factor	Factor Weight
Occupation	7
Education	4

Index of social position is computed as follows:

Factor	Scale Score	Factor Weight	Score x Weight
Occupation Education	3 3	7 4 Index of	

DIRECTIONS:

There is need for each of us to know more about ourselves, but seldom do we have an opportunity to look at ourselves as we are or as we would like to be.

On the next pages place a check mark as it applies to yourself in each column For example; You might check yourself like this.

ű	Column I			Column II			Column III	11
I AM	I AM LIKE THIS	S ₁	THE W.	THE WAY I FEEL ABOUT BEING AS I AM	BOUT		I WISH I WERE	VERE
MOST OF THE TIME	ABOUT 1/2 OF THE TIME	HARDLY EVER	I LIKE IT	I NEITHER LIKE NOR DIS- LIKE IT	I DIS- LIKE IT	MOST OF THE TIME	ABOUT 1/2 OF THE TIME	HARDLY EVER

Be sure to fill in a check in all three columns before going on to the next word, Now turn the page and begin checking,

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1, neat,,,

		Column I				Column II			Column III	II
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17. honest									
18. kind									
19. loyal									
20. likable									
21. obedient									
22. patient									
23. polite						and the state of t			
24. popular									
25. quiet									
26. reliable									
27. sincere									
28. smart									
29. studious									

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SELF-CONCEPT AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVEL OF NEGRO TEENAGE GIRLS

bу

VERLYNE EMMA FOSTER

B. S., Langston University, 1957

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Family and Child Development

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY Manhattan, Kansas

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between positive and negative self-concepts and the following items: 1) social class position, 2) parents' education, 3) parents' employment, 4) family structure, and 5) aspirations and academic achievement of the subjects.

One hundred forty-four Negro students, enrolled in home economics at a junior high school in central Kansas City, Missouri, where the investigator taught, participated in the research project.

An information sheet was given to the subjects to gain more knowledge about their family structure and aspirations. Bills' Index of Adjustment and Values was used to assess self-concepts and Hollingshead's Two Factor Index was used to determine social position of the subjects.

Eighty-eight subjects were in the eighth grade, and fifty-six were in the ninth grade. Ages ranged from twelve years, seven months to fifteen years, seven months. Fifty-five percent of the subjects had positive self-concepts and forty-five percent had negative self-concepts.

A majority of the subjects who could be classified were placed in social class positions IV and V, these being the lowest. No one was placed in social class position I. Forty-three subjects could not be classified because of insufficient information.

Fifty-one percent of the fathers were unskilled laborers and only two percent were classified as professionals.

Fourteen percent of the subjects' fathers had less than a high school education and eighteen percent had some college education or were graduates. Ten percent of the mothers were classified as professionals and twenty-eight percent held a position of unskilled nature. Eleven percent of the mothers had less than a high school education and twenty percent had some college education or were graduates.

Sixty-five percent of the subjects were from intact families. Family size ranged from one child to thirteen and subjects were found to occupy all ordinal positions.

Ninety-five percent of the subjects planned to finish high school and sixty-seven percent planned to go to college. Forty-two percent of the students stated they did not know when they planned to get married, thirteen percent planned to get married after high school, twenty-eight percent when they finished college, and eleven percent stated they never wanted to marry. Job aspirations of the subjects varied—the three most frequently mentioned jobs were: nurse, teacher, and secretary.

No significant difference was found between the high concept group and the low concept group in relation to any of the variables tested: social class, education of parents, occupational level of parents, family structure (marital status, family size, ordinal position), aspiration of subjects (educational, marital, occupational), or academic achievement of the subjects.