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EFFECT OF FATHER-PRESENCE AND FATHER-ABSENCE ON THE
SELF-CONCEPT OF BLACK MALES IN SPECIAL EDUCATION
AND REGULAR EDUCATION CLASSES

by

Queen Esther Woodard

A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Education
Department of Special Education

Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan
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EFFECT OF FATHER-PRESENCE AND FATHER-ABSENCE ON THE
SELF-CONCEPT OF BLACK MALES IN SPECIAL EDUCATION
AND REGULAR EDUCATION CLASSES

Queen Esther Woodard, Ed.D.

Western Michigan University, 1984

This study compared the self-concept of Black males residing in father-present and father-absent low socioeconomic status homes, who were between the ages of 8-12, and who were enrolled in emotionally impaired, or regular education classes. Literature indicated that since 1970, the number of children reared in one-parent homes has increased by over 60%, with over 90% of these children living with their mothers. This changing lifestyle has prompted researchers to investigate the effects of father-absence on children; especially on boys.

It was hypothesized that self-concept would be influenced by father status, chronological age, and class placement. These three independent variables resulted in a total of eight comparison groups. Black male students with chronological ages between 8-12 years from two school districts were identified. From this population a total of 80 were randomly selected for study. Ten students were selected for each of the eight comparison groups.

All subjects were administered the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. A three-way analysis of variance was performed on the total self-concept scores, and on the six Piers-Harris self-concept components. It was found that Black males in regular education had a

significantly higher self-concept than Black males in emotionally impaired classes, regardless of father status or their age. Analyses of the self-concept component scores revealed significantly lower self-concepts for the emotionally impaired in the areas of Behavior, Anxiety, and Popularity, regardless of father status or chronological age.

On the basis of this evidence, it was concluded that neither father-presence nor chronological age significantly affected the total or the dimensional self-concepts of the Black male students. Rather, class placement was the only variable that produced a significant effect on the children's self-concepts.

Further research was recommended to identify other factors which may affect self-concept. These include: teacher perceptions of a child's self-concept, home environment (extended families and surrogate fathers), community factors, and the quality of contact that a child has with his father.

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DEDICATION

To my son, Sean L. Johnson,
whose existence made it all worthwhile.

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The privilege of being counseled in one setting by two eminent professors is a rarity. However, I was afforded that opportunity with Dr. Morvin Wirtz and Dr. Alonzo Hannaford serving as major advisors. To Dr. Wirtz, who brought me from the conception of an idea to the dissertation proposal and whose door was never closed—my heartfelt thanks. To Dr. Hannaford, who took on the task of advisor and mentor and who, through his advice, encouragement, and constructive criticism, proceeded to take me down the path from the proposal to the defense, my deepest gratitude.

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Queen Esther Woodard

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The effects of father-presence and absence on children have been topics of concern since World War II when paternal absence, precipitated by the war, produced long periods of estrangement from families. Early research was stimulated by reports that fathers who had been in the armed forces and away from their families, often reported a sense of alienation from children who were born or were in the early preschool years during their absence. This sense of estrangement seemed to have been greater toward sons than daughters (Hetherington & Deur, 1971). There is disagreement about the idea that the absence of a primary socializing agent (usually the father) is likely to have direct effects on the children, since both parents contribute to the psychological development of their offspring (Lamb, 1981). According to Herzog and Sudia (1970) and Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1975), these direct effects may in turn cause indirect effects which may be exacerbated by an emotionally and economically strained and socially isolated single parent.

Since the initial concern for the effects of father-presence and absence on children was voiced and documented, researchers have been investigating the effects of father-absence on the cognitive and social domains. A limited amount of research, however, has focused on the effects of father-absence on the affective domain of

Black males, especially its effect on families of low socioeconomic status.

The remainder of Chapter I presents (a) an overview of the problem and its background, (b) the purpose of the study, (c) research questions pertaining to the problem, and (d) an outline of the study.

The Problem and Its Background

Matthew (1976) has suggested that the number of children being reared in father-absent homes is increasing chiefly because the population is increasing and that one-sixth of all children in the United States under 18 live in single-parent homes. More recently, Bringle and McLaughlin (1982) estimated that during the current decade 50% of all children born will experience the absence of fathers in the home. According to a number of authors (Herzog & Sudia, 1970; Matthew, 1976; Parish & Taylor, 1979; Sciara, 1975), this absence is primarily due to the rising rate of divorce, separation, desertion, and illegitimacy in families. Edelman (cited in "Dr. Spock Says," 1983), president of the Children's Defense Fund, pointed out that between 1970 and 1982 the number of children in one-parent families increased by 62.4%, rising from 8.4 million to 13.7 million. In 1982, 22% of all children were in one-parent families as compared with 12% in 1970. Edelman asserted that in both years more than 90% of one-parent children lived with their mothers.

Because of these changing life-styles, a number of studies have focused on the role of fathers in families and the subsequent

effects of father-absence on the children, especially males (Alston & Williams, 1982; Blanchard & Biller, 1971; Carter & Walsh, 1980; Collins, 1970; Courtney, 1978; Drake & McDougall, 1977; Fowler, 1977; Fowler & Richards, 1978; Gershansky, 1980; Herzog & Sudia, 1970; Hunt & Hunt, 1977; Matthew, 1976; Mertz, 1977; Rosenthal, 1971; Rubin, 1974). Other studies (Drake & McDougall, 1977; Hetherington & Deur, 1971; Lamb, Frodi, Hwang, & Frodi, 1983; Pleck, 1981; Shinn, 1978) have provided evidence that when fathers are absent from the home during the earlier years of children's lives, the children will experience several negative consequences, including a less positive self-concept. These negative consequences appear to be more prevalent in lower-class Black families in which the natural father is absent (Scifara, 1975) than in White families.

While the majority of studies have centered on the cognitive development, achievement, and sexual role of males raised in families with fathers present and absent, very little has been reported about the effects of father-presence and absence on the affective domain, especially its effects on the self-concept of preadolescent Black emotionally impaired males (Alston & Williams, 1982; Cortes & Flemings, 1968; Jordan, 1981).

Impact of Fathers' Presence on Males' Development

The impact of fathers' presence on their male children's development can be noticed as early as the period after the child's birth. According to Parke and O'Leary (1976), shortly after the child's birth, fathers vocalize, touch, and respond to their first

born sons more frequently than to their first born daughters. From the age of 3 weeks to 3 months, fathers look at sons more than daughters and provide sons with more visual and tactile stimulation. In addition, fathers are also more likely to diaper and feed their 3-month-old sons than their daughters.

Pederson and Robson (1969) maintained that most infants appear to be attached to both parents by the age of 8 months. In stress-free situations, infants appear to show no preference for either parent, but when distressed, the infant organizes his or her attachment behavior around whichever parent is present (Lamb, 1977b).

The degree and quality of a father's involvement, even in the child's first year of life, has been reported by Biller (1981b) as having much influence on the child's behavior. According to Herzog and Sudia (1970), a large body of child development literature supports the idea that the age of the child when the father leaves the home is an important factor influencing the impact of father-absence. Their study revealed that the younger the child is at the time of separation, the greater the impact of father-absence.

Clarke-Stewart (1978) reported that from the first year onward, infants and young children appear to prefer playing with their fathers, and Lamb (1976b, 1977a) found that boys up through 4 years of age prefer fathers over mothers as playmates. This, according to Lamb, is due largely to the fact that fathers are more novel and emit more affiliative behaviors than mothers. Lamb further maintained that during the second year of life, boys start to show strong preference for their fathers on attachment behaviors such as touching

them, asking to be held, or asking to stay near them. These preferences appear to be caused by fathers' greater interest in sons than in daughters (Biller, 1981a; Lamb, 1977a; Lewis, Feiring, & Weinraub, 1981; Parke & Tinsley, 1981). Radin (1972) suggested that as boys identify with their fathers, not only are attributes, values, roles, gestures, and emotional reactions emulated, but problem-solving strategies, thinking processes, and vocabulary skills are emulated as well.

The impact of fathers on boys' development appears to be more significant because, according to Radin (1972), the bond between fathers and sons is stronger than the bond between fathers and daughters. Even though fathers may spend relatively little time with their children, fathers apparently still have significant impact on boys' development (Lamb, 1981).

Findings by Radin (1972) suggest that the reasons for fathers having a strong bond with their sons are: (a) Boys identify with and model their fathers particularly from about 4-9 years of age, and (b) fathers who identify with their sons become invested in their activities, abilities, and behavior patterns.

Another major impact of fathers' presence on children's development is that of sexual identity. According to Money and Ehrhardt (1972), if sexual identity is to be secure, it must be established in the first, second, or third year of life. If father-absence occurs early in a child's life, the absence will most likely affect the development of masculinity in boys.

Herzog and Sudia (1970) and Pettigrew (1964) reported that the matriarchal structure, or more specifically a female-headed family, has been viewed as very common in lower-socioeconomic neighborhoods and appears to be prevalent among lower-class Blacks. According to Hetherington and Deur (1971), this type of family structure may present problems that are associated with sexual identity. In environments where a boy's early social contacts are entirely with his mother and where a father is excluded from interacting with the infant, a process of discontinuous identification occurs.

Herzog (1979) speculated that during a child's developmental stage a father may also function (from the viewpoint and experiences of a child) as a moderator of aggressive drive and fantasy. Herzog stated further that "father absences during early phases of development may have specific long-term consequences, affecting the Ego's capacity to deal with and control aggressive feelings and impulses" (p. 133).

Parental Deprivation of Black Males

Lovelene and Lohmann (1978) reported that there were more negative consequences attributed to the absence of fathers within the Black families than within the White families. The above author's assumption was based upon a general belief that more Black children grow up in homes without fathers (Lovelene & Lohmann, 1978; Moynihan, 1965; Sciara, 1975) and that if a Black father does not live in the same house with his children, then he is not physically or emotionally accessible to them (Lovelene & Lohmann, 1978).

Though it may appear that a Black man's absence from his family is an almost natural assumption by many, Sciara (1975) asserted that:

Father-absence among Black families is not a natural phenomenon, but one which can be historically traced to slavery when white masters forced the break-up of families, favored the females, and provided for the powerless Black male as an emasculating cultural heritage. A female dominated family structure became the norm, not because it was desired, but because it was forced upon them. Acceptance of this condition represented an adaptation to a forced environment, necessary for survival. (p. 45)

As a result of father-absence in Black families, the economic security of a family rests primarily with the mother. According to Grambs (1965), this, too, is an outgrowth of slavery, when at least mothers could keep their children with them until they were physically independent and able to work while "the father was often not accorded the recognition of paternity" (p. 2). A "family," as the White population knew it, was prohibited for slaves.

Patterns of employment in today's society have continued to make economic stability more available to Black women than to Black men. Sciara (1975) reported that with the abolition of slavery came significant changes in the political, social, and economic structure of society. These changes affected the available opportunities for Black men, and although the matrifocal family pattern has decreased since slavery, economic and other forms of discrimination have continued throughout history, thus initiating a higher frequency of father absence for Black Americans than for any other group.

Kvaraceus suggested in 1965 that Black Americans were very often marked by father substitutes as well as father absences. He further stated that when one father left home, a stepfather or

father substitute might appear. This family reorganization could continue and later, because of death, illness, or desertion, the children might be left with grandparents or other relatives. If an attachment occurred, Kvaraceus maintained that it might not last until adulthood, thus many Black children might have few experiences with stability, warmth, and attention--all of the things which may be taken for granted as part of the necessary environment for healthy personality development. There are those who do not agree with Kvaraceus, and suggest that the extended family that is common in the Black family and which consists of grandfathers, uncles, an older brother, a male cousin, the preacher, or teacher provides an abundance of love, paternal relationships, and helpful guidance (Lovelene & Lohmann, 1978; Rubin, 1974).

The absence of fathers in Black homes appears to be more damaging to boys than to girls (Grambs, 1965; Rubin, 1974). Boys, particularly in father-absent families, have less ability to postpone gratification. For example, these boys will accept a small chocolate candy bar today rather than wait until next week for one five times as large. It is said that these boys have a low need to achieve but a high need for power (Grambs, 1965; Hetherington & Deur, 1971).

Boys in father-absent families tend to develop sexual role confusion (Pleck, 1981). Such boys adopt a masculine role only secondarily, since the primary adult models are provided by mothers. In order to gain a masculine role, the boys must compensate by expressing toughness and acting out, which is said to be a rejection

of everything feminine—ranging from their perception of school (with its high percentage of female teachers and which is a symbol of femininity) to the fact that girls perform better than boys at the early years of elementary school.

Because of the increasing magnitude of father-absence among families, and in this case the Black family, an explanation of the family structure and its effects on the development of self-concept appear to be germane to this study.

Self-Concept Development

Lifshifz (1975) suggested that one's sense of identity, or self-concept, develops as a result of a series of successive comparisons and contrasts between self, father, and mother. The self, according to Grambs (1965), "can never be isolated from the complex of interpersonal relations in which the person lives and has his being. . . . The self is heavily affected by the 'reflected appraisals' of the society in which the person lives" (p. 4).

Psychologists have proposed various definitions of self-concept; however, there are two aspects of self-concept about which most of them agree:

1. The perceptions of self that an individual has include his view of himself as compared to others (self-perception), his view of how others see him (self-other perception), and his view of how he wishes he could be (self-ideal).

2. The perceptions of self that an individual has are largely based upon the experiences that he has had with those people who are important to him (significant others). Thus, such people can effect change in the individual's self-concept. (Quandt, 1972, p. 5)

Another important factor of self-concept is that it is not one dimensional. Piers (1984) maintained that children are not characterized simply by an overall level of self-concept but may view themselves quite differently across different areas. These areas, according to Piers, may include (a) behavior, (b) intellectual and school status, (c) physical appearance and attributes, (d) anxiety, (e) popularity, and (f) happiness and satisfaction.

The self is also conceptualized differently at various age levels with the more critical stages occurring during middle childhood (Fahey & Phillips, 1981). Middle childhood is said to span the period from age 5 to 11 or 12 years. The above authors indicated that this stage of development involves two major and permanent changes in a child's experience, both of which are said to influence the development of self. The first of these changes is the child's entry into school and the second is the development of interpersonal relationships with peers and the community.

The self-concept of 11 and 12-year-olds, as observed by Stevens (1975) and by Stenner and Katzenmeyer (1976), is composed of several dimensions which include peer relations, social concerns, personal adjustment, and school-related areas. During the 11-12-year-old age period there is an expansion and reorganization of the self-concept dimensions as compared to the self-concept dimensions of the 8-10-year-old. This expansion appears to be in the structure of the "self"; and in instances in which the child is classified as emotionally impaired, these dimensions may be even more pronounced. Because the self-concept has been identified as a pluralistic entity

across different age levels, it is necessary then to consider the self-concept development of preadolescent males who are identified as emotionally impaired.

Emotional Impairment and Self-Concept

Schultz (1979) maintained that the need for a sense of personal worth and an ability to adjustment successfully can be described as needs of children. It is crucial that children attain and maintain happy, healthy perceptions of themselves. However, as a result of an unstable home environment, inadequate intellectual abilities, and lack of care and concern demonstrated by important "other" persons, many children lack a happy perception of themselves and subsequently may later be diagnosed as emotionally impaired (EI).

Children identified as EI exhibit inadequacies not only in the school setting and on psychological tests, but also in the area of self-concept as well. Michigan's State of Education rule 340.1706 (1982) stipulates the following:

The emotionally impaired shall be determined through manifestation of behavioral problems primarily in the affective domain, over a period of time, which adversely affect the person's education to the extent that the person cannot profit from regular learning experiences without special education support. (p. 11)

The affective domain includes areas such as emotional stability and control, interaction and reaction to self and others, ability to work with others, and self-control. Brunner and Starkey (1974) maintained that students who are classified and placed in classes

for the emotionally impaired have lower self-concepts than any other students.

Summary

Literature has revealed that there is a rise in the incidence of children being reared in single-parent homes, and as such, this matriarchal structure appears to perpetuate certain negative consequences in children, especially male children. Based upon the review of background literature, it appears that the presence and absence of fathers may have a significant effect on the development of self-concept in Black male children and as such, an investigation of this effect was warranted. Because the developed self-concept seems to expand during the ages of 8-12 and may have an effect upon placement in special classes (EI), it appeared that these two variables were also worth investigating.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to compare the self-concept of Black males between the ages of 8-10 and 11-12 years, of the same low socioeconomic level, who reside in father-present and father-absent homes, and who are placed in special education classes for the emotionally impaired and in regular education.

Research Questions

The background literature pertaining to the study prompted several questions concerning the research problem. The specific

questions which were addressed in this investigation were:

1. Do Black males in father-present homes have a higher self-concept than Black males in father-absent homes, regardless of special class or regular education placement in school?
2. Do Black males in the 11-12 age group have a higher self-concept than Black males in the 8-10 age group, regardless of special class or regular education placement in school?
3. Do Black males in regular education classes have a higher self-concept than Black males in special classes for the emotionally impaired, regardless of age?
4. Do Black males, ages 8-10 and 11-12, in regular education classes and in father-present homes have a higher self-concept than Black males, ages 8-10 and 11-12, in classes for the emotionally impaired and in father-absent homes?

Outline of the Study

Chapter II is a review of selected literature and Chapter III presents the definitions, subjects, instruments, research design, and procedures used for this study. An analysis and summary of the results appear in Chapter IV. Chapter V describes the limitations of the investigation, presents interpretations of the results in the form of conclusions and implications, and contains recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Chapter II presents a review of empirical and authoritative literature directly related to the problem under investigation which is to compare the self-concept of Black males who reside in father-present (FP) and father-absent (FA) low socioeconomic status (SES) homes, who are between the ages of 8-12, and who are enrolled in classes for emotional impairment and regular education.

The review is divided into six categories: (1) effects of father-presence and absence on cognitive development and achievement; (2) effects of socioeconomic status on self-concept; (3) effects of self-concept on cognitive development and achievement; (4) effects of father-presence and absence on self-concept; (5) effects of chronological age on self-concept; and (6) relationship between father-presence and absence, emotional impairment, and self-concept in low socioeconomic status Black males, ages 8-12.

Effects of Father-Presence and Absence on Cognitive Development and Achievement

Changing family patterns have resulted in an increasing focus on the role of fathers within families and the effects of their absence on their children. Among the effects identified has been the lack of adequate cognitive development and achievement.

As the literature regarding the effects of father-absence is examined, a mixed pattern of results becomes apparent. Studies reporting the effects of father-absence on children's cognitive development have revealed significant negative effects. Bronfenbrenner (1967) has indicated that one of the more consistently reported effects of father-absence on boys is a deterioration of school performance and intellectual capacity.

Blanchard and Biller (1971) described different levels of father availability and investigated the relationship of these levels to the academic functioning of those fathers' third grade sons. Four matched groups of boys were established ($n = 22$): (1) early father-absent (beginning before age 3), (2) late father-absent (beginning after age 5), (3) low father-present (less than 6 hours per week), and (4) high father-present (more than 2 hours per day). The boys were matched on age, IQ, SES, and presence and absence of male siblings.

Academic performance was assessed by means of Stanford Achievement Test scores and classroom grades. The findings of the study were: (a) that boys in the high father-present groups were superior to the boys in the other three groups in both achievement and classroom grades, (b) the early father-absent boys were generally under-achievers, and (c) the late father-absent boys and low father-present boys were somewhat below grade level.

In 1975, Mueller provided evidence from a study of 314 Black and White third grade boys and girls that father-absence had a negative effect on the Metropolitan Achievement Test Word Analysis

scores. In another study, Hess, Shipman, Brophy, Bear, and Adelberger (1969) examined a population of 80 low income Black preschool children and followed them through ages 6 and 7. The sample consisted of 40 FP and 40 FA families. The results of the study revealed that FP children received better grades in 5 of 14 subjects (first grade writing, second grade arithmetic, spelling, speaking, and science) than the children with FA. Two intelligence tests and three standard reading tests also favored the two-parent children.

Shelton (1968) conducted an investigation to determine what differences, if any, occurred in educational achievement between students from broken homes and students from intact families. The foci of the study were: (a) the educational achievement of subjects in academic and nonacademic areas of the curriculum, and (b) a determination of differences in educational achievement between various one-parent subgroups (children living with a mother or father) and two-parent samples. The subjects were 162 students from junior high schools in Iowa. Each category of one-parent and two-parent groups had an equal number of students. Grade point averages in academic and nonacademic subjects were used as criteria. The controlling variable was the Otis Intelligence Test scores. The results indicated:

1. Differences in mean scores of academic grade point averages favored the two-parent group.
2. Differences in mean scores of nonacademic grade point averages favored the two-parent group.

3. Differences in achievement between boys from one-parent families and the two-parent group favored boys from the two-parent group.

4. Differences in achievement between students from one-parent families living with mothers and students from one-parent families living with fathers were not statistically significant; however, the trend of the differences favored the "living with mother" subgroup.

5. Students who experienced a broken home condition during early primary grades tended to be most adversely affected in their educational achievement.

In a later study, Fowler (1977) investigated the effects of early father-absence on educational preparedness and academic achievement on a sample of 120 urban, predominantly lower SES Black children. An equal number of males and females from FP and FA homes was selected. All subjects were selected for the study upon entry into kindergarten. Academic achievement was measured at the second grade level by the Science Research Associates (SRA) Assessment Survey in reading, mathematics, and language arts. Analyses revealed no significant sex differences on the factor score of educational preparedness or on the SRA criteria, once differences in social class and family size were controlled. Although discriminant analysis revealed no significant differences between FP and FA subjects on the various factors, a significant difference favoring father-presence subjects was found for the SRA mathematics test.

Various authors (Carter & Walsh, 1980; Fowler & Richards, 1978; Sciara, 1975; Shelton, 1968; Shinn, 1978; Soloman, 1969; Svanum,

Bringle, & McLaughlin, 1982; Verdiani, 1970) have concluded that higher achievement and intellectual development is more prevalent among boys with fathers in the home and that paternal encouragement of intellectual performance is related to achievement and paternal rejection is detrimental to it. Blanchard and Biller (1971) determined that boys whose fathers are accessible to them are more cognitively competent; but according to Lamb (1981), boys who have relationships with fathers whom they regard as rejecting or hostile are often identified as underachievers. The importance of this father-son relationship is explained by Rosenthal (1971) as follows:

If the father's [sic] hostile or indifferent to a son before separation, the aftermath in terms of the child's development may have more to do with this relationship than with the father's absence. And, conversely, if he has been living in supportive [sic] and has spent meaningful time with his children, if he has actually participated in their formative years, then the results may be more favorable, regardless of later separation, particularly if he maintains positive relations with his children after leaving the household. (p. 63)

There are opposing views about the effects of father-absence on children's cognitive abilities. Wasserman (1972) compared the school performance of 117 lower-class Black boys in FP and FA families. One of the major findings of the study was that the presence or absence of fathers failed to discriminate between boys who do better or worse in school. These findings, according to Wasserman, suggest that "more likely causal explanations lie elsewhere; that the society in which the lower-class Black boy exists is so unrewarding, frustrating and beyond his control, that, apart from his own personal or family attributes, he is extremely vulnerable" (p. 141).

In 1968, Baughman and Dahlstrom looked at the presence and absence of fathers of 1,006 Black and White disadvantaged children aged 6 through 14 from a rural southern community. The boys came from 56 father-absent families, 63 father-substitute families, and 477 father-present families. There were no controlling variables and the results suggested that there was no relationship between father-absence and IQ.

Although research indicating negative consequences of FA on cognitive development and achievement outnumbers the research citing neutral consequences, there are some studies that report no difference exists between the intelligence or academic achievement of FP and FA lower-class Black children (Hess, Shipman, Brophy, and Bear, 1968). A theory by Shinn (1978) suggests that father-absence does not cause poor cognitive performance in children either directly or indirectly. Instead, he theorized that families in which one parent ultimately leaves the home may, from the start, be unrepresentative of families in general and in some ways this may lead children to perform poorly on cognitive tests. The evidence implies that "financial hardship, high levels of anxiety, and in particular, low levels of parent-child interaction are important causes of poor performance among children in single-parent families" (Shinn, 1978, p. 316).

In support of the theory that there is no difference in intelligence or academic achievement of FP and FA children, it is interesting to note that extended families, which are more prevalent among Blacks than Whites, may mitigate the adverse effects of

father-absence. This may account for a slightly lower percentage of studies that found less negative effects of father-absence for Blacks than for Whites.

The effects of father-absence cannot be considered in isolation. In addition to a father's departure, his length of time of separation, the presence of siblings, and the gender, age, race, and socioeconomic status of the children are also important interactive variables that can modify the consequences of father-absence in the home. Because the effects of father-absence is so closely linked to low socioeconomic status, it is important that this variable be addressed.

Effects of Socioeconomic Status on Father Absence

It has been established by Blanchard and Biller (1971) and by Lamb (1981) that the social and economic situation of a child, mother, and family unit is strongly influenced by the presence or absence of a father. Herzog and Sudia (1970) have reinforced this idea by asserting that:

Everytime a child at school is asked his father's occupation, everytime there is a "Father's Night," everytime he hears about other boys being taken to ball games by their fathers, everytime he wishes his father were there for a game or a talk, he is reminded that his father is not present and he is, therefore, different from other children. (p. 70)

The economic values of a father's presence are reflected in the repercussions of the deficit often left by his absence. Some of these are a reduced income, a changed lifestyle, and a move to a different neighborhood. Some boys may have to drop out of school to

help support the family or take a part-time job for support, thus contributing to additional responsibilities for the boys.

Most SES measures depend on the occupation of the principal breadwinner. In intact families, this is usually the father but in FA homes it is the mother. Thus, the measures used to control for SES differences between the two samples, FP and FA, are not always comparable (Shinn, 1978).

In 27 studies summarized by Shinn (1978) in which the absence of the father produced detrimental effects, only 9 controlled the important variable of SES and, of those that did, there was no indication of what measurement was used for assessing SES. Of the 11 studies that showed no significant effects of father-absence only 5 controlled for SES. Results from these studies revealed: (a) There were no significant differences on Grade Point Average (GPA), reading, and vocabulary; (b) IQs were 1-5 points higher among children with fathers present prior to birth; (c) the effects of father-absence increased with SES and was greater for Whites than Blacks; (d) fatherless children scored lower than all other children with fathers present, but there was no evidence of an educational handicap when allowance was made for social class; and (e) father status was unrelated to test performance when the mother's education and child's prekindergarten educational experience were used as control variables.

Two studies relating the SES effects on FA boys were conducted by Broman, Nicholas, and Kennedy (1975) and by Svanum et al. (1982). Broman et al. studied 26,094 White and Black 4-year-olds from a

perinatal project by administering the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test. Based on prenatal interviews with the mothers, there were 19,078 fathers present and 7,016 fathers absent. The matching variables were race, gender, and three levels of SES. Without control for SES, the data showed decrements associated with FA. These decrements were less than half of a standard deviation for Whites and were smaller for Blacks. Father-absence was found to be disproportionately distributed across SES levels. Of all factors included in this study, SES was found to have one of the strongest relationships to intellectual development. After controlling for SES, the decrements due to FA were no longer significant. Specific findings relative to SES indicated that: (a) the effects of father-absence increased from low to high SES and was greater for Whites than for Blacks, and (b) father-presence was not a significant predictor of IQ when equating SES with the mother's education.

The study conducted by Svanum et al. (1982) investigated the effects of father-absence on achievement and intellectual development of 6 to 11-year-old children. A nationally representative sample of 5,493 father-present and 616 father-absent children from the Health Examination Survey of the National Center for Health Statistics was chosen. The socioeconomic status of the child's family served as a control variable, and the vocabulary and Block Design subtest of the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children and the 1963 revisions of the arithmetic and reading subtests of the Wide-Range Achievement Test were administered. Father-absent Black children evidenced a decrease in test performance only on measures

of achievement. Following statistical control for SES, no decrements were associated with father-presence and father-absence.

In reviewing studies that were performed prior to the 1970s, Herzog and Sudia (1970) discovered certain trends in relationship between SES and other variables. Low SES samples were studied more with regard to problems that troubled society (e.g., school achievement associated with juvenile delinquency), while middle-class groups were studied more with regard to traits that could be defined as problems to the individual (e.g., self-esteem, psychosomatic symptoms, immaturity, masculine identity, dependency). More recently, studies (Fu, Korslund, & Hinkle, 1980; Growe, 1980; Osborne & LeGette, 1982; Phillips, 1982; Phillips & Zigler, 1980; Sciara, 1975) have shown a relationship between low SES and traits that were once associated with only the middle social class, primarily the self-concept.

The findings of this study were consistent with the pattern of results reported in the previous large sample (e.g., Broman et al., 1975). Thus, the previous research (Broman et al., 1975; Svanum et al., 1982) represents two studies which provide convergence on the conclusion that father-absence has little association with cognitive development independent of SES.

Effects of Self-Concept on Cognitive Development and Achievement

Campbell (1981) theorized that "intellectual development, or the child's ability to act on information, is a function of his

self-concept" (p. 202). In a study that investigated the relationship between intellectual development, achievement, and self-concept of elementary minority school children, Campbell selected 51 second-grade subjects who were enrolled in a predominantly biethnic (45% Black, 45% Hispanic, and 10% others) school located in a low-class urban setting. The average age of the subjects was 8 years, 1 month. Three different tests were given to each subject. The Stanford Achievement Test was used to measure academic achievement in the areas of reading (word and comprehension), social studies, science, and listening comprehension; the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale was used to assess self-concept; and seven Piagetian-like tasks were used to measure intellectual development.

The results of this study indicated that there was a relationship between self-concept and academic achievement of minority school children. There were significant positive correlations between self-concept and reading achievement (word and comprehension), social studies achievement, science achievement, and listening comprehension achievement.

The question that the author raised concerning a relationship between minority school children's (Black and Hispanic) self-concept and their intellectual development was also partially supported. There were significant positive correlation between self-concept and four of the seven Piagetian tasks. According to Campbell (1981), this would imply that "having a high positive self-concept makes it easier to achieve higher levels of intellectual development as a

minority child moves from one stage of development to another" (p. 203).

Brookover, LePere, Hamachek, Thomas, and Erickson (1965) conducted a comprehensive study with high and low achievers in junior high school. This study examined the relationship of self-concept to school achievement and was based upon the assumption that the achievement of most students is functionally limited by self-evaluations of their own ability. It was also assumed that these self-evaluations held by students are not fixed, but may depend upon the reactions of significant "others." Results from this study support the general theory that any changes in reactions by significant "others" (e.g., parents) may induce changes in self-concept of ability in the student and thus effect changes in academic behavior.

Thus far, a review of literature has revealed that the majority of studies comparing self-concept and cognitive and achievement abilities have centered primarily on children enrolled in regular education. The review of studies which follows, however, will be centered on the self-concept and academic achievement of children in exceptional classes.

In 1977, Calhoun and Elliott investigated the self-concept and academic achievement of emotionally impaired (EI) and educable mentally retarded (EMR) students in special class and regular class placements. Using the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and the Stanford Achievement Tests, these authors found a positive relationship between academic achievement and self-concept for both EI and EMR students.

There are other studies that have presented evidence in support of, and studies which contradict these findings. Crockett and Gutherie (1975) found no significant difference between the self-concept of educable mentally retarded students in special education classes and their peers in regular classes. Brunner and Starkey (1974) found no significant differences in the social self-concept of learning disabled, emotionally disturbed, and remedial and average students. On the other hand, Richmond (1972) reported that educable mentally retarded (EMR) students exhibit lower estimates of self-worth than do advantaged learners. However, there is very little difference in the self-worth of EMR students when they are compared to disadvantaged students.

More recently, Beck, Roblee, and Hanson (1982) conducted a study to determine what differences, if any, existed between the self-concept of Exceptional Educational Needs (EEN) children and Non-Exceptional Needs (Non-EEN) children. The Piers-Harris was administered to 47 EEN children and 47 Non-EEN children with the groups being matched on gender (M = 35; F = 12) and chronological age. The EEN group consisted of emotionally impaired, mentally retarded, and learning disabled; and the Non-EEN group was comprised of all regular education children. The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was administered to all subjects, and the total self-concept scores and the six component (cluster) scores for the groups were compared using one-way analysis of variance. Results indicated no significant differences in total school scores or on any of the six cluster scores between EEN and Non-EEN.

Research comparing the self-concept of exceptional students in special education classes with the self-concept of exceptional students in regular classes is limited. However, there was one study performed by Clifford (1974) which investigated whether there were differences in self-concept with retarded students in various educational placements, including special education classes and regular classes. The results showed that there was no difference in the self-concept of retarded students in various educational placements.

There has been concern by Wylie (1974) that although the reliability of the Piers-Harris seemed satisfactory for research purposes, there exists the question of "to what extent are low scores indicative of poor self-regard and to what extent indicative of unreliability of responding?" (p. 275). Wylie maintained that there is the strong possibility that unreliable responding and poor self-regard may have an impact to an unknown degree in many of the individual scores.

In order to disclaim Wylie's (1974) concern that scores on the Piers-Harris scale were invalid because of unreliable or chance responding, Smith and Rogers (1977) conducted a study to determine the stability or reliability of the Piers-Harris. These authors used subjects hypothesized by Wylie as "known groups" (e.g., delinquents vs. normals, retardates vs. normals, poor achievers vs. normals, emotionally disturbed subjects vs. normals), who could be expected to vary not only with respect to self-regard but also with respect to reliability of responding.

The results failed to confirm Wylie's concerns. Children with lower levels of self-regard compared with those with higher levels, although maintaining relatively stable feelings of general self-regard, demonstrated greater fluctuation over time with respect to highly specific feelings about themselves and thereby evidenced greater variability in responses to specific items. Wylie's expressed concern that low Piers-Harris scores were invalid because of unreliability of responding was unfounded.

Although there is empirical evidence that self-concept and achievement are related (Andrews, 1971; Brookover et al., 1965; Caplin, 1966; Godfrey, 1970; Manzano & Towne, 1970), there is no agreement as to its causal ordering, that is, whether a positive self-concept causes high achievement, or that a high achieving individual becomes the recipient of a high positive self-concept.

The preceding literature review implies that a positive self-concept is basic to all aspects of development and learning and that the presence or absence and interaction of significant "others" (parent-child) greatly affects the development and stability of a positive self-concept. One significant person whose presence or absence has been viewed as having a great impact upon the self-concept of the child is the father.

Effects of Father-Absence on Self-Concept

Self-concept has been described by Dinkmeyer (1965) as one's inner world which results from interactions with others. He compares it to a foundation for the formulation of the self which

assimilates a child's perceptions of the attitudes, and the judgments of others who make up his world. If a significant person such as one parent is absent, it is proposed that a male child's self-concept will either deteriorate or not develop normally.

There is a general belief that father-absence contributes greatly to the low self-concept of male children (Biller, 1981a; Herzog & Sudia, 1970); however, few studies are available that directly address this problem. One such study was performed by Alston and Williams (1982) in which the self-concept of 35 randomly selected Black adolescent boys, 21 of whom were from FP homes and 14 from FA homes, was investigated. All were in the ninth grade, came from a low socioeconomic background, had a mean Grade Point Average (GPA) of "C," and a mean chronological age of 14. Results from the Self Appraisal Inventory and Personal Background Data Sheet showed that boys with fathers present in the homes had a significantly higher and more positive self-concept than those boys whose fathers were not present.

Parish and Taylor (1979) also measured the self-concept of children with absent fathers. Of the 406 grade school and junior high school students they studied, there were 49 third-graders, 75 fourth-graders, 68 seventh-graders, and 79 eighth-graders. From this population, 347 were from intact families, 44 were from families that had experienced father loss through divorce and where the mother had not remarried, and 15 were from families that had experienced father loss through divorce and where the mother had remarried. Students responded to the Personal Attribute Inventory for

Children by checking the 15 words which best described themselves.

An analysis revealed that students who had lost fathers through divorce and whose mothers did not remarry had significantly lower self-concepts than the students who were from intact families. Students who had lost fathers through divorce and whose mothers had remarried tended to demonstrate lower self-concepts than the students from intact families. Further results of the study indicated that neither grade placement nor gender had a significant effect on the students' self-concepts.

Biller (1981a) and Fahey and Phillips (1981) indicated that at certain ages, children who are deprived of fathers will be more predisposed to the development of insecurities in interpersonal relationships (which can also contribute feelings of anxiety and low self-esteem) than at other ages. It is worthwhile then, to examine the effect of children's chronological age upon their self-concept.

Effects of Chronological Age on Self-Concept

A number of authors (Fahey & Phillips, 1981; Montemayor & Eisen, 1977; Stevens, 1975) have suggested that young people at different age levels (preschool, middle childhood, and adolescent) conceptualize in different ways.

Stevens (1975) offers a possible explanation for the reorganization of a child's conceptualization at these different age levels.

As the child becomes increasingly able to conceptualize his social impact upon others and begins to internalize social attitudes as a basis for evaluating his own worth, the previous distinction between social-maturity of behavior and self-acceptance as a person breaks down, and

the two elements are integrated into a single component of the self-system. (p. 108)

As children get older, the factors affecting self-concept expand, as well as fuse with other dimensions. This expansion is revealed by changes that occur in 11 and 12-year-olds. Stevens suggested further that the self-concept appears to expand as the process of internalization occurs and as children's internal representation of themselves enlarges. As 12-year-olds move into the adolescent period they appear to experience structural changes in their self-concept.

During the middle childhood years, a child is more capable of inferring the thoughts, feelings, and intentions of other people and also becomes increasingly aware of the fact that his own thoughts, feelings, and intentions may be subjected to other people's inference and evaluation. (Stevens, 1975, p. 99)

By the end of the stage of concrete operational thought, a child can further understand that mutual role-taking often occurs simultaneously between himself and other people.

Montemayor and Eisen (1977) hypothesized and provided evidence to support the contention that with increasing age an individual's self-concept becomes more abstract and less concrete. These authors utilized an almost exclusive White population of 136 males and 126 females in grades 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12 with average and above average intelligence. These subjects were administered The Twenty Statements Test which measured self-concept from a cognitive structural perspective. The younger children in the study described themselves in terms of concrete, objective categories, while adolescents used more abstract and subjective descriptions. According to Montemayor

and Eisen, a developmental increase in the depth and vividness of self-conceptions exists. They stated:

Children describe where they live, what they look like, and what they do. Their self-concept seems somewhat shallow and undifferentiated, both from other people and from their environment. Adolescents, however, describe themselves in terms of their beliefs and personality characteristics, qualities which are more essential and intrinsic to the self and which produce a picture of the self that is sharp and unique. (p. 318)

These authors further explained that self-concept development is not an additive process. Adolescents do not simply add more complex and abstract ideas about themselves to their earlier, childish, concrete conceptions. In comparison to children, adolescents conceive of themselves quite differently; earlier notions either drop out or are integrated into a more complex picture.

Fahey and Phillips (1981) also provided information about the nature of self-concept in middle childhood. They studied a random sample of 2,610 Catholic primary school children who ranged in ages from 6 to 11.5 years. Students were presented with a blank piece of paper and requested to respond in writing to the question "Who am I?" which was written on the blackboard and read to them by the researcher. Results indicated that the acceptance of negative self-descriptions increased with age. Fahey and Phillips equated this evidence to the ego and self theories of Erikson and Freud, that is, that the self-concept becomes less tenuous and less fragile as it develops beyond the preschool years. By the end of primary school the self-concept has matured sufficiently to be able to deal with threat without trauma.

The literature seems to suggest that the ages of 8 to 12 are delicate, and that a child's self-concept may be enhanced or may deteriorate during this time as a result of the many factors in his life--factors which could contribute to a lack of, or deterioration of, a positive self-esteem. These factors may be identified as low SES, father-absence, and class placement in the public school. The relationship between these variables as they relate to the emotionally impaired child's self-concept are noteworthy.

Relationship Between Father-Presence and Absence,
Emotional Impairment, and Self-Concept
in Black Males, Ages 8 to 12

Father-absence has been associated with an increased incidence of inappropriate or undesirable behavior in children and adolescents (Parish & Taylor, 1979). Atkinson and Ogston (1974) and Cortes and Flemings (1968) reported that boys who endured a sustained period of father-absence were found to be more seriously emotionally maladjusted than boys in father-present homes. This emotional distress of father-absent boys was reflected in their significantly higher ratings on immaturity, moodiness and depression, insecurity, impulsiveness, and irritability. Hetherington and Deur (1971) maintained that the "effects on the development of the child attributed to parental absence have ranged from minor disruptions in social and emotional development to gross forms of psychopathology" (p. 235).

Children who are identified as having emotional distress or instability are classified as having an emotional impairment and are placed in classes for the emotionally impaired. One indicator for

identifying and placing children in classes for the emotionally impaired is a lack of inappropriate types of behavior or feelings, including a lower or more negative self-concept. Leaders in the field (Bower, 1969; Herbert, 1974; Hewett & Forness, 1977; Kirk, 1972; Morse, 1967) have offered different definitions of emotional impairment; however, they do agree on the more common symptoms of emotional impairment, that is, withdrawal, hyperactivity, and inattentiveness.

These symptoms seem to appear more frequently in boys than in girls. From Quay (1962) one learns that boys outnumber girls in being considered as having behavior problems. Boys tend to exhibit antisocial behavior patterns, while girls, especially as they become older, exhibit increasing personality problems.

Bower (1969), in comparing emotionally impaired and non-emotionally impaired children, found that emotionally impaired boys exhibited a greater self-dissatisfaction about their lives than other boys and showed signs of greater discrepancies between self and wanted self. It is asserted by Grambs (1965) that this problem of dissatisfaction seems to exist more in Black families than other groups of people. Reasons given for this assertion is that Black families, and especially female-headed families, are more likely to cluster at the lower SES level (Grambs, 1965; Herzog & Sudia, 1970).

Damage to children's self-esteem, as reported by Biller (1968), Herzog and Sudia (1970), Kvaraceus (1965), Phillips and Zigler (1980), and Seasholes (1965), which subsequently affects their emotional state appears greater for Black boys than for Black girls.

For whatever the reason, there is documentation (Grambs, 1965; Lovelene & Lohmann, 1978; Parish & Dostal, 1980) that during early childhood and school years, Black girls accommodate better to the circumstances of their existence than Black boys. These boys' vulnerability, according to Kvaraceus (1965), may be accounted for in part by the fact that males who are role models for the growing boy are themselves demoralized. Rosenthal (1971) explained the obstacles that a Black male in a low SES must face:

As the black adolescent male moves from childhood into adulthood in the United States, he is faced with forging an identity for himself within the context of today's urban "ghetto." The challenge he faces is doubly hazardous: not only must he cope with the typical emotional and social strains inherent in the transitional role of "adolescent," but also he must cope with the simultaneous marginality and centrality inherent in the very fact of his blackness, and the conflict between developing an identity as an individual and as a young black man in America. (p. 60)

Circumstances such as these provide children, especially Black males, with a negative view of society and themselves. Children with a negative view of themselves, reports Grambs (1965), are children who will not be able to profit adequately from school. He suggested that:

Most children who hate themselves act out this self-hatred by kicking the world around them. They are abusive, aggressive, hard to control, and full of anger and hostility at a world which has told them that they are not valued, are not good, and are not going to be given a chance. (p. 17)

Atkinson and Ogston (1974) supported the view that an intact, nuclear family is both desirable and essential for the development of normal attitudes and behaviors in children. It seems evident

that further research on the relationships of father-presence, father-absence, emotional impairment, and self-concept is needed if society, and schools specifically, are to deal with this population effectively.

Summary of Literature Review

A review of pertinent empirical research and theoretical literature has provided evidence that the self-concept of children develops as a result of the experiences they have had and the nature of their experiences. The absence of parents or negative family relationships that are formed early in life, the development of a poor self-concept, and a lack of trust in others are specific factors that have been found to be related to the development of emotional impairment (Bettelheim, 1967; Combs & Snygg, 1959; Morse, 1967; Purkey, 1970).

There is an extensive body of research on the effect of father-presence and absence on children, especially boys; however, the results continue to provoke controversy. The majority of literature reviewed supported the idea that there is a relationship between fathers' presence and absence, cognitive development and abilities, emotional impairment, and self-concept. Males with fathers present in the homes were shown to have a higher self-concept than those with fathers absent, and it was also found that fathers have a direct effect on boys' cognitive development and achievement. Scores on intellectual achievement tests appear to be positively correlated with high scores on self-concept measures.

Low SES and chronological age were identified as variables that may have an effect on children's self-concept. Low SES Black males were identified as a population most vulnerable to the pressures of society and who suffered more than other groups when fathers were absent from the home. Children with chronological ages of 11 to 12 were identified as possessing a self-concept that was higher, more stable, and which could withstand more trauma than children aged 8 to 10.

Without fathers in the home, Black males classified as emotionally impaired and between the ages of 8 to 10, may encounter many environmental and personal crises that may seem insolvable. These crises may be triggered by a lack of paternal identification and a lack of encouragement for intellectual motivation necessary for the child to achieve and perform--both of which are essential for the development and maintenance of a positive self-concept.

The literature cited has indicated that fathers play an important role in the development of children, especially male children. While somewhat equivocal, father-absence seems to have an effect on the cognitive development, achievement, and emotional development, especially in Black males.

The research has been plagued with various methodological problems, such as definitions of father-presence and absence, controlling for SES, and the age of a child that is considered conducive for a stable self-concept. There has been a limited amount of research that dealt with father-absence and emotional disturbance, and no research was found that deals with the self-concept of Black males,

ages 8-12, in special education classes for the emotionally impaired and in regular education, who reside in low SES father-presence and father-absence homes. This study attempted to control the methodological problems cited above as it focused on the effects of father-presence and absence on the self-concept of Black emotionally impaired males, ages 8-12.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to compare the self-concept of Black males who reside in father-present and father-absent low SES homes, who are between the ages of 8-12, and who are enrolled in classes for emotional impairment and regular education.

Chapter III describes the method and procedures used in this study. Included are (a) operational definitions, (b) a description of the subjects taking part in the study, (c) research hypotheses to be tested, (d) instrumentation used in collecting the data, (e) the research design, (f) methodology, (g) data analyses, and (h) a summary of the chapter. Central to the understanding of the study are terms which are operationally defined.

Operational Definitions

Black male--A child with an ethnical and gender code on public school student lists that identifies him as Black and male.

Emotionally impaired students--Children who meet the State of Michigan's Definition of Rule No. 340.1706 (see Appendix A), are placed in either a special class for the emotionally impaired or a resource room, and who are receiving services as emotionally impaired students.

Age--Children who were 8-12 years of age by the testing dates (May 30-June 5, 1984), and not more than 9-12 years of age by

December 31, 1984.

Father-present (FP)--Presence of the natural father, step-father, or grandfather in the home for the entire duration of the child's life, except for temporary absence up to 6 months.

Father-absent (FA)--Absence of the natural father, step-father, or grandfather in the home for more than half of the child's life.

Self-concept--Total and cluster scores on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale that represent a positive or negative self-concept. The higher the self-concept score, the more positive the self-concept (see Appendix B).

Low socioeconomic status--Results from the Socioeconomic Status (SES) Index Scale (Brookover, Patterson, & Thomas, 1962) utilizing current data that place individuals at Levels 2, 4, or 5 on the occupational level for either father or mother (see Appendix C). In FA, the SES status of the mother is considered; and in FP, the head of the household (mother and/or father) is considered.

Regular education students--Public school students who attend regular education classes and who have not been deemed eligible for special education services as defined by the state of Michigan's education rules.

Subjects

Samples of regular education ($n = 40$) and emotionally impaired students ($n = 40$) were drawn from the population of two Midwestern school districts in the state of Michigan. The school districts, hereafter referred to as School District 1 and School District 2,

were representative of large and medium size districts, respectively.

School District 1 was a multicultural city with a population of approximately 100,000. School District 2, with its approximate city population of 50,000, was identified as being located in a predominantly Black community.

With the assistance of school officials from each district, certain schools were identified as possessing the accessible population of regular education students based on their attendance of schools in low SES areas.

Randomization was used to select 125 regular education students from each school district who met the criteria (25 students from each of the five age levels--8, 9, 10, 11, and 12). The total number of emotionally impaired students for whom parental permission was given and who met the criteria comprised the sample used in the study.

All individuals in the investigation ($n = 80$) were identified as: (a) Black males with father-present (FP) or father-absent (FA) status, (b) 8-10 or 11-12 years of age, (c) emotionally impaired (EI) or regular education (RE) students, and (d) having low socioeconomic status. A description of this sample is presented in Table 1.

Research Hypotheses

The methods described in this study were designed to address the following research hypotheses:

Table 1
Description of Sample by School District

School district	City pop.	School pop.	Sample from school district	Sample meeting criteria		Parent consent forms sent		Final sample					
								Father status		Age		Class placement	
				EI	RE	EI	RE	FP	FA	8	11	EI	RE
1	100,000	30,876	3,096	83	924	83	125	17	25	17	25	27	15
2	50,000	15,000	1,218	16	359	16	125	23	15	23	15	13	25
Totals	150,000	45,876	4,314	99	1,283	99	250	40	40	40	40	40	40

Note: EI = emotionally impaired; RE = regular education.

FP = father-present; FA = father-absent.

8 = 8-10-year-old group; 11 = 11-12-year-old group.

1. Black males with FP status will have a higher self-concept than Black males with FA status, regardless of age or class placement.
2. Black males ages 11-12 will have a higher self-concept than Black males ages 8-10 regardless of FP, FA, or class placement.
3. Black males in regular education classes will have a higher self-concept than Black males in emotional impairment classes, regardless of FP/FA status or age.
4. Black males with FP status and ages 11-12 will have a higher self-concept than Black males with FA status and ages 8-10.
5. Black males in regular education classes with FP status will have a higher self-concept than Black males in emotionally impaired classes with FA status.
6. Black males ages 11-12 in regular education classes will have a higher self-concept than Black males ages 8-10 in emotionally impaired classes.
7. Black males ages 11-12 in regular education classes will have a higher self-concept than Black males with FP/FA status ages 11-12 in emotionally impaired classes and ages 8-10 in emotionally impaired and regular education class placement.

Instrumentation

Two measurement instruments were used in this investigation: (1) the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (Piers, 1984) and (2) the Socioeconomic Index. Each are discussed below.

Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale
(The Way I Feel About Myself)

The self-concept of the subjects was the dependent variable in this study and was measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. As an 80-item self-report instrument designed for elementary children, the items are written as simple descriptive statements (half of them written to indicate a possible negative self-concept) to which the children respond by circling a "yes" or "no." Terms such as "don't" are omitted because they can be misunderstood by children, especially younger children. The instrument produces a total score plus scores on six self-concept factors. The authors indicated that the six factors were derived from a factor analysis using revised cluster scores which identified six principal components: (1) behavior, (2) intellectual and school status, (3) physical appearance and attributes, (4) anxiety, (5) popularity, and (6) happiness and satisfaction (see Appendix B).

The Piers-Harris scale was standardized on 1,883 children in grades 4 through 12 in a Pennsylvania school district. The particular age group was chosen by the authors because developmental changes in a child's concept occur during the middle childhood years. The scale has also been used with upper grade students; and if items are read by the examiner, children below the third grade level can take the test (Piers, 1984; Piers & Harris, 1969; Wylie, 1974).

The Piers-Harris appears to be a highly reliable instrument. Test-retest reliability coefficients range from .88 to .93. The

reliability figures compare favorably with other measures used to assess personality traits in children and adolescents (Piers, 1984).

According to Piers, estimates of the content, criterion-related, and construct validity of the Piers-Harris have been obtained from a number of empirical studies (e.g., Franklin, Dudley, Rousseau, & Sabers, 1981; Smith & Rogers, 1977). In the Franklin et al. and the Smith and Rogers studies, the Piers-Harris was shown to have convergent validity, discriminant validity, and a relatively high degree of internal consistency.

This scale was chosen for several reasons: (a) It is easy to administer and does not require reading by the students, (b) it is a widely used research tool, and (c) it is designed to be used with age groups of this study. Other advantages in using the Piers-Harris are: (a) There is an equal number of favorably and unfavorably worded items, (b) item analyses are more extensive or more fully described than is found in other self-concept scales, and (c) the Piers-Harris scale identifies multifacet components of self-concept (Piers, 1977, 1984; Piers & Harris, 1969, Wylie, 1974).

Socioeconomic Status Index Scale (SES)

The SES index used in this study was devised by Brookover, Patterson, and Thomas (1962). In the SES index, a rough classification of three social class levels was used to analyze the social status. Categories were devised for those individuals who fell at each end of the social class span and the remaining categories constituted the middle SES level. The upper SES level consisted of

families where one of the following criteria was met: (a) The father had at least some college, (b) the mother was a college graduate, or (c) the father's occupation was professional or business. Criteria for being placed in the lower SES level consisted of the following: (a) The father had 10 or fewer years of education, and (b) the father's occupation was listed as a semi, unskilled, or service job which produced a code of 4 or 5. All other individuals (and in those cases where no educational or occupational data were available) fell into the middle category. In cases where the father was missing from the home, the mother's occupation and education was used to determine the family's status (Brookover et al., 1962).

In this study, the investigator was only interested in those parents who met the criteria for being considered as having low SES, which meant having an occupation with a code of 4 or 5, or those parents who identified themselves as unemployed. The educational level listed in Brookover's criteria was omitted from this study because, according to the information received from the demographic section of the Parental Consent and Demographic Form, a majority of parents had completed grades 10 and above, even though many were either unemployed, or had met the job's description employment criteria for being low SES (see Appendix C).

The format and content for the Parental Consent and Demographic Form was reviewed and accepted by the Human Subjects Review Committee of The Graduate College at Western Michigan University. This committee serves to protect the rights and confidentiality of subjects.

Design of the Study

The research design chosen for this study was a Three-Way Factorial design (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1979). Though the design was first applied in agricultural experimentation by Fisher (cited in Best, 1970; Popham & Sirotnik, 1973), it was later used to provide a more effective way of conducting realistic investigations in the behavioral sciences. Fisher's concepts of analysis of variance and analysis of covariance made possible the study of complex interactions through factorial designs in which the influence of more than one independent variable upon more than one dependent variable could be observed.

In this descriptive design there were three independent variables (father status--FP/FA; ages--8-10/11-12; class placement--EI/RE). The controlling variables were race (Black), gender (male), and SES (low).

One factor paramount in any investigation is its internal validity. Internal validity is present when there is sufficient control of variables to enable valid conclusions about the outcome(s) of the study to be made.

Internal Validity

It is helpful to identify and classify variables that are threats to internal validity. Campbell and Stanley (1963) identified eight different factors affecting internal validity. These factors include (1) maturation, (2) history, (3) testing,

(4) instrumentation, (5) statistical regression, (6) selection bias, (7) experimental mortality, and (8) the Hawthorne effect. The implications for each of these factors in the present study are discussed as follows:

Maturation. Subjects change in many ways over a period of time. Processes within individuals (not due to outside events), such as fatigue or age, may influence the results. Because of the short time needed for administration of the Piers-Harris and the equal duration of the sessions for each group, it is unlikely that maturation produced any distortions on the results of this study.

History. Specific external events occurring in the environment and beyond the control of the researcher at the same time that specific variables are being tested may have a stimulating or disturbing effect upon the performance of subjects. The effect of a fire drill, anxiety produced by a pending examination, or a catastrophic event in the home may significantly affect the test performance of a group of students. Limitations on internal validity by virtue of history are largely dealt with in this study through the randomization process.

Testing. The process of testing at the beginning of an experiment may produce several changes in subjects. Pretests may sensitize individuals by making them more aware of concealed purposes of the researcher and may serve as a stimulus to change; they may produce a practice effect that may make subjects more proficient in

subsequent test performances. Pretest-posttest studies are common producers of this threat to internal validity. This study, however, used a single test procedure, thereby decreasing the effects of testing.

Instrumentation. This factor refers to those changes occurring in the calibration of the measuring instrument. If tests, or human observers used as instruments of observation, are not accurate or consistent, a serious element of error is introduced. It was improbable that the instrumentation used in this study affected the results. The Piers-Harris was administered according to standardized instructions.

Statistical regression. This phenomenon sometimes operates in multiple testing situations in which scores taken during a subsequent measurement tend to move toward the mean. Since this investigation only used one administration of the instrument, there would be no regression toward the mean.

Selection bias. Selection bias is likely to occur when volunteers are used or when the characteristics of an unequated group introduce biases that would invalidate an apparently reasonable comparison. Best (1970) suggested that selection bias may be introduced when intact classes are used or when subjects are selected from schools that enroll students of a particular socioeconomic class. The selection process used in this investigation largely controlled for selection bias in regular education students.

Experimental mortality. This factor refers to the loss of subjects during the duration of the investigation. The chance that experimental mortality affected this study was slim because the scale was given to each subject in one setting, thus accounting for all subjects who were randomly selected for the study.

The Hawthorne effect. The Hawthorne effect refers to the change in sensitivity, performance, or both, by the subjects that may occur merely as a function of being in an investigation. One way to control for this effect is to remove or minimize the systematic differences between the groups, or by providing attention to both groups thereby eliminating the Hawthorne effect. In this study, the Hawthorne effect was minimized by making each group as equal as possible and applying the same procedures for test administration to both groups.

In performing a study, the researcher hopes that the results can be applied at a later time to groups in other settings. The extent to which this can be done is considered the degree of external validity of the study.

External Validity

In order for findings to be generalizable and, therefore, more useful, it is necessary that consideration be given to external validity; and in order to achieve external validity, at least four factors which may jeopardize such validity must be addressed. These factors are (1) reactive effects of testing, (2) interaction effects

of selection bias, (3) reactive effects of experimental arrangement, and (4) multiple treatment interference. The implications of each are discussed as follows:

Reactive effects of testing. This factor refers to the effects of providing subjects with pretest or warm-up procedures designed to ensure that they begin the investigation as planned and learn to respond. While this procedure may be useful in encouraging subject-task interaction, such a pretest or warm-up may serve to threaten external validity. These effects may modify the sensitivity and responsiveness of individuals, thus, producing an unrepresentative effect (Best, 1970; Drew, 1980; Tuckman, 1978). This factor was controlled for as all subjects were administered the Piers-Harris only once.

Interaction effects of selection bias. The interaction effects refer to those situations when a characteristic of the environment in which the investigation occurs causes the treatment to become more effective. For instance, a study using urban dwellers as subjects might not apply to rural dwellers if there is something unique about the urban population; thus, it is desirable for purposes of external validity to use samples that are representative of the broadest population possible. This factor was controlled for in some respects in that all subjects were classified as living in a low SES environment and the sample was selected from two cities (large and medium) in the state of Michigan.

Reactive effects of experimental arrangement. A significant threat to external validity is in the actual research arrangement chosen for the investigation. When the research setting deviates from the routine the subject is accustomed to, it may be expected that the subjects' responses will change. Drew (1980) suggested that if a group of children have their daily classroom routine altered by being tested in a "small distraction-free room," their performance may be heightened or depressed as a result of the nonroutine setting. Thus, the subjects' performance on the research task may be different than it would be if they were to perform the task in a nonexperimental or routine setting. The influence of research arrangements threatens external validity to the degree that the subjects' responsibility is altered. This threat was minimized, however not totally controlled.

Methodology

To initiate the planning stage of the study a letter of introduction of the investigator and proposed research was sent to various superintendents of schools in the state by Dr. Ronald Gilliam, the Director of the State of Michigan's Division of Adult Education. Superintendents in School Districts 1 and 2 were contacted by mail and later telephoned to acquire permission to perform the study in their districts. The procedures for acquiring and selecting the subjects consisted of the following steps:

1. School lists containing names of EI and RE students, birth-dates, and races were obtained from each selected public school

district ($N = 4,314$).

2. From the EI and RE school lists, all names were checked to identify students who were male, Black, and who met the age requirement of 8-12 years based on birthdates. Of the students identified, 125 RE were randomly selected (simple randomization) from each public school district with the use of a table of random numbers (Total $n = 250$). The entire EI population from both school districts who met the criteria for age, gender, and race was utilized ($n = 99$).

3. Letters seeking parental consent were sent to all parents of the subjects selected at this point (see Appendix D). A total of 349 letters from a combined population of both school districts were sent. Parents were also asked to respond to the demographic section of the parental consent form which asked for information that would identify father-presence and absence status and their SES level. Parents were asked to return the signed parental consent forms to the investigator by a specified date in the self-addressed stamped envelope. Follow-up letters were sent to parents who had not returned the parental consent form by the specified date (see Appendix E).

4. Returned parental consent forms were further screened for low SES. This was accomplished by identifying the occupational level of parent(s) which consisted of a Code 4 or 5 or from information indicating "unemployed" on the demographic section. Students who did not meet the criteria for low SES were eliminated from the study. Those eliminated totaled 14.

5. From the demographic data on the form, father-presence and absence status was determined by looking at information concerning the head of the household, according to the operational definition.

6. As a result of these procedures, a pool of 107 Black, low SES, 8-10 and 11-12, EI and RE students was gathered from the combined school districts. The Piers-Harris was administered to all subjects in the pool.

Procedures for Administering the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

The superintendent or superintendent designee from School Districts 1 and 2 contacted the various identified principals in his district to inform them of the study and the dates for the administration of the Piers-Harris. Dates for its administration were May 29 and 30 and June 4 and 5, 1984.

From the list of names in the pool of randomly selected subjects, and in groups of 5 or less, students were asked to accompany the investigator to a vacant classroom, library, or other available room designated by the principal. Each room was equipped with a sufficient number of tables and chairs to accommodate the students. The following procedures were performed:

1. Before distributing the scale, the investigator introduced herself and explained why the students were asked to be there (see Appendix F). The investigator also talked to them about the value of finding out how students really feel about themselves and that, in order to help them, it was necessary that they give complete and

true responses rather than ones which they thought it was desirable to give. It was stressed that: (a) this was not a test and that there were no right or wrong answers, (b) the results would not affect their school grades, and (c) the results would be kept confidential. The students were instructed not to write their names on the scales, and when they had completed them they were to fold and place them in the envelope that was attached to the sheet. Any questions concerning the questionnaire were answered at that time.

2. The Piers-Harris scale, with its attached envelope, and pencils were distributed to students.

3. Students were reminded not to put their names on the sheets; however, on the line with the word "age" they were asked to write their present age.

4. The subjects were asked to follow along silently while the investigator read the instructions aloud.

5. It was stressed by the researcher that students were to circle YES or NO for all items, and that there should be no omissions and no double circles even if some items were hard to decide.

6. Each item was read twice slowly, but not so slowly that it was possible for second thoughts or distractions to occur.

7. Any questions asked about the meaning of words (e.g., unpopular, pep) were answered.

All answer sheets were collected and coded with appropriate categories (e.g., FP/FA; 8-10/11-12; EI/RE). This information was transferred to a Data Coding Sheet. The envelopes with names were destroyed.

From the pool of 107 EI and RE subjects who took the Piers-Harris (EI = 40; RE = 67), 10 RE subjects who met the criteria for each of the eight categories were randomly selected with the use of a table of random numbers. The EI subjects were assigned to their appropriate categories. Data from all subjects, both those in the study and those eliminated were placed in a confidential file in the Department of Special Education at Western Michigan University.

All 80 answer sheets were hand scored and the data were coded on scanning sheets and transferred to the DEC-10 Computer at Western Michigan University. The statistical analyses (seven 3-way analysis of variances and four t tests) were performed by the Center of Statistical Analysis at Western Michigan University utilizing the Statistical Analysis System (SAS).

Data Analyses

In order to analyze the interval data obtained from the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale for the purpose of determining what, if any, differences occurred between variables, a 2 x 2 x 2 analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used. The ANOVA was computed with one dependent variable: self-concept scores, and three independent variables: (1) father status, (2) ages, and (3) class placement.

There are two major advantages in using the ANOVA statistical technique (Dayton, 1970; Hopkins & Glass, 1978; Popham & Sirotnik, 1973; Tuckman, 1978). These are:

1. It allows for statistical analysis of interaction and main effects between factors.

2. More than one variable can be manipulated at the same time.

There are assumptions that are associated with an ANOVA statistical analysis: (a) The subjects in each subgroup must be randomly sampled from their corresponding populations; (b) the measures must be normally distributed in the subgroup populations; and (c) the variances within the subgroup populations must be homogeneous. The design of this study was constructed to meet these assumptions; however, Popham and Sirotnik (1973) found that:

The assumption of random sampling cannot be statistically tested--it is satisfied or not satisfied by the research design. Whereas the normality and homogeneity of various assumptions guarantee the mathematical basis of the statistical tests, the random sampling assumption guarantees the logical basis of the test. (p. 239)

Lindquist (1953) reported that, very frequently, an experimenter can draw experimental subjects strictly at random from those subjects that are accessible. If not, one can nearly always at least randomize one's experimental subjects with reference to the treatments. With the use of a table of random numbers the experimenter can leave it strictly to chance which subjects are to constitute each treatment group.

A study was performed by Norton (cited in Lindquist, 1953), in which the effects of nonnormality and heterogeneity of variance upon the F distribution was investigated. Based on results from the Norton study, Lindquist stated: "Unless the departure from normality is so extreme that it can be easily detected by mere inspection of the data, the departure from normality will probably have no appreciable effect on the validity of the F-test" (p. 86). It is

anticipated that the variances with the subgroup populations will be homogeneous; however, according to Lindquist, the safest generalization that can be made is that the assumption of homogeneity of variance is practically never strictly satisfied in educational experiments, but that in most instances the heterogeneity is not marked. Hence, the F test may still be satisfactorily used in many experimental situations.

Data were analyzed with the use of the F test for total self-concept scores and component self-concept scores, and the t tests for age equivalency.

The seven null hypotheses tested by the F test consisted of: (a) three-main effects (A , B , C); (b) three first-order interactions ($A \times B$, $A \times C$, and $B \times C$); and (c) one second-order interaction ($A \times B \times C$). Additional comparisons with the six subcomponents of the Piers-Harris were also made using the F test.

The homogeneity of chronological age for students in the father-present/father-absent groups and in regular education and emotionally impaired classes were assessed through the use of t tests. Analyses using t tests allow statistical comparison of two means to be made.

Summary

Chapter III has described the design and methodology utilized in this study. Subjects were selected from two school districts in low socioeconomic environments in the state of Michigan. From a combined population of 4,314 (EI and RE), 1,382 subjects meeting the criteria for the study were randomly selected. Of these 1,382

subjects, 250 RE students were then randomly selected, and the total EI population of 99 was chosen. Parental consent forms were sent to the parents of the 349 selected subjects.

A combined total of 107 consent forms of subjects meeting the criteria of low SES was returned, thus producing a pool of 40 EI and 67 RE students. The Piers-Harris was administered to all 107 subjects. From this pool, 80 subjects (40 EI and 40 RE) were selected for analyses.

The characteristics of both subjects and school districts were described. Operational definitions were presented and the research hypotheses listed. In addition, the instruments and procedures used for carrying out the study were identified and discussed. The research design section included a discussion of the threats of internal and external validity and how this study related to each potential source of invalidity. The use of a three-way analysis of variance was discussed in the data analysis section.

Chapter IV will present the results and interpretation of the research.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This study addressed the effects of father-presence and absence on the self-concept of Black males, ages 8-12, who resided in low SES environments and who were enrolled in emotionally impaired (EI) and regular education (RE) classes.

A 2 x 2 x 2 analysis of variance was used in computing the one dependent variable: self-concept scores, and three independent variables: (1) father status, (2) age, and (3) class placement. Additional analyses were performed on the six Piers-Harris self-concept components. In addition, four t tests were performed on the age of subjects across the other groups: (a) father status and (b) class placement. These t tests were performed to determine the age equivalency for both chronological age groups. The null hypotheses that were tested involved only the total self-concept scores; however, the cluster scores from the Piers-Harris were also analyzed.

This chapter presents the results derived from the procedures described in the previous chapter.

Results of Analyses

The results section is divided into two parts: (1) the main results which are derived from the hypotheses that test the total self-concept scores; and (2) additional results derived from ANOVA

comparisons based on component self-concept scores, and also t tests for age equivalency.

Main Results

There were seven directional research hypotheses presented for analysis (see Chapter III). These hypotheses were restated in the null form for purposes of statistical testing. The .05 level of significance was utilized for all analyses. As Tuckman (1978) stated: "When statistics are employed by behavioral scientists, the 5% level (i.e., $p < .05$) often is considered an acceptable level of confidence to reject the null hypothesis of equal means between the control and experimental groups" (p. 224). In each instance presented in the ANOVA tables, with degrees of freedom of 1,72, the F ratio had to have an obtained value of 4.00 in order to be significant at the .05 level.

In order to determine the homogeneity of ages with respect to class placement and father status, four t tests were performed. Results of these tests are presented in Table 2.

Results from this analysis indicated that students in each of the two class placement groups at both age levels were not significantly different in ages.

The null hypotheses were tested utilizing the 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA. Tables 3, 4, and 5 show the results obtained from these analyses in which the total self-concept scores were analyzed.

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations, and t Tests
of Chronological Ages

	<u>n</u>	Mean	<u>SD</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Class placement ^a						
EI (8-10)	20	113.20	10.12			
RE	20	114.00	7.93	.2782	38	.7823
EI (11-12)	20	138.85	8.31			
RE	20	138.20	5.81	.2867	38	.7759
Father status ^b						
FP (8-10)	20	112.05	8.71			
FA	20	115.15	9.21	-1.0939	38	.2809
FP (11-12)	20	138.25	6.52			
FA	20	138.80	7.77	-0.2425	38	.8097

^aEI = emotionally impaired; RE = regular education.

^bFP = father present; FA = father absent.

Table 3
Means for Total Self-Concept Scores by Group

Group	<u>n</u>	Means
<u>Father status</u>		
Present	40	56.70 ^a
Absent	40	55.18
<u>Chronological age</u>		
8-10	40	57.48 ^a
11-12	40	54.40
<u>Class placement</u>		
Emotionally impaired	40	52.83
Regular education	40	59.05 ^a

^aThe higher the score the more positive the self-concept.

Table 4
Means and Standard Deviations for All Groups
on the Total Self-Concept Scores

		Emotionally impaired		Regular education	
		8-10	11-12	8-10	11-12
Father present	\bar{X}	56.40	48.70	52.10	59.60
	<u>SD</u>	11.67	12.52	10.76	13.16
Father absent	\bar{X}	55.20	51.00	56.20	58.30
	<u>SD</u>	12.26	9.23	14.10	17.12

Table 5
2 x 2 x 2 Analysis of Variance for
Total Self-Concept Scores

<u>Source</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
<u>A</u>	1	46.51	.28	.5956
<u>B</u>	1	189.11	1.16	.2860
<u>C</u>	1	775.01	4.73	.0328*
<u>A x B</u>	1	82.01	.50	.4813
<u>A x C</u>	1	86.11	.53	.4706
<u>B x C</u>	1	165.31	1.01	.3183
<u>A x B x C</u>	1	1.51	.01	.9237
Error	72	11785.10		
Corrected total	79	13130.69		

* $p < .05$; $df = 1,72$; A (father status); B (ages); C (class placement).

Null Hypothesis 1 (Father Status)

There will be no significant differences between the self-concept of Black males with father-present and father-absent status, regardless of age or class placement. As indicated in Tables 3 and 5, the main effect for father status (A) is not significant at the .05 level; therefore, there is no significant difference on the total self-concept between the father-present and father-absent groups. Thus, there is no evidence to warrant the rejection of the null hypothesis; and consequently, the investigator was unable to

accept the following research hypothesis:

Black males with FP status will have a higher self-concept than Black males with FA status, regardless of age or class placement.

Null Hypothesis 2 (Ages)

There will be no significant difference between the self-concept of Black males ages 11-12 and Black males ages 8-10, regardless of FP, FA, or class placement. Results in Tables 3 and 5 indicate an F ratio of 1.16. The main effect of age is, therefore, nonsignificant; and consequently, there is no significant difference in the total self-concept scores between the age groups of 11-12 and 8-10. There is no evidence to warrant a rejection of the null hypothesis; and therefore, the investigator was unable to accept the following research hypothesis:

Black males ages 11-12 will have a higher self-concept than Black males ages 8-10, regardless of FP, FA, or class placement.

Null Hypothesis 3 (Class Placement)

There will be no significant difference between the self-concept of Black males in regular education classes and the self-concept of Black males in emotional impairment classes, regardless of father status or age. As indicated in Tables 3 and 5, the main effect of class placement is significant (F ratio = 4.73). The Black males in regular education had a higher self-concept than Black males in classes for the emotionally impaired, regardless of

father status or age. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the following research hypothesis is supported:

Black males in regular education classes will have a higher self-concept on the Piers-Harris than Black males in emotionally impaired classes, regardless of father status or age.

Null Hypothesis 4 (Father Status x Age)

There will be no significant differences between the self-concept of Black males with fathers-present ages 11-12 and the self-concept of Black males with fathers-absent ages 8-10. Results in Tables 4 and 5 indicate that with an F ratio at 0.50, the difference is not significant; there is no difference on the self-concept of the FP age 11-12 group and the FA age 8-10 group. Therefore, there is no evidence warranting a rejection of the null hypothesis which suggested an interaction between father status and age. Consequently, there is also no evidence warranting an acceptance of the following research hypothesis:

Black males with FP status and ages 11-12 will have a higher self-concept than Black males with FA status and ages 8-10.

Null Hypothesis 5 (Father Status x Class Placement)

There will be no differences in the self-concept of Black males in regular education classes with father-present status and the total self-concept of Black males in emotionally impaired classes with father-absent status. Results of the statistical analyses in Tables 4 and 5 indicated that the null hypothesis was retained.

Consequently, there is also no evidence that warrants accepting the following research hypothesis:

Black males in regular education classes with father-present status will have a higher self-concept than Black males in emotionally impaired classes with father absent status.

Null Hypothesis 6 (Age x Class Placement)

There will be no differences in the total self-concept of Black males ages 11-12 in regular education classes and the self-concept of Black males ages 8-10 in emotionally impaired classes. The results (Tables 4 and 5) indicated that the null hypothesis could not be rejected; thus, there was no significant interaction between age and class placement. There was no evidence, therefore, that would warrant a rejection of the null hypothesis. There was also no evidence that would warrant accepting the research hypothesis as stated:

Black males ages 11-12 in regular education classes will have a higher self-concept than Black males ages 8-10 in emotionally impaired classes.

Null Hypothesis 7 (Father Status x Age x Class Placement)

There will be no significant differences in the total self-concept of Black males ages 11-12 in regular education classes with father-present status and the self-concept of Black males with father-present, father-absent status, ages 11-12 in emotionally impaired classes, and ages 8-10 in emotionally impaired and regular

education classes. The results (Tables 4 and 5) indicated that the null hypothesis could not be rejected, thus, that there was no interaction effect between the three independent variables. Accordingly, there was no evidence that would warrant accepting the following research hypothesis:

Black males ages 11-12 in regular education classes with father-present status will have a higher self-concept than Black males with father-present, father-absent, ages 11-12 in emotionally impaired classes, and ages 8-10 in emotionally impaired and regular education class placement.

Additional Results

Since it was suggested by Piers (1984) that the self-concept is not unitary but consists of several components, there were additional analyses of these components performed. Utilizing the three-way ANOVA, analyses were performed on the following self-concept components: (a) behavior, (b) intellectual and social status, (c) physical appearance and attributes, (d) anxiety, (e) popularity, and (f) happiness and satisfaction.

The purpose of these tests was to determine what differences, if any, existed between the three independent variables and each self-concept component. Additional analyses were performed on each self-concept component to ascertain what differences, if any, existed between the three independent variables and each self-concept component. The following comparisons were tested for each of the self-concept components:

1. Father-present and father-absent, regardless of age or class placement.
2. Ages 8-10 and 11-12, regardless of father status or class placement.
3. Emotionally impaired class and regular education class, regardless of father status and age.
4. Father status (present and absent) and ages (8-10 and 11-12).
5. Father status (present and absent) and class placement (emotionally impaired and regular education).
6. Ages (8-10 and 11-12) and class placement (emotionally impaired and regular education).
7. Father status, age, and class placement.

With the level of significance set at $p < .05$ and the $df = 1,72$, the F ratio required for significance is 4.00. The following are the results of the analyses.

Component 1 (Behavior)

The data for the behavior self-concept component are contained in Tables 6, 7, and 8. Of the seven comparisons presented in Table 8, only one was significant at the .05 level (F ratio = 16.08). A comparison of the class placements (EI and RE) revealed that Black males in regular education classes had a higher behavior self-concept than Black males in emotionally impaired classes, regardless of their ages or father status.

Table 6
Means of Self-Concept Component Scores for Father Status, Age, and Class Placement

Group	<u>n</u>	Self-Concept Components					
		1 BEH	2 INT/SS	3 PHY APP/ATT	4 ANX	5 POP	6 HAP/SAT
<u>Father status</u>							
Present	40	12.28 ^a	12.73	9.93	8.65	7.20	8.18 ^a
Absent	40	10.95	12.70	9.33	8.83	7.55	7.70
<u>Chronological age</u>							
8-10	40	11.58	13.45 ^a	10.08 ^a	8.05	7.63	8.13 ^a
11-12	40	11.65	11.98	9.18	8.65	7.13	7.75
<u>Class placement</u>							
EI	40	10.08	12.08	9.55	7.95	6.63	7.65
RE	40	13.15 ^a	13.35 ^a	9.70	9.53 ^a	8.13 ^a	8.23 ^a

Note. BEH = behavior; INT/SS = intellectual and school status; PHY APP/ATT = physical appearance and attributes; ANX = Anxiety; POP = popularity; HAP/SAT = happiness and satisfaction.

^aHigher mean.

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations for All Groups on
Behavior and Self-Concept Component Scores

		Emotionally impaired		Regular education	
		8-10	11-12	8-10	11-12
Father-present	\bar{X}	10.00	10.10	13.60	15.40
	<u>SD</u>	1.58	4.04	1.78	5.54
Father-absent	\bar{X}	10.10	9.50	12.00	11.60
	<u>SD</u>	3.13	2.32	2.94	3.65

Table 8

2 x 2 x 2 Analysis of Variance for the Behavior Self-Concept
Cluster Across Father Status, Ages, and Class Placement

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
<u>A</u>	1	35.1125	2.99	.0883
<u>B</u>	1	.1125	.01	.9224
<u>C</u>	1	189.1125	16.08	.0001*
<u>A</u> x <u>B</u>	1	15.3125	1.30	.2576
<u>A</u> x <u>C</u>	1	37.8125	3.22	.0771
<u>B</u> x <u>C</u>	1	7.8125	.66	.4177
<u>A</u> x <u>B</u> x <u>C</u>	1	1.0125	.09	.7700
Error	72	846.7000		
Corrected total	79	1132.9875		

*p < .05; df = 1,72; A (father status); B (age); C (class placement).

Component 2 (Intellectual and School Status)

Data from statistical analyses of this self-concept cluster are presented in Tables 6, 9, and 10. Of the seven comparisons examined for this three-way ANOVA, none yielded significant differences. An analysis for each of the main effects (A, B, and C) and their first and second order interaction effects for the comparisons produced evidence that suggested that there were no differences in the feelings that individuals in each category have about their intellectual and school status.

The analysis for the father status (A) is particularly impressive in that the F ratio is 0.00 with a probability of 0.9748. This would indicate that it is highly unlikely that father status makes a difference on the intellectual and social status component of self-concept for subjects who are Black males, ages 8-10 and who are enrolled in EI and RE classes.

Component 3 (Physical Appearance and Attributes)

The data from the statistical analysis of this self-concept cluster revealed that of the seven comparisons, none were significant. This would indicate that for all subjects with both father-present and father-absent, ages 8-10 and 11-12, and classes EI and RE, there were no significant differences in the subject's self-concept concerning physical appearance and attributes. Tables 6, 11, and 12 reveal the results of this analysis.

Table 9
Means and Standard Deviations for All Groups
on Intellectual and School Status
Self-Concept Scores

		Emotionally impaired		Regular education	
		8-10	11-12	8-10	11-12
Father-present	\bar{X}	12.80	11.30	13.70	13.10
	SD	4.05	2.45	2.79	4.04
Father-absent	\bar{X}	13.10	11.10	14.20	12.40
	SD	3.45	3.84	2.04	4.74

Table 10
2 x 2 x 2 Analysis of Variance for the Intellectual and
School Status Self-Concept Cluster Across Father
Status, Ages, and Class Placement

Source	df	SS	F value	p
<u>A</u>	1	.0125	.00	.9748
<u>B</u>	1	43.5125	3.49	.0659
<u>C</u>	1	32.5125	2.61	.1109
<u>A x B</u>	1	3.6125	.29	.5922
<u>A x C</u>	1	.1125	.01	.9246
<u>B x C</u>	1	1.5125	.12	.7288
<u>A x B x C</u>	1	.6125	.05	.8253
Error	72	898.5000		
Corrected total	79	980.3875		

* $p < .05$; $df = 1,72$; A (father status); B (age); C (class placement).

Table 11
Means and Standard Deviations for All Groups
on Physical Appearances and Attributes
Self-Concept Component Scores

		Emotionally impaired		Regular education	
		8-10	11-12	8-10	11-12
Father-present	\bar{X}	10.40	9.80	10.70	8.80
	SD	3.13	2.94	2.45	2.57
Father-absent	\bar{X}	10.00	8.00	9.20	10.10
	SD	2.26	3.65	3.68	3.12

Table 12
2 x 2 x 2 Analysis of Variance for the Physical Appearance
and Attributes Self-Concept Cluster Across Father
Status, Ages, and Class Placement

Source	df	SS	F value	p
<u>A</u>	1	7.2000	.79	.3778
<u>B</u>	1	16.2000	1.77	.1873
<u>C</u>	1	.4500	.05	.8250
<u>A x B</u>	1	2.4500	.27	.6063
<u>A x C</u>	1	5.0000	.55	.4620
<u>B x C</u>	1	3.2000	.35	.5559
<u>A x B x C</u>	1	22.0500	2.41	.1248
Error	72	658.2000		
Corrected total	79	714.7500		

* $p < .05$; $df = 1,72$; A (father status); B (age); C (class placement).

Component 4 (Anxiety)

Data from the statistical analysis of the anxiety self-concept component are presented in Tables 6, 13, and 14. Of the seven comparisons, only one yielded significant results. This was class placement (EI and RE). The other six comparisons were not significant. Results obtained suggest that there is a difference between the anxiety level felt by individuals classified as EI and RE with the EI exhibiting a tendency for greater anxiety.

Component 5 (Popularity)

The self-concept component of popularity was also statistically analyzed with the three-way ANOVA. The results indicated that only the comparison between class placement (EI and RE) was significant. Regular education students viewed themselves as having a higher popularity self-concept than emotionally impaired students. Results of this analysis are presented in Tables 6, 15, and 16.

Component 6 (Happiness and Satisfaction)

The data for the statistical analysis of the self-concept component of happiness and satisfaction are presented in Tables 6, 17, and 18. Of the seven comparisons examined in Table 18 for this three-way ANOVA, all were revealed to be nonsignificant. This would indicate that no significant differences were found between subjects who were categorized as father-present and father-absent, ages 8-10 and 11-12, and enrolled in emotionally impaired and regular

Table 13
Means and Standard Deviations for All Groups
on Anxiety Self-Concept Component Scores

		Emotionally impaired		Regular education	
		8-10	11-12	8-10	11-12
Father-present	\bar{X}	7.50	7.80	9.60	9.70
	SD	3.44	2.66	3.65	4.52
Father-absent	\bar{X}	8.90	7.60	9.40	9.40
	SD	3.96	3.20	2.80	2.99

Table 14
2 x 2 x 2 Analysis of Variance for the Anxiety Self-Concept
Cluster Across Father Status, Ages, and Class Placement

Source	df	SS	F value	p
<u>A</u>	1	.6125	.05	.8214
<u>B</u>	1	1.0125	.08	.7716
<u>C</u>	1	49.6125	4.16	.0451*
<u>A</u> x <u>B</u>	1	3.6125	.30	.5838
<u>A</u> x <u>C</u>	1	3.6125	.30	.5838
<u>B</u> x <u>C</u>	1	1.5125	.13	.7228
<u>A</u> x <u>B</u> x <u>C</u>	1	2.8125	.24	.6287
Error	72	858.7000		
Corrected total	79	921.4875		

* $p < .05$; $df = 1,72$; A (father status); B (age); C (class placement).

Table 17

Means and Standard Deviations for All Groups on
Happiness and Satisfaction Self-Concept
Component Scores

		Emotionally impaired		Regular education	
		8-10	11-12	8-10	11-12
Father-present	\bar{X}	7.70	7.80	9.10	8.10
	<u>SD</u>	1.89	2.97	1.27	2.23
Father-absent	\bar{X}	8.10	7.00	7.60	8.10
	<u>SD</u>	1.52	1.94	2.59	3.11

Table 18

2 x 2 x 2 Analysis of Variance for the Happiness and
Satisfaction Self-Concept Cluster Across Father
Status, Ages, and Class Placement

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
<u>A</u>	1	4.5125	.87	.3542
<u>B</u>	1	2.8125	.54	.4640
<u>C</u>	1	6.6125	1.27	.2628
<u>A</u> x <u>B</u>	1	.1125	.02	.8834
<u>A</u> x <u>C</u>	1	1.5125	.29	.5910
<u>B</u> x <u>C</u>	1	.3125	.06	.8069
<u>A</u> x <u>B</u> x <u>C</u>	1	9.1125	1.76	.1894
Error	72	373.7000		
Corrected total	79	398.6875		

*p < .05; df = 1,72; A (father status); B (age); C (class placement).

education classes on the self-concept component of happiness and satisfaction.

Summary of Analyses for the Means of Self-Concept Components

An interpretation of the variable father status (FP; FA) across each of the component self-concept scores revealed (Table 6) that although the results were not significant for the ANOVA in Table 5, FP subjects had a score with a slightly higher mean than FA subjects in the following areas: total self concept, behavior, and happiness and satisfaction. There were no significant differences between the means for intellectual and school status, physical appearance, anxiety, and popularity of the father status groups.

The mean self-concept for the variable "ages" (8-10 and 11-12) across each of the self-concept components (Table 6) revealed that although nonsignificant for the ANOVA (Table 5), subjects in the younger group (8-10) had a slightly higher mean for the total self-concept and the following self-concept components: intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, and happiness and satisfaction. There were no significant differences between the means of the self-concept components behavior, anxiety, and popularity for each of the chronological age groups.

An interpretation of the variable class placement, EI and RE (Table 6), across each self-concept component revealed that subjects in RE classes had a higher self-concept mean score than subjects in classes for the EI in the following areas: total self-concept, behavior, intellectual and school status, anxiety, popularity, and

happiness and satisfaction. The only component mean in which there was no significant difference for both groups was physical appearance and attributes.

Summary

The results of this study indicated that of the seven research hypotheses, only one was supported. The results of this investigation supported the research hypothesis which stated that:

Black males in regular education classes will have a higher self-concept than Black males in emotionally impaired classes, regardless of father status or age.

The following research hypotheses associated with father status and chronological age were not supported:

1. Black males with FP status will have a higher self-concept than Black males with FA status, regardless of age or class placement.
2. Black males ages 11-12 will have a higher self-concept than Black males ages 8-10 regardless of FP, FA, or class placement.
3. Black males with FA status and ages 11-12 will have a higher self-concept than Black males with FA status and ages 8-10.
4. Black males in regular education classes with FP status will have a higher self-concept than Black males in emotionally impairment classes with FA status.
5. Black males ages 11-12 in regular education classes will have a higher self-concept than Black males ages 8-10 in emotionally impaired classes.

6. Black males ages 11-12 in regular education classes will have a higher self-concept than Black males with FP/FA status, ages 11-12, in emotionally impaired classes, and ages 8-10 in emotionally impaired and regular education class placement.

7. Further analyses were performed on the comparisons of father status, age, and class placement. A 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA was used to ascertain the existence of differences, if any, between the independent variables and each of the six self-concept components. Of the 42 analyses, only the following 3 were significant:

1. Black males in RE classes had higher behavior self-concept than Black males in EI classes, regardless of father status or age.

2. Black males in RE classes had a more positive self-concept toward anxiety than Black males in EI classes, regardless of father status or age.

3. Black males in RE classes had a higher popularity self-concept than Black males in EI classes, regardless of father status or age.

A further examination of the means for the total and 6 self-concept components were also presented and interpreted.

Chapter V contains an interpretation and discussion of these findings.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Prior research has addressed the effect of cognitive development, achievement, socioeconomic status, and chronological age on the self-concept of children. There have been studies comparing the self-concept of children in homes with and without fathers, and studies that have investigated the self-concept of children in special education classes. There have been no studies, however, which addressed the effect of a combination of the three variables father status, age, and class placement on the self-concept of Black males.

Research on self-concept has been plagued with methodological problems such as an inadequate or inconsistent definition of father-presence and absence and insufficient control of SES. Also, there has been a lack of consistency in studies on the ages at which a stable self-concept is believed to occur. This study attempted to rectify these methodological problems and to determine what effect, if any, certain variables have on the self-concept. Investigated were the effects of father-presence and absence on the self-concept of low SES Black males who were between the chronological ages of 8 and 12, and who were enrolled in emotionally impaired and regular education classes.

Seven hypotheses were developed to investigate the effects of father status, age, and class placement on the self-concept of the

subjects as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (Piers-Harris). Additional comparisons were made to study the effect of these variables on the six self-concept subcomponents of the Piers-Harris.

Eighty subjects (EI = 40; RE = 40) were randomly selected from two school districts in the state of Michigan. These subjects met the appropriate father status (FP or FA), age (8-10 or 11-12), and class placement (EI or RE) criteria. The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was administered to all subjects.

The three-way analysis of variance was used to test the hypotheses for the total self-concept test scores and to analyze the results for the six self-concept components. Four t tests were also performed to examine the homogeneity of ages within the father status and class placement groups.

This concluding chapter presents limitations of the study, interpretation of the results, conclusions, and implications and recommendations for further research.

Limitations of the Study

One possible factor which may limit the results of the study is the measure of self-concept used. The Piers-Harris scale, the dependent measure in this study, has been noted by Piers (1984) as possessing a number of specific limitations which should be kept in mind when interpreting the scale results. First, the intent of the scale is not disguised. Thus, the scores are subject to conscious and unconscious distortions by children, usually in the direction of

more socially desirable responses. Second, the original norms are based on data from one Pennsylvania school district, which consisted of a White population. According to Piers, however, although not standardized on a Black population, the Piers-Harris appears to be quite appropriate for use with Black children. Like the results from other self-concept scales, mean scores on the Piers-Harris for Black groups have varied from above to below the norms for White children. A variety of studies (Booker, 1974; Frith, 1973; Morse & Piers, 1973; Ward & Braun, 1972) suggest that the Piers-Harris can be used with more diverse school populations.

Another possible limitation is that this study did not investigate the presence or possible effects of extended families, or of father surrogates, on the self-concept of children. Such an investigation was beyond the scope of this study; therefore, only the effects of more immediate paternal family members, father, stepfather, and grandfather, were studied.

There may also be certain limitations dealing with the generalization of results to a larger population. First, the number of subjects in each of the eight categories ($n = 10$) may limit the generalization of results to a larger population. Second, the controlling variable of low socioeconomic status is limiting to the extent that the results can only be generalized to families classified as low SES. It must also be noted that there are limitations inherent in the use of the SES Index itself. In this study, neither level of education nor income could be included in the determination of SES. Third, the highly defined variables of race (Black), gender (male),

and age (8-12) may have a limiting effect in that results can be generalized only to individuals with these specific characteristics.

Interpretation of the Results

The results from the t tests, which examined age equivalency for father status and class placement, demonstrated that these groups were homogeneous for age; and thus, differences between the comparison groups did not occur because of age variability.

The first research hypothesis stated that Black males with FP status would have a higher self-concept than Black males with FA status, regardless of age or class placement. The rationale for this hypothesis was based upon theoretical and empirical literature which suggested that children, and especially boys, who had fathers present in the home, scored higher on self-concept measures than did boys without fathers in the home.

The results indicated that there was no significant difference in the total self-concept scores between father-present and father-absent groups. In other words, the father status (FP or FA) of males, regardless of their age and class placement, had no effect on Black male's total self-concept. These results may have been affected by the presence of other male role models in the father-absent homes. The investigation did not take into consideration the presence or effect of adult uncles, brothers, ministers, Big Brothers, cousins, or other male figures who, according to Sciarra (1975), may play an important role in the establishment of a positive self-concept.

The second hypothesis stated that Black males ages 11-12 would have a higher self-concept than Black males ages 8-10, regardless of father status or class placement. Fahey and Phillips (1981), Harter (1983), Stenner and Katzenmeyer (1976), and Stevens (1975) reported that preadolescents, ages 11-12, possess a self-concept that is more stable and more able to withstand trauma (e.g., father-absence) than youngsters ages 8-10. These authors suggested that younger children do not possess as deep a sense of self-worth as do older children, but rather have self-concepts that are fragile and tenuous. Other authorities (Black, 1974; Silverman & Zigmon, 1983) have reported conclusions that differ on the relationship of age and self-concept. These authors contended that attitudes toward the self, which later become fairly well generalized, are at first more a function of the immediate situation, and as such cannot be measured in any consistent manner. Piers (1984) on the other hand, believes that while this may be true for preschoolers, self-attitudes are reasonably stable by 8 years of age.

The results from this study did not support the hypothesis addressing age and self-concept. It was found that there was no significant difference between the self-concept of Black males in the 8-10 and 11-12-year-old age groups, thus, supporting that literature which suggested that a child's self-concept at 8 years of age is reasonably stable.

The third hypothesis stated that Black males in regular education classes would have a higher self-concept than Black males in classes for the emotionally impaired, regardless of father status or

age. The review of literature presented a mixed pattern of results stemming from empirical studies (Beck et al., 1982; Calhoun & Elliott, 1977) dealing with the self-concept of emotionally impaired and regular education students. However, since the emotionally impaired are described in the state of Michigan's rules as individuals possessing inadequate emotional stability and control, and inadequate interaction and reaction to self and others, it would be reasonable to assume that the emotionally impaired group would have a lower self-concept than regular education students.

The results indicated that the self-concept of EI students was significantly lower than that of RE students. These findings supported the hypothesis and the contentions of Bower (1969), Calhoun and Elliott (1977), Schultz (1979), and Quay (1962) that emotionally impaired students do possess lower self-concepts than do regular education students.

The fourth hypothesis stated that Black males with FP status ages 11-12 would have a higher self-concept than Black males with FA status ages 8-10. The rationale for this hypothesis was based on literature (Atkinson & Ogston, 1974; Cortes & Flemings, 1968; Fahey & Phillips, 1981; Montemayer & Eisen, 1977) which supported both the premises that children in father-present homes have higher self-concepts than those children in father-absent homes, and that older children have a more stable self-concept. The hypothesis for this first interaction effect was not supported. In essence, it was found that father status and age have no significant impact on the self-concept of Black males. These results do not support the

majority of studies cited earlier which suggest that children with fathers in the home, and/or those who are ages 11-12 will have a higher self-concept than children ages 8-10 with absent fathers.

The fifth hypothesis stated that Black males with father-present status, who are enrolled in regular education classes would have a higher self-concept than Black males with father-absent status, who are enrolled in classes for the emotionally impaired. Literature (Beck et al., 1982; Calhoun & Elliott, 1977; Crockett & Guthrie, 1975) which suggested that RE students with FP status would have higher self-concept was the rationale behind this hypothesis. The results revealed that this was not the case and that there were no significant differences in the self-concept of males with father-present status who were enrolled in RE classes and males with father-absent status who were enrolled in classes for the emotionally impaired.

The sixth hypothesis stated that Black males ages 11-12 in RE classes would have a higher self-concept than Black males ages 8-10 in EI classes. Based on the literature (Fahey & Phillips, 1981; Harter, 1983), it was expected that males who were 11-12 years old and enrolled in RE classes would perform better on the Piers-Harris instrument than those males ages 8-10 who were enrolled in EI classes. This proved not to be the case. The results of the study did not support this hypothesis. The interaction between ages and class placement did not produce a significant difference in the self-concepts of Black males.

The seventh hypothesis investigated the interaction between father-status, age, and class placement. This hypothesis stated that Black males ages 11-12 in RE classes with fathers present would have a higher self-concept than Black males ages 11-12 in EI classes and ages 8-10 in EI and RE classes, regardless of father status. The literature (Beck et al., 1982; Fahey & Phillips, 1981; Harter, 1983) suggested that older children (ages 11-12) with fathers present who are in RE class placements should possess a higher self-concept than younger children (ages 8-10) with father-present or father-absent status who are enrolled in EI class placements. Thus, when these factors (father-present, ages 11-12, and RE) are combined, investigation of the interaction should also result in significant differences in the self-concept of Black males. There was no interaction effect found between these variables. Significant differences in self-concept between the RE and EI class students were found. However, when considered in conjunction with the other variables (father status and age), the effect of class placement is cancelled. Even though there was evidence from the literature to justify the hypothesis, it could not be supported with the test results.

Although there was no literature which suggested that father status, age, and class placement would have an effect on the separate components (clusters) of the Piers-Harris, it was assumed that similar differences would occur as those hypothesized for the total self-concept. A three-way ANOVA was performed on each of the six Piers-Harris components (clusters): (1) behavior, (2) intellectual

and school status, (3) physical appearance and attributes, (4) anxiety, (5) popularity, and (6) happiness and satisfaction. The results of the six statistical tests were varied. A description of each component and an interpretation of the results follows:

Behavior

This 16-item cluster reflects the extent to which a child admits or denies problematic behaviors. Item responses provide clues as to how the child views his problems, whether or not he assumes responsibility for these problems or externalizes blame for them on others (Piers, 1984).

The findings for this component indicated that of the comparisons tested, only class placement (RE and EI) was significant. These results revealed, as would be expected, that Black males in RE classes had less problem assuming the blame for their actions, and did not appear to have as great a difficulty admitting problematic behaviors as did Black EI males.

Intellectual and School Status

This cluster of 17 items reflects the child's self-assessment of his abilities with respect to intellectual and academic tasks, including general satisfaction with school and future expectations (Piers, 1984).

The results revealed that there were no significant differences on this component for either the main effects (father status, ages, or class placement) or for the interaction effects. Contrary to

literature which suggested father-presence plays a major role in the intellectual status of children, this was not the case. Results suggested that it was highly unlikely that father status made a difference on the intellectual and school status self-concept of Black males, regardless of age or class placement. These findings may be accounted for in part by the lack of father surrogate identification in the study.

Physical Appearance and Attributes

This third component, consisting of 13 items, reflects the child's attitudes concerning his physical characteristics as well as attributes, such as leadership and the ability to express ideas (Piers, 1984). Again, the results indicated that father status, age, or class placement made no difference in the way these subjects perceived their physical appearance and attributes.

Anxiety

This self-concept component contains 14 items and reflects general emotional disturbance and a dysphonic mood. Individual items tap a variety of specific emotions, including worry, nervousness, shyness, sadness, fear, and a general feeling of being left out of things (Piers, 1984).

Results revealed a significant difference when this component was analyzed using class placement as the independent variable. Although the mean self-concept score for EI students was in the

positive range, it was still significantly lower than that of RE students.

Popularity

The 12 items in this cluster reflect the child's evaluation of his popularity with classmates, being chosen for games, and the ability to make friends. Low scores may reflect shyness, lack of interpersonal skills, or personality traits which tend to isolate the child from others (Piers, 1984).

Based upon the definition of the EI population, it was expected that EI students would have difficulty making friends and/or would have lower interpersonal skills. Results from this analysis revealed that EI students had a mean self-concept score that, although within the possible range, was lower than that of RE students though not significantly so. Father status and age had no effect on the child's evaluation of his own popularity.

Happiness and Satisfaction

This cluster of 10 items tap a general feeling of being a happy person, easy to get along with, and feeling generally satisfied with life. Low scores on this scale are associated with general dissatisfaction, feelings of negative self-worth, and a longing for things to be different (Piers, 1984).

There were no significant differences between any of the comparisons on the measure of happiness and satisfaction. It would have appeared that since EI students differed significantly from RE

on the popularity measure, there would be a tendency toward lower interpersonal skills which would imply a general feeling of negative worth, and a longing for things to be different. This was not found to be the case, for in spite of the EI's significantly lower self-concept on the popularity, anxiety, and behavior components, the students still had a feeling of being quite satisfied with life.

While a review of the literature led to the predictions that father status, age, and class placement would have a significant effect on the self-concept of Black male children, the results of this study did not support this. Only class placement had a significant effect. Black males in classes for the emotionally impaired had significantly lower total scores on the Piers-Harris and on the components of behavior, intellectual and school status, anxiety, popularity, and happiness and satisfaction than did Black males in regular class, regardless of age or father status.

Conclusions

Within the context of the present study, several conclusions can be drawn. First, the absence of fathers in the home does not appear to cause a significant deficiency in the self-concept of Black males, ages 8-12, who are enrolled in EI and RE classes. Second, the age of Black children (8-12) does not appear to have an effect on the self-concept of Black males, in spite of literature which suggests that ages 8 to 12 is a period in which children's self-concept goes through significant developmental changes. Third, EI students, as would be expected, have less positive self-concepts

than RE students. Their lower self-concepts are in the areas of behavior, anxiety, and popularity. Fourth, all the students in this study had positive self-concepts, regardless of father status, age, or class placement.

Findings of the study may have practical implications and may lead to meaningful recommendations for others involved in either research or educational practice.

Implications and Recommendations

One of the principle implications of this study is that since the father status in the home was not found to be a variable that affects the self-concept of EI and RE Black males from low SES environments, then investigations of causal relationships must occur in other areas. This is not to suggest that the father's physical absence from the home is unimportant, for it has been suggested by Sciara (1975) that:

The presence of a father would seem to foster greater cohesiveness of family, a greater variety of family activities, a greater quantity of adult-child verbal interaction, and a greater variety of personal experiences for children than would the absence of a father.
(p. 54)

There are also other important implications to this study. First, these results, along with those of similar studies, should reassure parents that although significant differences were found between EI and RE students, the self-concept of both groups were in the positive range. Second, the evidence indicating positive mean scores should assist in alleviating parental fears concerning the

effect of placement in special education programs on self-concept. Third, the results should indicate to those professionals working with EI students (counselors, psychologists, teachers, etc.) that they cannot assume that the absence of the father in the home has a negative effect on self-concept. Fourth, the results concerning chronological age suggest that perhaps the age in which children's self-concept is most vulnerable may be the period prior to age 8 years.

The results of this study also point to recommendations to special and regular educators. Since Black male children ages 8-12 in classes for the emotionally impaired perceive of themselves differently than comparable children in regular education in certain self-concept areas, it becomes apparent that attention should be paid to these differences. Whether the lower self-concept is a factor in the initial placement of these children or develops as a result of this placement, strategies need to be developed to remediate these differences.

Since there is research evidence to support a relationship between self-concept and achievement (Blanchard & Biller, 1971; Calhoun & Elliott, 1977), it is important that teachers in special education and regular education help these children develop a more positive self-concept.

The following suggestions are offered as considerations for future investigations of the self-concept.

1. Research is needed to address the effect of "extended families" in the Black culture on the self-concept of children.

2. Research is needed in the identification of surrogate fathers and the roles they play in the development of self-concept.

3. Research is needed on the effect of the matriarchal figure of the household on children's self-concept.

4. Research is needed on the techniques and strategies that may be employed during school activities for the development and maintenance of a positive self-concept of children.

5. Research is needed to identify factors other than father status, age, and class placement, which may be related to self-concept. These factors may include: teacher's perceptions of a child's self-concept, home environment, community factors, and the quality of contact the children have with their fathers.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

**State of Michigan's Definition of Rule #340.1706
Emotionally Impaired**

R 340.1706 Determination of emotionally impaired

Rule 6. (1) The emotionally impaired shall be determined through manifestation of behavioral problems primarily in the affective domain, over an extended period of time, which adversely affect the person's education to the extent that the person cannot profit from regular learning experiences without special education support. The problems result in behaviors manifested by 1 or more of the following characteristics:

- (a) Inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships within the school environment.
- (b) Inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances.
- (c) General pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression.
- (d) Tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems.

(2) The term "emotionally impaired" also includes persons who, in addition to the above characteristics, exhibit maladaptive behaviors related to schizophrenia, autism,^[1] or similar disorders. The term "emotionally impaired" does not include persons who are socially maladjusted unless it is determined that such persons are emotionally impaired.

(3) The emotionally impaired shall not include persons whose behaviors are primarily the result of intellectual, sensory, or health factors.

(4) A determination of impairment shall be based on data provided by a multidisciplinary team which shall include a comprehensive evaluation by both of the following:

- (a) A psychologist or psychiatrist.
- (b) A school social worker.

(5) A determination of impairment shall not be based solely on behaviors relating to environmental, cultural, or economic differences.

^[1]Autism has been deleted from the definition of the emotionally impaired by the Michigan State Board of Education.]

Appendix B

**Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale
(The Way I Feel About Myself)**

PLEASE NOTE:

Copyrighted materials in this document have not been filmed at the request of the author. They are available for consultation, however, in the author's university library.

These consist of pages:

111-113

University
Microfilms
International

300 N. ZEEB RD., ANN ARBOR, MI 48106 (313) 761-4700

Appendix C

Socio-Economic Status Index (SES Index)

Categories for Socio-Economic Status Index

The educational level of each parent was coded as follows:

Completed grade 4 or less	1
Completed grade 5 or 6	2
Completed grade 7 or 8	3
Completed grade 9 or 10	4
Completed grade 11 or 12	5
Completed high school plus other noncollege training	6
Completed 1 or 2 years of college	7
Completed 3 or 4 years of college	8
Completed some graduate work	9

The occupational level of the parents was coded as follows:

(Note: A hierarchical ordering was assumed for only codes 2, 4, or 5)

Professional, Big Business	9
Semi-professional, Small Business	8
Clerical, Sales	7
Skilled labor	6
Service occupations	5
Semi- and unskilled labor	4
Housewife	3
Retired, unemployed	2
Other (military, student)	1

Appendix D

**Parental Cover Letter and Requests for
Consent and Additional Information**

May 4, 1984

Dear Parent/Guardian:

This past fall, I received permission from your superintendent to conduct a survey concerning the self-concepts of male students who are enrolled in regular and special education classes. The self-concept is defined as how an individual feels about himself. This study is being conducted under the direction of Western Michigan University. As an educator who is interested in the education of our youth, it is my belief that the results from this survey will be helpful in providing information about the feelings and needs of our male children.

I am requesting your consent for your son to complete a short survey dealing with his self-concept. Your son and approximately 80 other boys will be taking 15-20 minutes to fill out the survey. He will only be asked to circle YES or NO about feelings that he has about himself.

Your son's name will not be used, instead a number in place of his name will be assigned to all material and the results will not be shared with anyone. Therefore, you and your child's identity and privacy will be strictly maintained. I am also asking that you please take a few minutes and complete the information on the next sheet which is needed to further group the boys.

If you have any questions concerning the survey or its procedures, you may call me in Kalamazoo, Michigan, at the number listed below or the deputy superintendent at your school.

Western Michigan University
Special Education Department
Kalamazoo, Michigan 49008
616-383-1680

Please sign the attached form and return it to me by May 10, 1984. A stamped self-addressed envelope is enclosed for your use. Thank you for your cooperation. Your urgent reply will be appreciated.

Queen Esther Woodard

Alonzo Hannaford, Ed.D.
Professor

C O P Y

PARENTAL CONSENT FORM

DATE _____

I understand that the information below and the results of the survey will be used by Ms. Q. E. Woodard from Western Michigan University.

I hereby give permission for _____ to complete the self-concept scale and for the information gathered to be used in completing the study.

Signature of Parent or Guardian

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

In order to further group the boys that were selected, it is necessary to gather the following information. PLEASE CHECK THE STATEMENT THAT DESCRIBES YOU OR SOMEONE IN YOUR HOUSEHOLD. ALL INFORMATION IS CONFIDENTIAL.

1. The HEAD OF THE HOUSEHOLD is:
 - _____ the mother
 - _____ the father
 - _____ both mother and father
 - _____ the stepfather
 - _____ the stepmother
 - _____ someone other than those listed above. State who that person is: _____

2. If mother is the Head of the Household, does father live with family?
 - _____ Yes
 - _____ No
 - _____ Sometimes

3. How long has this person been the head of the household?
 - _____ 6 months or less
 - _____ 7 months to 1 year
 - _____ 1 year to 5 years
 - _____ 5 years to 10 years or more

4. What is the HIGHEST GRADE COMPLETED by the head of the household?

_____ 4 or less	_____ 9 or 10
_____ 5 or 6	_____ 11 or 12
_____ 7 or 8	_____ Higher

5. Is the head of the household employed?
 Yes (full time--outside the home)
 Yes (part time--outside the home)
 Yes (self-employed)
 No

(IF EMPLOYED, WHAT IS THE JOB, OR ON THE LINE BELOW BRIEFLY TELL WHAT IS DONE ON THE JOB) _____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH.

Appendix E

Follow-Up Parental Consent Letter

May 11, 1984

Dear Parent or Guardian:

Last week you received a letter asking permission for your son to be involved in a survey. The purpose of this survey is to compare the self-concepts of boys who are enrolled in regular education classes with boys who are enrolled in special education classes. As of today, I have not received the consent letter that would have allowed me to include your son in the survey. I am therefore writing to further explain what I am doing and why I need your help.

As an educator and now as a Doctoral student, I have always been interested in the education of our youth. I am hopeful that the information I gather from this survey will assist in developing programs that would address the needs and feelings of our young boys. It is for this reason that I seek your permission in allowing me to give your son the self-concept questionnaire.

Each boy selected would be given the self-concept questionnaire and asked to circle YES or NO, if he agreed or disagreed with statements that expressed feelings that he had about himself. At no time would his name be used during the survey, nor would individual scores be reported. The name of the school district and the name of the school will also be eliminated. The information on the consent form that asks about the head of the household and the job is included only so that I may further group the boys according to whether the father is present in the home or is absent from the home. This information will allow me to determine whether the presence or absence of the father in the home has an effect on the child's self-concept if he is enrolled in the special education or regular education class.

If for any reason you have questions about this survey, please feel free to call me COLLECT at the number below and I will discuss it further with you. In the meantime, may I count on you to help me carry out this survey.

CALL COLLECT from 5 p.m. to 9 a.m., TUESDAY OR WEDNESDAY, MAY 15, and 16.
TELEPHONE NUMBER: 616-349-7034

If I can count on you to help me, please return the consent form sent to you earlier. If it has been misplaced, I am returning a second one for your use. Thank you for your assistance.

Queen Esther Woodard
Doctoral Candidate

C O P Y

Appendix F

Introductory Statement

Good (morning or evening). My name is Ms. Woodard, and I am a student at Western Michigan University in Kalamazoo, Michigan. Your parents have given me permission to ask your help in finding out how boys your age really feel about themselves. Often other people, especially parents and teachers, are asked to say how they think you feel, but I would like to give you a questionnaire that gives you the opportunity to say for yourself how you really feel. I am hoping that you will respond as honestly as possible, rather than how you think others would want you to respond. Answer the items as you really feel you are, not as you think you ought to be.

This is not a test and there are no right or wrong answers. The answers or results that you write in your booklet will not affect your school grades and will be kept confidential. This means that no one in the school or in your home will see the answers in your booklet. For this reason, each person has been assigned a number on the front of his booklet, instead of his name.

Are there any questions? Please turn to the front of the booklet and read the instructions silently while I read them aloud. (The scale is introduced by reading the instructions on the booklet and the items are read aloud by the examiner.)

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