THE SELF-PICTURE OF SOME CHILDREN IN
EDUCATIONAL TRANSITION
THE SELF-PICUTE OF SOME CHILDREN IN
EDUCATIONAL TRANSITION

An analysis of the self-picture, attitudes, and interpersonal relationships of a group of Tasmanian children in the last year of primary and the first year of secondary education

D. D. Cooper, M.A.

Being a report of an investigation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

University of Tasmania

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ABSTRACT

This study attempts to derive, describe, and compare some aspects of the cognized and the ideal self-pictures of some children in their last year of primary and first year of secondary school. Three measures - a Check List, Rogers' Test of Personality Adjustment, and the Michigan Picture Story Test - considered to differ clearly in the degree of their directness of approach, were used to obtain data about their self-pictures from 34 boys and 38 girls fulfilling certain criteria of selection. The data are analysed in relation to variables such as sex and educational level. The findings are discussed in relation primarily to personal adequacy, social attitudes and adequacy, and interpersonal relationships. Differences in problem areas, attitudes to authority and peers, and between the pictures of the ideal self, the cognized self and the "projected" self were found associated with variables such as sex, intelligence, school and educational level. The findings of this study are juxtaposed with those of similar or relevant studies.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In presenting this thesis I wish to make special mention of the following for their assistance and co-operation:

The Director of Education, Tasmania; The Headmasters and Staff and children of the G. V. Brooks, Mowbray, and Recherlea Schools; Mr. J. H. Walker, Psychologist, Education Department; my colleagues in the Psychology Department, University of Tasmania; and especially Mrs. E. Langworthy for her untiring help with the manuscript.
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PART I
CHAPTER I

Reasons for the Study
CHAPTER I

Reasons for the Study

What is best for a child remains a constant source of enquiry and argument. Because the child is young and inexperienced he lacks an adequate background against which to make certain choices wisely. He lacks foresight and the adult's feeling of the urgent necessity to acquire certain habits, attitudes, skills, and information if he is to face confidently and preparedly the demands and competition of adult life. So it falls to the lot of the adult to make certain choices for him. Some of these choices relate to matters of education, curricula, types of school, standards of achievement in school work.

Over the past 20 years in Tasmania there has been a history of experimentation in attempts to match education and socio-economic demands. Schools have changed externally and, one hopes, internally, especially if this means there has come a better understanding of children and an increased capacity to use the child's own needs and motivations in the process of structured education. Examination systems have come in for much criticism. The policy has oscillated between adherence to an atmosphere of rigid, formalised, regimented, and disciplined instruction, and experimentation with
relatively permissive, perhaps even relatively teacher-detached, atmospheres. Maybe the atmosphere has been not over-permissive since in an island geographically remote from the main centres of western thought and educational change in Europe and America, extremes in fashions of education tend to lose their edge and flamboyancy by the time they affect the local culture. Out of the interaction of overseas influence and local need has some rather a diversity of "answers" - the Area School, the Modern School, the "District-type" secondary school, the Technical School, the Matriculation College, the Comprehensive School. Some of these have served their purpose and passed out of fashion and use, or been part of a union from which has sprung a school with a different character if not a different name. And experimentation continues though one wonders how accurately the human materials at the heart of the experiments - teachers and children - understand one another.

No matter what pattern the school takes or what is the content of the curriculum, the atmosphere of the school and the psychological development of the children depend considerably on the human elements in the situation - the teacher and the child, and the relationships between them.

It is from involvement in, and concern with these changes, and the problems thrown up by them, and the enforced re-thinking of attitudes that the interest in this transition from primary to
secondary school has evolved and led to confrontation by a large number of questions, some of which it is hoped will be illuminated, if not solved, by this study.

This period of transition - do we know very much about how it affects the child? We know that we impose certain changes on the child. He moves from being amongst the biggest children in the school, to being amongst the smallest in the school; from having an established place amongst a known group of schoolmates, to having no established place and being one of a largely unknown group of schoolmates. He moves from one pattern of education to another pattern, from being in a heterosexual class with one permanent teacher to being in a heterosexual or a single-sex class with a large number of teachers who are specialists. He moves from being a child with whom the teacher is likely to be well-acquainted, to being a child who may escape the knowledge of almost every teacher, because no teacher sees him for very long or in a permanently attached way. In particular, so far as concerns the secondary school attended by the children in this study, he moves from a rather sedentary life of sitting all day long in one classroom, to a fairly mobile life contained within a large school of scattered rooms where he is required to move around a big acreage
of land from one to another of these self-contained cottage-type classrooms and workshops. (This is one unique feature of this secondary school.) He moves from a school which is almost entirely urban in population, or alternatively, from a school with a strong rural component, to a school with a mixed though dominantly urban population. (The change is probably more marked for the rural child, since, although the secondary school population is mixed, the urban element still predominates.) He may be required to travel further and longer, and by buses which leave at only one strictly appointed time. He changes from being one of a peer group all doing the same course, to being one of a group where the members of his sub-group do the same course but different from the courses other peer sub-groups do, though this may not occur so much in his first year as thereafter. He moves from being one of a so-called homogeneous group in that they are all in the one classroom and, regardless of level of ability, are following the same curriculum at the same prescribed speed, to being one of a probably more homogeneous group in that the members are of more equal ability, but his group is now separated out and distinguished by a label or by the content of its course from other peer groups; from being one of an undifferentiated group he becomes differentiated by his group membership from other groups. He moves from a school which was essentially comprehensive but which was not so administered to one which is comprehensive and
is so administered; that is, he is required to recognise discrepancies between himself and others.

We, the adults, suddenly see him anew in this different context. It is characteristic of the secondary school teacher to comment on the smallness and immaturity of each new year's intake, whereas the primary school teacher is accustomed to refer to the children of the senior primary classes — and to see them — as "big boys" and "big girls" and to expect them to act responsibly as the most "grown-up" of the school population. The attitudes of the teachers of the two types of schools are different because their frames of reference are different; the context of the child is different before and after the Christmas holidays. Does the child see himself as different? And if so, is it because his frame of reference, too, has altered with his change of school or because it is the natural outcome of his physical and psychological maturation? It seems probable (and in fact studies have shown it to be so) that the way in which the child sees himself, and the way in which the teacher sees him, may not always be the same. The teacher may easily displace on to the child his own concepts and emotions, for example, seeing the "good" conforming child as happy — though he may not be so — because it makes the teacher happy to have such conforming behavior in the child.

These changes of context and of teacher-child orientation
thrust the child into a new frame of reference which may well cause him to become uncertain of his psychological identity and lead him to review and revise his concept of himself. What then is the self and how is it developed and influenced?

The next two chapters present a critical resume of ideas from the past three decades about the self and the development of the self-picture.
CHAPTER II

A Review of the Concept of the Self: Defining the Self
CHAPTER II

A Review of the Concept of the Self

Defining the Self

"As a theoretical construct the self has ebbed and flowed with the currents of philosophical and psychological pondering since the 17th century when Descartes first discussed the 'cogito' or self, as a thinking substance" (Hemachek, p. v). Since the 1940's or thereabouts, however, as psychological thinking has emerged from the domination of behaviourism, and from the handling of difficulties experienced by the introspectionists (Mead, 1949), the self has become of focal interest in personality theory and the explanation and prediction of human behaviour. And "since the self-concept was accepted by the behavioural sciences as a construct worthy of investigation, more than a thousand studies have been published in which this was a factor [but] surprisingly few of these deal with children" (Payne, 1967, p. 267).

The self, according to William James (1890) and English and English (1958), can be viewed in two distinct ways - the self as the subject or process or observer, and the self as the object, the observed, or "the individual as known to the individual"
(Murphy, 1947, p. 996), that is, the self concept.

The self-as-subject has many aspects: the bodily self, the "social self" (Heed, 1934, p. 171), the many "empirical selves" which, combined, constitute an ego or total cognitive structure as postulated by Barbin (1932) and by Sherif, M. and Cantril, C. (1947).

Some psychologists stress the concept of the self as the process. To Bertocci (1945) it is "a total unitary activity," "a psychological self," which in discriminating and selecting from the social and physical environment with which it interacts, develops a personality and ego. For Koustakas (1956) it is an "exploring, spontaneously expressing self, finding satisfaction in personal being"; it is "the central being of the individual" not definable in words, not truly divisible into such parts as "self concept" and "ideal-self": "behaviour is self."

The self-as-object also has been categorized in many ways and abstracted into many aspects. There is the "actual self" of Horney (1945), a psycho-physical being both consciously and unconsciously motivated. Cattell (1950, p. 656) presents a "real self," the self which, at his most rational, the individual admits himself to be. For Cattell, self is the cornerstone of personality and has three aspects, the felt self, the contemplative self, and the structural self. Symonds (1951) sees the self as being the bodily and mental processes as they are observed and reacted to by the individual.
However, the two major concepts of self as subject and self as object tend to share certain elements and may be seen rather as two parts of a single construct. So the self is both agent and object in "the individual subject revealed to his own observation as the identical and persistent centre of psychological processes" (English & English, 1958, p. 405). For Jung the realization of the self in the goal towards which the individual strives (compare Carl Rogers' "self-actualization"), but it is also the agent or process which enables the individual to recognize himself as unique and as having a unique relationship to all life (Jacobi, 1942). To Horney (1945), "the self-concept is the map which each person consults in order to understand himself, especially during moments of crisis or change" (Hornett, 1959, p.22). Levin (1935) takes a phenomenological approach to the self; the self is a perceptual object in a field created by the self in his perception of his world; the self is also a conceptual entity. Fromm and Combes (1949) also regard a phenomenological self as the centre of behaviour. The phenomenological self is constituted of all those parts of the phenomenal field which the individual experiences as part of, or characteristic of himself. The self is continually redefining itself — that is, it is both process and object — through experience which enables "more adequate differentiation of the phenomenal self and its relationship to external reality" (1949, p. 295). Rogers (1951, pp. 497-
503) describes the evolution of the phenomenal self as leading to an "organised configuration of perceptions of the self which are amenable to awareness." The phenomenological self has three aspects, (a) the cognised self which contains the "perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities," (b) the other-self which, like Strang's "social self," results from impressions conveyed by others, and (c) the ideal self which is composed of "the goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence."

So the self-as-object may be regarded by the self-as-subject perceptually, evaluatively as an object of esteem, or as an object to be defended or enhanced (Symonds, 1951; Rogers, 1951).

Further, the cognised self or the self-picture may be distorted consciously (Rogers, 1951, p. 205), or by unconscious factors, in an attempt to avoid anxiety, preserve self-esteem, and prevent inconsistencies in the self-picture (Joffe, 1965); so that between conscious and unconscious evaluation of the self there is disagreement. The individual adopts a "self-system" of defensive measures and controls (Sullivan, 1953) which prevents him from making realistic objective judgments and from seeing the contradictions between what he really is and what his self-esteem says he is.

It is the study of the phenomenological self and the inconsistencies within the self-picture and between the self-picture
and the individual's characteristics and relationships denied to awareness with which this study is concerned.
CHAPTER XIII

A Review of the Concept of the Self: The Development of the Self-picture
CHAPTER III

A Review of the Concept of the Self:
The Development of the Self-picture

The self, whether the concept is that of the self-as-subject or the self-as-object, develops and changes; and as the self changes interaction with the environment (the life-space) also changes. Because this is so, understanding and prediction of behaviour and, even more, the establishing of a climate which fosters appropriate development of the self, involve having a knowledge of the subject's conscious perceptions and his relationships with his environment (Rogers et al., 1943).

The theorist, educator, or therapist of the phenomenological personality school has to "assume, insofar as he is able, the internal frame of reference of [the subject] to perceive the world as [the subject] sees it, to perceive [the subject] himself as he is seen by himself" (Rogers, 1951, p. 29). In endeavouring to enter the subject's frame of reference, his attention is focussed largely on the subject's self-picture which is the self-as-observed, a subjective phenomenal construct (Smith, M. B., 1950). The self picture is the self of "direct awareness" since it is the subject's own view of his own characteristics. Rogers describes it as "the consistent
conceptual pattern of perceptions of characteristics and relationships of the "I" or "We", together with values attached to these concepts" (Rogers, 1951, p. 493).

There are, however, certain perceptions which are denied awareness because they are unacceptable to the individual as part of his self-picture, but which may, nevertheless, be perceived by the onlooker as important in the subject's behaviour and as part of the onlooker's picture of the subject's self. The subject may accept that others see him this way, though not accepting that he is like this; these characteristics are not introjected but are part of the "other" self. Under certain circumstances, or through changes in the phenomenological field, the subject may come to accept into awareness such previously denied material. Consideration of the development of the self-picture should, therefore, include consideration of these potentialities of, and unconscious influences on, the phenomenal self.

The following theories of development of the self derived from observation, experiment, interviews, and therapeutic practice show that from a variety of experimental backgrounds similar ideas of development of the self have evolved.

**Historical Review of Theories of Development and Dynamics of the Self of approximately the Last Three Decades**

Allport (1945) discussing the "total eclipse of the soul and the partial eclipse of the "self" in psychological theory",
has said: "I am inclined to believe history will declare that psychoanalysis marked an inter-regnum in psychology between the time when it lost its soul [along with the self] shortly after the Franco-Prussian war, and the time when it found it again, shortly after World War II." He considers that the "self" was reinstated as a just area of study with the rise of psychoanalysis.

In terms of psychoanalytic theory the newborn or the young child is motivated only by an Id, a conglomeration of impulses and instinctual drives with which he has been born. From this, as a result of experience, the ego becomes separated off and increasingly differentiated out. Its main function is to test reality and organize responses appropriate to the situation and needs of the individual. From the ego is further differentiated the Super-ego which becomes the internal representative of society's values (Egan & Gregory, 1955, p.60). Freud puts almost exclusive emphasis on the role of the parents in determining the super-ego or that sub-system of it, the conscience. The functioning of the Id, Ego, and Super-Ego, in Freudian theory, revolves mainly around sexuality. In the early stages of his development the child is, presumably, unable to make any distinction between his own ego and the surrounding world. The ego is "a poor beleagued thing, beset by illusions, full of vanity, a tempting subject for inflation" (White, 1957).
To protect itself against the onslaughts of the environment and the conflicts which arise from within, the Ego develops defenses. Freud's account, therefore, of the development of the self, emphasizes mainly biological and intra-personal processes.

Other psychoanalysts have placed the importance elsewhere. Adler, for example, stresses the importance of the whole family, and especially of the individual's place in sibling succession within the family. He sees the Ego not so much as striving to defend and protect itself, as striving to assert superiority, or to compensate for the inferiority or inadequacy felt by all individuals because of their helplessness at birth. Since every individual has different experiences, each strives in his own way for this superiority and develops a unique "style of life" in keeping with his image of himself. Harry Stack Sullivan again differs from Freud in that he places the emphasis on inter-personal communication in the development of the self. The young infant knows only two states, comfort and discomfort, and is concerned with reducing the discomfort through the gratification of needs. The success with which he does this depends on the skill with which he communicates his needs. Even in the pre-verbal stage of development he must communicate in order to satisfy his simplest organic needs. From his success or lack of success in gratifying his needs he develops a sense of security or insecurity, and as the mother shows approval or disapproval of the infant's behavior or ignores
his needs, so he comes to attach a feeling of "good" to need-satisfaction and to those activities which bring approval, and a feeling of "bad" to activities which result in a loss of sense of well-being and security and are associated with disapproval. Both the mother and the self are split into good and bad feelings, a "good-me" who is rewarded, and a "bad-me" who is disapproved. So early self-awareness arises from, and is associated with anxiety. Thereafter it is characteristic of the self that "it tends to maintain its own form and direction as a system whose basic function it is to avoid anxiety .... Any experience which threatens to disrupt or conflict with its organisation provokes anxiety and leads to behaviour calculated to nullify its significance" (Brom, 1961, p. 166). There is, therefore, a split between the "self-system" which is the observable part of the personality and the "true self" which is "the core of potentialities existing from the beginning" whether or not they have been developed.

"Whether or not the individual is able to develop his true self depends in considerable measure upon cultural factors, since man is moulded by his culture, and all attempts to break with it produce anxiety" (Brown, 1961, p. 168). The self of which one is aware is the sum of "reflected appraisals" derived from what the individual thinks others think of him in the formative years.

Erikson sees the self-picture as the outcome of psycho-physical maturation and social interaction. The development of
the self-picture proceeds through a series of eight psycho-sexual stages in the course of "developing into a defined ego within a social reality" (1950, p. 203).

These stages range from trust versus basic mistrust, through autonomy versus shame and doubt to, eventually, generativity versus stagnation at adulthood, and finally to ego integrity versus despair in old age. These steps are "pre-determined in the human organism's readiness to be driven toward, to be aware of, and to interact with a widening social radius" (Maslow, 1965, p. 325).

An essential hypothesis in psycho-analytic theory and approach is the existence of the Unconscious which varies in meaning amongst the various psychoanalytic theories, but which, for all of them, makes an important contribution to the development of the self and the self-image. For Freud the Unconscious may be equated with the "unverbalisable" or "unimaginable" (Rosen & Gregory, 1965, p. 58). To Adler the Unconscious is not a different instinctual energy system but may be unawareness of motivations and of the meaning and significance of behaviour. To Sullivan it may be an inability to understand the full meaning of the situation, or it may be a disregarding of a situation by the process of "selective inattention" and wilful misunderstanding or disassociation.

Tuming now to the less analytically inclined theorists, G. H. Head (1934) postulates that the self can arise only in a
social setting and through communication with others. Since "others" constitute any group, there must develop any "selves." These many selves are gradually synthesized into a "general other" which is the child's own general role containing his conception of his self. The self in both the unique "I" who is the actor in this development, and the "we" who is the resulting integration of the roles. Allport (1943, 1953), states that consciousness of the self is a difficult achievement. Earliest consciousness is devoid of self-reference - the young infant seems not to be aware of himself as a self; he lacks a "bodily" or "social" self. The self develops through organic and sensory sensations, through the repetition of experiences, and through anchorage points such as having a name which is a social contribution to the establishment of identity. "The name becomes a more and more strategic point of contact between the self and the outer world." It leads to "position within a social hierarchy." The self-picture is difficult to maintain, let alone to enhance. Incompatibility within the self-picture and in the relationship between the self and the environment is painful and produces painful restructuring of the self-picture. All experiences of pain, frustration, and especially of social ridicule, engender acute states of self-consciousness that leave permanent effects on the self. Allport (1955) suggests that self functions are "propietor functions" of
personality and include bodily sense, self identity, self-esteem, self-extension, rational thinking, self image, and the function of knowing.

Nagel (1949) describes the self as evolving into a classificatory system adopting the boundary lines prevalent in the individual's reference groups. Identification with the group is, he suggests, a stronger activator than self assertion.

Nagel (1949, 1951), also postulates a development of a "personal system" or personality which incorporates the self. The "personal system" is rather similar to Erikson's notion of ego-identity. The development of the self, the first stage in the process of personality development, consists of differentiating the bodily self from amongst a confusion of objects, and of contrasting the objective universe with "the internal life localized in the subject's own body." Initially there is no awareness of the self other than as a source and register of sensori-motor experiences, and "everything that is perceived is centred on the subject's own activity" (1940). In this sense the infant is egocentric. At first the reality he assimilates is distorted to fit in with his own activity, but with the acquisition of language and increased skill in communication he becomes able to make self-evaluations in the light of the successes and failures of his activity. Personality results from "the submission, or rather the automatization of the self to some kind of discipline" (1940).
As the individual develops the capacity for formal logical thought and the resultant capacity to interpret, anticipate and restructure reality, the self becomes decentered and co-ordinated with other factors, such as values and rules, into a "personal system" or personality. In the mature adult reason maintains a balance between the intellectual and the affective components of the personality. However, when disequilibrium occurs, as in adolescence, the self again becomes the centre of its own attention. "The development of the self system reveals the same progressive objectification which occurs with respect to physical reality" (Elkind, 1967, p. xv).

Snygg and Combs (1949) see the self as the phenomenal self constituted of all the parts of the phenomenal field which the individual experiences as part or characteristic of himself. It includes the more undifferentiated parts, those parts which are seldom in figure but are part of the ground of the phenomenological field. The self is both object and process, and is a learned perceptual system. The parts of the phenomenological field important in determining behaviour are those perceived to be characteristic of the self - for example the physical self, the mental self. Development within the phenomenological field occurs as new facts are discovered and answer to the strength and awareness of the individual's need. The individual has many needs, and as these change so he will see the phenomenological field
differently, and so too he will change his self-picture. Not all components of the phenomenological field, therefore, have equal importance or force in development of the individual self. The need is the important factor. Here there is no need, no differentiation will occur. The chief need is to maintain and enhance the self. The individual, therefore, tends to develop techniques which become stabilized and characteristic of his behaviour and his self-image, and to behave in accordance with the concept of himself so that the phenomenological self gives consistency to his behaviour. The self is an organisation built up from the individual's experiences and at any time has a certain stability and a tendency to resist change. External reality requires certain roles of the individual and these roles in turn come to act as needs to be satisfied by changes in behaviour and in the self-concept. When there is conflict between the individual's self-image, self-evaluation and the cultural evaluation given him, he will tend to change his role to conform to the opinion that others have of him, and so reach towards a state of balance or maintenance of the self.

Smith, W. B. (1959) takes issue with Trygg and Comber on the contention that behaviour is intended to maintain and enhance the self. He works from the point that the phenomenal self is too broad a construct, that "self" should be restricted to a phenomenal, subjective construct different from the ego which is a non-phenomenal
construct referring to the observing process of the individual. He then contends that behaviour of the total organism may be seen as ego-defensive but not necessarily as self-defensive, that is, the individual is concerned with maintaining and enhancing the ego rather than the self, since in some behaviour such as regressive behaviour "one can hardly suppose that the self is enhanced in any way." Changes in the self stem from the fortunes of the ego. Smith considers that a purely phenomenological self is inadequate to account for all behaviour, "since neither all the effective threats to the ego nor all the defence against them are registered accurately in conscious awareness."

Rogers' (1951, 1951) concept of the self is that of a phenomenological self with a conceptual "pattern of conceptions of characteristics and relationships of the "I" or the "me" together with values attached to these concepts." It has a dual source - (i) direct experience, (ii) introjection of values as if they were experiences. The self is, therefore, dependent on interaction with the environment and particularly on interaction with others. The process of development begins even in the pre-verbal period and while some concepts are "non-verbal" and may not be present in consciousness, that is no barrier to their functioning as guiding principles (1951, p. 493). Sensory perceptions and organismic experiences which are enjoyable and self-enhancing
initially appear to dominate in the formation of phenomenal self but social evaluation — that is, evaluation by other significant people such as the parents — soon assumes great importance and may come into conflict with positive sensory values, so that the individual discovers and experiences inconsistencies in the self-picture, and consequently feels threatened and suffers psychological discomfort. Such threats to the self-structure are dealt with by denying or distorting perceptions and values. Ultimately the self-picture is an organized configuration of perceptions of the self admissible to awareness and consisting of perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities, relationships with others, value systems, and goals and ideals.

Anderson (1952) also stresses the importance of social interaction and evaluations in the establishment of the self-picture. The self-picture is never complete and never more than roughly accurate. It is composed of many parts including body image and psychological image. Early in the individual's development there is a continuing process of according different values to the various parts of the self-image. These values are "determined by the attitudes of significant people towards the child." "Significant people" are those who can enhance or diminish the security and well-being of the child, for example parents and teachers. Each trait or characteristic of the self-image is seen by the individual as calling up a particular
response from others, and as these trait-response structures are established they become "conceptual units or assumptions" in the self-picture.

So peers and teachers are less important than parents as "significant people" in their effect on the self image because their influence comes later and at a less potent time in the child's development.

Jersild's (1952, 1960) theory of the development of the self has something in common with that of Sullivan, Fromm and Horney, but also something in common with that of the phenomenologists Rogers, Snygg and Combs. The development of the self is a process of differentiation. The self is both constant and changing so that in its effort to maintain itself it is, while changing, geared to resist change (1952, p. 19). It is individual in character but largely social in origin; it is arised from social experiences and influenced by relationships with other people. It arises by a process of differentiation. It is also associated with the development of imagination which may be involved in reporting experiences, and may consequently produce a distorted or false image of the self. The self begins to evolve the moment the child "comes to grips with the experiences of life" and "is made up of all that goes into a person's experiences of his individual existence." It includes his vision of himself in the past, present, and future,
and his evaluations of his own worth, and has perceptual, conceptual, and attitudinal components. Jersild, like Piaget, believes that sensory experiences probably initiate the individual's awareness of himself as being in but separate from the outside world. Thereafter maturing skills and interaction with both physical and social environment lead to increasing identification and differentiation and, at the same time, to a striving "in the presence of others and in his own eyes to be himself .... and to be consistent with himself" (1960). These characteristics which a person is clearly able to recognize as part of his make-up, constitute the phenomena of self. "There are other facets of a person's make-up which influence his ideas and attitudes pertaining to himself but which are unconscious in the sense that he does not consciously recognize them" (1960, p.125). One of these unconscious influences is the "idealized image" which Horney describes as a "pseudo identity." The idealized self - not the ideal self - is part of the "real" self and contains veneers, defenses, and distortions which the individual has assumed - but has forgotten that they are assumed - because of the inconsistencies in his phenomenal self.

Staines (1954) presents the self as, primarily, a learned perceptual system arising and developing in response to environmental stimuli which are associated with the individual's
own experiences and the actions of others to him. Gradually these perceptions are transformed into a perceptual-conceptual structure which can be analysed into three aspects - (i) the cognized or known self, (ii) the other self, (iii) the ideal self - all of which the individual is constantly endeavouring to maintain and enhance. The individual's self-picture is unique and there are differences between individuals in the degree of awareness of the self-picture, the amount and areas of differentiation within the self-picture, integration, self-acceptance, adequacy, ability, etc.

Moustakas (1956) draws on the neo-Freudians (from Hornsey) and the existentialists. He finds the notion of a self-concept as a construct or entity limiting and obscuring. To him the self is the individual or that "central core within each individual which is the deep source of growth" (Horney). The self is the "exploring, spontaneously expressing finding satisfaction in personal being," and in intimate contact with, and undivided from the world of nature and the social world. All experience contributes to the growth of the self since it helps in actualization of the individual's potential. But growth occurs most readily in settings where the person is "felt and experienced as sheer personal being" and therefore left free to explore the environment in the light of his own interests and potentialities. The most stable
and consistent value an individual has is maintenance and enhancement of the self. Kounstakas accepts Fromm's dictum "that the duty to be alive is the same as the duty to become oneself" - a goal which is never fully attained. The self grows by expressing its own intrinsic nature and experiencing its own uniqueness. This results in "social creativity and growth which in turn encourage and free the individual to further self-expression and discovery."

Maslow (1965) puts up some basic propositions of a growth and a self-actualization psychology. The self has an appreciably hereditary determinant. It is the inner core of "instinctoid" nature which grows into adulthood only partly by discovery, and partly also by the creation of the individual himself as a result of continual choices made because the individual is who and what he is. Frustration and denial of the inner core leads to general-illness of the personality, and to guilt. Acceptance and expression of the inner core lead to "actualization," "full functioning," and implies "minimal presence of ill health." The normal child, in the course of normal development, and if given really free choice, will, most often, choose what is good for his growth. Adults contribute to the growth of the self by making it possible for the individual to gratify his needs, and also by presenting him with acceptable frustrations which lead to frustration tolerance.
Hilgard (1949) postulates two possibilities of the self -
(1) the directly observed self or the self-in-awareness, and
(11) the inferred self. The self-in-awareness may be an inaccurate perception of self since the view gained, by introspection, is distorted by defence mechanisms and self deception. The observed self's identity is bounded and maintained by memory and is a value-object. The inferred self is the self as constructed by the observer from "data open to an external observer", and permits "a coherent account of motivated behaviour." It includes much that is hidden from the self-in-awareness.

"The self is a product of interpersonal influences" and as such is not the unfolding of an inevitable pattern but an individual acquisition. The self has full meaning only when it is functioning in a social setting. Hilgard emphasizes the part played by society, as in the form of parents and social stereotypes, in shaping an individual's self, and sees Freud's choice of sex as the motivating force in behaviour as the choice of the one organic need "which is inevitably interpersonal."

Summary

Some of the principles of development and dynamics of the self-concept generally expressed in the last two or three decades, are as follows: (1) The self and the self picture are products of social interaction. Attitudes are learned
through contact with the environment. The first stage in
development of identity is the awareness of "self" and "not-self" -
the subject's body as separate from his external environment.
Later comes the individual's realization of the self as a causative
body, learned through resistance of the environment to the demands
of the individual and through the changes in the environment
caused by the individual's behaviour. (2) The individual
functions as an organism before he has any psychological experience
(recognition) of "self." (3) There are certain "significant"
persons or groups of persons in the environment whose attitudes
to the individual, and interaction with him, have the greatest
influence on the self-picture he builds up. Such persons and
groups include members of the family, peer play groups,
neighbourhood groups, teachers, school groups. (4) Perceptual
experiences eventually become conceptualized into a physical-
psychological self-image. (5) The self-picture is a collection
or integration of many aspects which the individual strives to
maintain and enhance in order to avoid the discomfort or pain
created by the conflict of inconsistencies in the self-picture.
The thread running through all these theories of development of
the self and the self-picture over the last 20 or 50 years, is the
agreement on the influence of social interaction. Rogers
(1951, p. 497) wonders if the hypothetical individual reared on
a desert island, would ever develop a self? Because of his
helplessness and dependence on others for survival and care, even the earliest sensations that contribute to the dawn of self-awareness occur in a social setting, and come to have emotional and value overtones according to the manner in which the child is handled.
CHAPTER IV

The Child in Transition

Transition and changes in the self-picture

The self-picture and the learning situation

Attitudes of the teacher and the child's self-picture

Parental attitudes and their influence on the self-picture
CHAPTER IV

(a) Transition and Changes in the Self-picture

The subjects of this study are in the course of moving from primary to secondary school. It is an educational transition. Does it mark also a noticeable change in the image of the self, and do boys and girls enter and emerge from this transition with comparable self-images?

An individual is always in transition. Transition involves the gaining of new insights, perceiving new meanings, and thereby making adaptations to new situations. It cannot and should not be thought of merely as intellectual change.

As he matures the individual is required to establish himself in new environments, to attempt new tasks, and to incorporate, therefore, new concepts of himself and his relationships into his self image. He has to establish new reference points, and the reference points he establishes on entering into the secondary school are likely to direct his behaviour for the next few years.

One would expect that girls, because of their earlier maturation, will be, at entry to the secondary school, at a somewhat different stage of development from boys. It is reasonable to assume that the two sexes will already be aware of rather different culturally-established roles and expectations.
and therefore their attitudes to the secondary school and the features to which they most readily attend, will differ. Fisher and Westjen (1966) suggest that school systems recognize that individuals differ in their needs, and their abilities, and their desires to learn subject matter, but simultaneously assume that boys and girls learn in the same way; hence the existence in the secondary school of duo-sex classrooms with identical programmes and teaching methods for both sexes, except for specialist activities, such as physical training, home arts and crafts, trades, etc.

Not only sex differences are important in co-educational classes at this stage. One of the most striking features of the final classes of the primary and the initial classes of the secondary school is the mixture of psychological stages they contain. Wattenburg (1957), using physical stature as a rough index, calculated that a typical sixth grade of 20 boys and 20 girls was composed of 2 fully-adolescent girls, 8 pre-adolescent girls, 10 childish girls, 4 pre-adolescent boys and 16 childish boys.

Changes and Sex-differences in Changes in the Self-picture

There are not many studies of the self-concept for this particular period of development, that is, the period from late childhood through pre-adolescence into early adolescence. Arora (1966) when reporting a study of children aged 8 to 11,
goes so far as to say, "There seems to be no study at all of pre-adolescent children's own perceptions of themselves." Each study for this developmental period as were accessible indicate changes in the dynamic qualities of children's self-images, possibilities of differences between sexes in the self-picture, and of consequent different attitudes to new situations, and noticeable discrepancies between the child's self-image and the teacher's picture of the child. The findings of these studies are now reviewed.

Girls aged 10 to 15 were studied by Mandel (1963) to discover the influence of identifications and self-concept on their attitudes and values. The 13-and 15-year-old girls proved to be more unsure of their self-pictures and to have a less favourable self-picture than 10 year old girls. They showed more inconsistency in their replies on self-rating questionnaires; they were more self-conscious, more envious of boys, more confused in their attitudes, and more variable in their admirations.

Both 10 year old and 15 year old girls identified more strongly with authority figures than with friends. Ten-year-old girls and 13 year-old girls both preferred girls as their best friends, for although 15 year-old girls were more interested in boys, they were prevented by self-consciousness and shyness from choosing boys as their friends. Ten year-old girls expressed a wish to be generous, honest, punctual, and a dislike of
talkativeness, bad-tempereleness and impatience. Thirteen year-old girls liked to be honest, outspoken and understanding, and disliked to be moody, selfish, unreliable, bad-tempered, hurtful, indecisive and unpleasant to their mothers.

Sabir's adolescent girls (1969) showed significant differences in their attitudes to the four aspects - physical, intellectual, emotional, social - of self. They appeared to have formed a definite concept of each aspect, but did not regard each of these four aspects of the self with the same degree of approval or disapproval. There was a close similarity between their self-picture and their ideal self.

Eldredge (1937) found no appreciable difference between the self-concepts of boys in Grades IV and VI, nor between those of the girls in the same two grades, when he used a Self-Concept Scale consisting of a check list of 30 descriptive adjectives, checked by the subjects as being characteristic or not characteristic of themselves. Girls in both grades scored significantly higher than the boys, suggesting that the girls had greater self-esteem than the boys. The boys appeared to regard traits and abilities as measured by the intelligence and achievement tests as more important to their self-esteem than did the girls. Sahlman (1967) in a study of 220 adolescent boys and girls aged from 13 to 15 years of age in a London secondary modern school, and coming from working class homes, got results indicating that "care is needed in dealing with sex-associated variables since
sex differences are sometimes so large that one cannot
defend mixing the sexes in self-concept studies." The girls did
better than the boys on certain variables in the self-concept;
for example, girls were higher than boys on some intellectual
variables, school evaluation, social display, and social
adaptation; boys were better than girls on self-confidence,
self-sufficiency, self security, and ego-strength, independence
and emotional stability.

There is some degree of apparent contradiction between
the findings of Kostik (1945) and those of Fisher and Waetjen
(1966) though this may be related to such factors as the dif-
ference in secondary school experience of the students of the
two studies or to the time-difference between the two studies.
Kostik found that, on admission to High School, both sexes
appeared to have the same range of mental ability but the boys
appeared to be superior to the girls in adapting to the new
situation. However Fisher and Waetjen's male subjects in
the second year of secondary school were receiving lower
grades, contributing a higher proportion of disciplinary
problems, dropping out earlier, having more negative attitudes
about themselves, and progressing less well than the girls.
Boys seemed to show more stress than girls in the junior high
school and this probably accounted for many of their difficulties
with teachers which rose to a peak in the early high school years and then tapered off. However, when put in segregated classes there was no evidence that "the self concept [of pupils in the segregated classes] were enhanced over those of pupils in the mixed classes." (1966, p412).

(A similar distinction between the progress of boys and girls appears to hold for the children of the secondary school in this present study. Compared over several successive years, the girls have consistently tended to maintain or improve the achievement rating they had on admission to the secondary school whereas the boys have consistently tended to show a drop from teachers' ratings of achievement at entry to the secondary school, and to remain for the next two or three years at this lower level of achievement. Earlier drop-out for boys does not apply to this group since the Tasmanian school leaving age usually necessitates all children staying at school until the second-last or last form of the school.)

Lillian Smith (1965) holds that the self-picture of the pre-adolescent shows marked differences from that of the middle-primary-school child. She feels that the difference between the two sexes in their behaviour and their goals makes general description of "how things are" with the children of this age almost impossible. However, from the onlooker's
point of view she describes them as showing intensified social
sensitivity, a thrust for independence, competitive, unwilling
to communicate with adults, defensive of their own individuality,
antagonistic to the opposite sex, and in need of wise guidance.

In a study of 50 boys and 50 girls aged 9-15 years, Amatora
(1957), using the Child Personality Scale, showed a pattern
of change for both sexes, as might be expected since children
of this age are in their formative years with goals changing
as they move through the brief stage of poise and equilibrium
of late childhood into the turbulence of adolescence. The
changes may indicate a growing awareness of reality. Both
sexes in Amatora's group accredited themselves less highly
on intelligence, generosity, co-operation, and more highly
on energy and "pop" as they became older. There was, too,
for both sexes a downward trend in sociability and popularity
until about the age of 11 (the approximate age of the subjects
at the time of first testing in the Tasmanian study) possibly
expressive of the sensitivity, and the antagonism to the
opposite sex found in pre-adolescence. With emergence into
adolescence and the focusing of attention on social approval
and social skills, it might be expected that both sexes
would tend to show an increasing concern with social-ability
and popularity after the age of 11 or thereabouts. The studies
of Carlson (1965) and Spaight (1965) suggest that there is a split in the attitudes of the sexes at about this time in relation to social goals.

Carlson found no sex differences in social and personal orientation at pre-adolescence, that is with a group of 33 girls and 16 boys at Grade VI level, but found that as they proceeded through secondary school the girls became increasingly socially orientated and concerned with social skills, and the boys showed increasing concern with personal success and the establishment of status. Carlson classified her subjects according to their dominant orientation in Grade VI and again in Grade XII, and found:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>Social</th>
<th>Personal</th>
<th>Social</th>
<th>Personal</th>
<th>Chi-sq.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Girls N=33</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys N=16</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>binomial</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Within the six years, approximately 45 per cent of each sex group had shifted, the girls changing so that a significantly larger group was socially orientated, the boys tending to move in the opposite direction. Spaight's study of 30 Grade VII boys (equivalent to first year secondary school in Tasmania)
also found "slightly different social orientations" for boys and girls. Carlson concluded that sex differences must be considered in conceptualizing the development and dynamics of the self image.

Staines (1954), Emmett (1959), and Wilkie (1962), associated differences in the self-picture with both sex and level of intelligence. Staines, in a study of primary school children, concluded that "differentiation growth" was more marked with boys than with girls, that is, that there was more change in the self concept between younger and older boys than between younger and older girls; and that bright children showed more differentiation in self-picture than dull children. According to Emmett (1959), different age groups emphasized different aspects of the self, so younger children aspired to a general sense of "doing right," whereas older children showed more differentiation and evaluated specific deeds, for example, rightness and wrongness of cheating. There were also differences between brighter and duller children, duller children showing less sensitivity to social attitudes and attaching less importance to goals and ambitions, and having more uncertainty in their self concept, than the brighter children. Emmett's subjects in their first year of secondary school emphasized the following categories of values in the order given - social values,
acceptance of and by others, goals, social inter-relations. (p.280ff).

Wilkie (1962) found that at the age of 11 and 12 children characteristically liked hobbies, reading, sport and games. They liked to stand well in the eyes of the family, and to help the parents. There were differences in educational goals between bright and dull children. They had small confidence in their status, school performance and relationships with their teachers. In their first year of secondary school there were differences in the self-concepts of children in various types of schools: girls in Modern schools showed much greater self-confidence than those in selective schools; boys in higher streams had different aspirations from those in lower streams; children in Grammar schools were less certain of their possession of desirable qualities than children in Modern schools.

However, Arora (1965) found no significant differences in the self-pictures of boys and girls aged 10 and 11 in the amount of aggression they expressed to the Rosensweig Picture Frustration Test, although the girls did tend to show more introversion than the boys. And according to Arora (1957) at age 13 (approximately the age of the subjects of this study at the second time of testing), for 20 out of 22 personality variables tested, the two sexes came closer in
their self-ratings than at any other age in her study. But for all that the girls' self-evaluations throughout the ages of 9 to 13 remained consistently higher than the boys' for "punctuality, disposition, courtesy, honesty, dependability, sense of humour, patience, and good sportsmanship."

Amongst the changes that are taking place in this developing self concept is the establishment of sex roles from which can rise "another important set of problems" (Wattenburg, 1957) associated with changes in status and social relationships. Wattenburg found that quite often in the 7th grade (equivalent to first year high school in Tasmania), the girls emerged as class leaders. Evans (1965) in research carried out with nearly 2,000 young people in youth groups in Britain, the majority aged between 15 and 20 years, found that, as the concept of the sex role developed, sex differences in attitude to authority and to parents occurred, the girls showing more affection towards their parents than the boys, and mothers being regarded with stronger affection than fathers. Davies (1959) found that both boys and girls changed their images of themselves as students within the first year of secondary education. The secondary Modern school pupils of her study began their secondary education with favourable attitudes to school, but within the first year, saw themselves
as unfavourably disposed to, and inadequately catered for
by the school which they also regarded as presenting lessons
that were too long, lacking in variety, and boring, while
the discipline they regarded as too restrictive, and the
teachers as lacking in understanding of the pupils. Stacey
(1948) on the other hand, found that her Grammar school
pupils displayed favourable attitudes to school, and retained
these attitudes over a period of a year.

One might also expect changes in the body-image aspect
of the self-picture at this time. The problem here is
that in children of the age of those in this study, there
is likely to be a wide variety of physical stages, and
therefore changes in body-image of individual children may
be passed over in studying the children as a group. Studies
of the body-image of this age group and of the influence of
body-image on self-concept and interpersonal relationships
and attitudes, are lacking. The most relevant seem to be
the two by Mussen and Jones (1957, 1958) using 17-year-old
boys and girls, in which they found late maturing girls and
boys tended to reveal greater feelings of inadequacy, more
"negative" self-conceptions (as in the TAT category of
"negative characteristics"), more expectation of dominance
and rejection on the part of parents than early-maturing
girls and boys did.
These studies suggest that changes in the self-picture at this stage are likely to be fairly numerous and fairly marked, though Angel's study (1959) suggests that the children may be approaching a terminal point, or at least an integrating pause, in the formation of their self-picture. In her investigation of the hypothesis that "crystallisation of the self-concept is achieved early in development," there were no significant differences between older and younger groups of boys and girls in Grade VIII and X "with respect to self-self correlations over the two-year period."

(b) The Self-picture and the Learning Situation

The influence of the self-picture is present in every learning situation. "The self-concept has come to be recognized as a hitherto unnoticed factor in every learning situation, whether the teacher is aware of it, aiming for it, or not" (Phillips, 1964, p. 104). It affects motivation and the determination of what part of the learning shall be attended to. In turn, the reaction of the teacher affects in enhancing the child's self-concept or in reinforcing certain ideas he has about himself, or causes him to become aware of inconsistencies so that he has to restructure his self-concept. Since the self-picture contains not only cognitive qualities but also emotional qualities or components of the self - "beliefs, feelings, attitudes and values" (Perkins, 1959,
the school has to cater for both cognitive and affective needs of the child. But "too often educators have failed to consider the child in all his aspects" (Hoff, 1965, p.341) and have concentrated on the cognitive aspect of behaviour and development without regard to the full needs of the child and his ultimate goals. There should be more stress on social needs, on the health, on the self-concept, and on social anchorages. The affective part of a child's self-concept tends to make him pay more attention to the teacher, to become more anxious to please the teacher than to acquire knowledge (Selman, 1954). The way in which he perceives the teacher's attitude to him is translated into a self-perception, assimilated into his self-concept, influences his feelings about the teacher and the learning situation and leads to an "appropriate" accommodation of his behaviour. Gillio (1952) and Elkins (1954, 1956). Both emphasize the importance of education in the development of the self-concept and vice versa. The self-picture, Elkins claims, is undoubtedly very important in the psychological life of the child, therefore it must be important for education and for the teacher. Since the self develops in response to environmental stimuli, especially social stimuli, and since teachers play an important part in social interaction with the child, they are certain to have some effect on the self-picture.
Lewin (1935), Locke (1945), NYGC and Combes (1949), Rogers (1951) all postulate the self-picture ("the perceptions, beliefs, feelings, attitudes and values which the individual views as part or characteristic of himself" - Perkins, 1959) as the central factor influencing total behaviour, of which behaviour in the "learning situation" is a specific but important part.

Perkins (1959) describes the self-concept and its changes, whether apparent or not, as being "real and crucial to learning and development." He points out that if the child can see himself in various situations, it is helpful to the child, and similarly if the parents and teachers can see how the child sees himself, it is helpful to them because then "they can understand more clearly the child's past behaviour and anticipate how he will react in similar future situations." How the child sees himself is expressed in his actions, words, gestures, facial expressions. But how other people see him is not easy for him to appreciate because people disguise their reactions; it is something he is learning all the time to do. This is why, perhaps, he has anxiety about teachers' attitudes to him. A child to some extent is engrossed in trying to penetrate the teacher's mask and to adopt behaviour appropriate to the needs of the teacher, who
just like the child, has certain goals and certain needs
which he is aiming to satisfy through the child's reaction
to him. This interaction between the child and teacher,
and the reinforcing effects of the teacher's attitudes to the
child, is described in Goldberg's study (1958) where she
reports that highly compulsive children, working carefully in
order to do well at school, perceived their teachers as more
non-authoritarian than other children, and having seen their
teachers as non-authoritarian, in turn become anxious,
preumably because they then saw the structure of the classroom
as too insecure for them. So, having become anxious, they
achieved lower performances in their work. On the other hand
the less-compulsive children were in turn less concerned with
school-work and school success, and saw their teachers as more-
authoritarian than the other children. But where non-
authoritarian behaviour caused the compulsive children to be
anxious, the less compulsive children worked better and achieved
more in this sort of climate.

Wilkins (1952) evaluated the relationship between the
self and education in the following way: 1. Education should
be such as to help people to develop an adequate phenomenal self.
2. Education must keep hold of the idea that the pupil's
Main objective is to maintain and enhance his self-picture and that throughout the school he is learning to see himself as competent or incompetent, liked or not liked, honest or dishonest, and so on. 3. Resistance to learning is one way in which a child can maintain consistency of his self, as he sees it under threat. (Also stated by Leaky, 1945.)

4. If the self-concept is to be maintained or enhanced, certain needs must be met, and these are four in number, according to Holmes (1953) viz.: (a) the need to receive and to give appreciation and love, that is, happy interpersonal relationships, (b) a need to participate and make a responsible contribution, (c) a need for educative experiences, and (d) a need to gain some degree of insight. If these needs are met, then the picture of the self is enhanced, the self is able to develop, the individual experiences feelings of security and adequacy. Other theorists such as Sheerer (1949), Stock (1949), and Norman (1953), have found evidence of positive correlation between self-acceptance and the acceptance of others, and between insight into the self and perception of others.

A study of 20 matched pairs of boys and 24 matched pairs of girls in the 9th grade confirmed Erik's hypothesis (1952) that there is a relationship between adequacy of self-concept and level of academic achievement. The children with adequate
self-concepts showed high academic achievement, and those with
inadequate self-concepts showed low academic achievement.
This was quite definite in the case of the boys, but more
questionable for girls. There was no indication that low
socio-economic environment and emotionally disturbed home
also contributed to low achievement.

The studies qualifying how the self-concept can
interfere with learning are those of Cook et al. (1965) and
Cartwright (1956). Cook et al. hypothesised that individuals
who had a wide discrepancy between their cognized-self and
ideal-self would experience conflict when they were presented
with material which touched on this discrepancy, and their
prediction held. Similarly, Cartwright (1956) found that
subjects could recall more accurately stimuli which they
perceived and organized into some relationship to their
self-image: the greater the maladjustment of the subject,
the greater the difficulty in recalling material which could
not be perceived and organized into some relationship with
the self-picture.

The realization of the effect of the learning situation
on the development of the child, his behaviour and his self-
image, has led in more recent years to an increasing awareness
of the need for more guidance and counselling in the high schools.
The fact that a large number of a pupil's problems are found in the school and school-work area of his life, will be discussed later, stresses the need for the learning situation to be fairly normal. It also stresses the potential influence of counsellors and teachers on individuals in their formative years, as exemplified in Mulcahy's and Hollister's work (1952). This work stresses the need for reducing the sources of psychological conflict and stress in school situations, the need for awareness of the problems which characterize freshman high school students, since it indicates that stress in the school situation can lead to maladjustment and failure to finish high school courses.

Obviously there are different types of education provided, and the learning situation varies from school to school and also, presumably, is experienced differently by the two sexes. Some studies of the effects of the different sorts of learning situations provided by different types of school and classes on the self-picture and behaviour of children have been made, especially with reference to the effects of streaming. Leist (1956) investigated the reactions of children who were re-grouped each half-year according to their attainment in comparison with the reactions of those who continued in unbroken groups throughout the year, and found that the children in the
continuing group appeared to develop more adequate self-pictures. Drummond (1947) found that children who were classified into streams according to ability, achieved better feelings about themselves as students and about their work in general than children who were not streamed. It seems that the continuity of the group rather than the stream in which the child is located is the more important factor in contributing to a healthy self-picture. Wilkie's (1962) subjects, irrespective of streams, showed certain similarities in their self-pictures, but the children in the "C" stream, the stream of lowest ability, were more self-accepting than children in the higher ability streams. He considered the possibilities that the children in the lowest stream might be better integrated, or more realistic, or less imaginative than children in the higher streams, but decided ultimately that they were more self-accepting, possibly had a lower level of self-esteem, and perhaps had less insight.

Anxiety and backwardness in the learning situation may also influence the self-picture and the child's notion of his adequacy. Lynn (1956) concluded that anxiety enhanced the attainment of the junior secondary school children studied; but Hallworth doubted that admitted anxiety did have, in general, a positive correlation with attainment. Drummond's (1947)
normal and backward children had better attitudes to school than the dull children. The dull children, if not actively anxious, apparently were aware of the "normal" goals but felt inadequate to attain them and became hopeless and apathetic.

In Henderson's investigation (1949) no significant difference appeared between the normal and backward children in affiliation, sociality, and moral attitudes though the backward children had fewer friends than the normal children.

Mcther (1950) studying children rather older than these in this study, viz. 3rd and 4th year secondary pupils, decided that his results "indicated little real difference in the influence of the various kinds of schools on the attitudes, confidence and sociability of their pupils"; but he also considered that there was a significant relationship between certain components of the self-concept and the attitude to school. Both boys and girls with high levels of confidence and sociability had better attitudes towards school than did children who were lower in confidence and sociability.

It is noticeable in these studies of secondary school children that, with the exception perhaps of Drummond's study, little attention seems to have been paid to early homogeneity or commonality of experiences in the groups of children studied. There appears to have been no specific control of the samples
with relation to early school experiences and the effects they may have had on the development of self-picture and attitudes up to the time of the study. Wilkie does, perhaps, acknowledge the possibility of this in his statement that he conducted his study in an industrial area of East London where "the present population, especially the middle-aged and older members, has an identity of community feeling arising from the experience of economic differences in the pre-war period, and the trials of war time .... the population is not a growing one .... [but there are] newcomers .... who come into the area to take up employment." So in his sample there will be differences in educational and background experiences which are not deliberately taken into account.

In the previous section sex differences in the self-picture were discussed. It is logical to expect that differences in the self-picture of the two sexes will spill over into differences in behaviour in learning situations and so to differences in what is derived from these situations and to resultant changes in the self-picture. In our state education system the children, with few exceptions, proceed from a co-educational primary school to a co-educational secondary school. This seems generally accepted as eminently desirable but is not necessarily so. Fisher and Maetjen (1966)
thought it possible that co-educational classes might not be the best groupings in terms of enhancement of the self-concept for secondary school girls and boys, but in comparing the results of such segregation in schools, found no conclusive evidence that sex segregation helped to enhance the self-picture. However, they did find that some boys and girls in the experimental (segregated) groups, in contrast with their control groups, developed a significantly better view of themselves as problem solvers than they had at the beginning of the experiment. Cox (1960) in his thesis warned that the findings he made about boys in Grade VI should not as a matter of course be applied to girls because there was no evidence to indicate that the generalizations made in regard to boys could justifiably be applied to other child populations.

Several studies indicate that there are differences in the reactions of the two sexes to the educational process. Wilkie (1962) found significant sex differences in primary school children: he found, for example, that girls more than boys rated themselves as fond of reading, and excelling in English; that boys showed less eagerness to excel at English but had a far more competitive attitude; that boys were much more interested in sport, and considered it more important to be considered successful in sport than in school work, whereas
girls were concerned with personal qualities such as neatness and ability to get on well with their peers, and to be well regarded by their families.

There was a significant relationship between adequacy of the self-concept and level of academic achievement in Fink's first-year high school pupils (Fink, 1962), but while this conclusion appeared "to be unquestionable for boys [it was] considerably less so for girls," and he concludes that "the relationship of sex differences [in the self-concept] to academic achievement would appear to warrant further research."  

Staines (1954) claimed that differentiation "growth" of the self-picture was more marked with boys than girls. Arora (1966) while considering that the scores of boys and girls aged 10 and 11 on the CEA junior inventory form and the Rosenzweig Picture Frustration Test were sufficiently equivalent as to indicate no significant differences in self-concept, nevertheless, found that girls tended to show more intuitiveness than boys on the Rosenzweig Picture Frustration Test. So it does seem that in a co-educational class some consideration should be paid to differences in the attitudes and approaches of the two sexes.

The degree to which concern for the personal adequacy and adjustment of the child - the healthy self-concept - should determine classroom climate and educational goals
has been questioned by Cox (1955). He feels that educators may be adopting a uni-dimensional hypothesis (that "the individual reacts to his environment as a total organism") which is not justified. He believes that "as a consequence of maturation and more specialized experiences, adolescents and young adults develop rather specific responses to particular situations" (p. 121). If this is so, then the total self-picture may be less worthy of consideration in educational planning, and it "becomes ambitious, if not pretentious," to consider the whole personality of a pupil in his total environment when planning educational practices; emphasis on social adjustment leads to designation of individuality and individual initiative.

However, whether, in the classroom situation, the total organization is making general response or whether the activity is only a matter of "specific responses to particular situations" (Cox), it seems sufficiently conclusive and generally accepted that the self-picture figures largely in these learning situations. And it seems too, that reconsideration of the learning situation is constantly necessary. Children are maturing in cultures which are rapidly changing and which may present both teacher and child with demands which require conceptual changes. Houssay et al. (1955) hold that the
educational situation which most effectively promotes significant learning is one in which, first, "the threat to the self of the learner is at a minimum while at the same time the uniqueness of the individual is regarded as worthwhile and is deeply respected"; and secondly, the learner is "free to explore the materials and resources available to him in the light of his own interests and potentiality" (Hamascheck, 1965, p. 46).

(c) The Teacher and the Child's Self-picture

The learning situation within a school cannot be separated from the teacher and the teacher's attitudes. Cox attacks the obsession of educators with producing the "socially-adjusted" individual. Nevertheless part, at least, of the function of the teacher is to help children to meet their needs, to develop healthy self-concepts.

Differences in the social climate of the classroom induced by different teacher attitudes have been shown to be intimately related to differences in the self-perception of pupils (Lewin, 1935; Lippitt and White, 1943), and recognition of the part teacher-child interaction plays in self perception is evident in the frequent criticisms and evaluations by pupils of school and teachers occurring from roughly the end of the primary school years on. The peak of dislike of all that school implies comes, according to Jersild (1952) about the 9th grade, so with children a
little lower down the school one would expect the teacher and his attitudes to the child already to be of considerable interest to, and influence on, the children themselves. Jeraild saw the teacher as having such the role of the parent especially with young children (1952, p. 93), so the relationship between the child and the teacher has an important personal impact on the child from an early age. Sullivan (1947, p. 19), considered that the power and the effect of the teacher was sufficient to be able to break down a child's established attitudes and worthwhile self-images, and to teach him through "reiterated pain and humiliation" that the school could be an "unfriendly and cruel world" and to force him to escape from it into reveries of aggression and aggressive behaviour in an attempt to free himself psychologically from this situation.

"To deny the importance of early childhood in the formation of the self would be foolish", says Jeraild (1952, p. 95), "but it would be equally foolish to .... write off in advance the possibility that the long succession of hours, days, weeks, months, and years, a child spends in school can have only an incidental or minor impact on his total way of life."

'Studying comparative teaching methods with 29 girls and 31 boys in the final primary school class, Staines (1950)
concluded that "teachers who most frequently invoke status situations and make relevant comments, are most likely to modify the child's self-picture in this direction and that therefore, the classroom situation must produce education outcomes other than the traditional skills, knowledges, and appreciations. He showed that good and poor adjustment were linked with the goals and the teaching methods used in the classroom, and that where poor adjustment and inadequate self-acceptance were the outcome, these attitudes not only spread into the child's self-concept, but were expressed in changes in the ideal self, and children who gained security and greater self-acceptance because of the methods and teacher attitudes, tended also to make changes in their ideal and to do rather better than the less well-adjusted children in examination results.

In classroom interaction the teacher's, as well as the pupil's self-concept and needs are in play and teacher's and pupil's needs are often deviant. The teacher is chiefly orientated towards the cognitive needs of the child; he wants the child to succeed academically. The child's needs are much more than cognitive, he wants to belong in the social atmosphere of the group - affective needs as well as learning processes are involved (Bott, 1965). But "teachers tend to reject those students who are not cognitively disposed in the classroom and to accept those who are" (Nelson, 1964) p.83).
The child with strong affectional needs is then in a situation of conflict; he needs acceptance by the teacher, but since he tends to give prime attention to the manner in which the teacher treats him and not to the work he is required to learn, he is likely to deprive himself further of the means of gaining the teacher's acceptance. "In order to survive in the classroom, the child gives his first attention to the manner in which he will be treated by those who have power in the group, not to mastering formal tasks as some teachers may naively think" (Selenson, 1964, p. 81). So less competent pupils who do not measure up to the teacher's need for the pupil's scholastic success, may lack emotional support in their development, and may in consequence withhold satisfaction from the teacher. The teacher may be in unconscious or conscious conflict with the child because of his lack of perception of the child's needs, or because of conflict between his needs and the child's needs. Teacher and child may also be in conflict because the child is backward in his self-perception in the school situation and because the teacher makes false assumptions about the child's preferences and about his goals. In her study of 6th grade children Marshall (1959) found that children could learn to evaluate themselves adequately but unless encouraged and trained to do this, they preferred, like most of us, to remember what they
wanted to remember and to discount the rest. Consequently parents, having assumed that the children were quoting the teacher's evaluations, eventually found child's and teacher's reports on the child to be considerably discrepant. Jackson and Lehadero (1967) found that teachers' evaluations were related more closely to children's academic record than to the students' expressed attitudes about the school, themselves, and their success, and that students did not necessarily derive great satisfaction from scholastic success. So, concluded Jackson, "teachers tend to expect achievement and satisfaction to be more closely related than they, in fact, are .... Correlations indicate that when teachers set out to estimate how a student will respond to an attitude questionnaire they come closer to discovering how well the student achieves in school than to how he feels about his school experience." 

Like Marshall, Emmett (1959) found children capable of a quite remarkable degree of introspection: "the ability to write upon one's self in detail and to be able to criticize and analyze one's self, was beyond what the writers would have predicted .... Many teachers were .... frankly amazed .... at the degree to which the self was known to children." (p. 145).

So what degree does the teacher know the child and how the child sees himself? Many teachers fail to sense many problems of the adolescent, to recognize his social needs, to
change their concept in keeping with his development (Perkins, 1958). Thirty-four teachers in Scottish primary schools asked to evaluate personality characteristics and "worth" of some 1,230 11 and 12 year-old boys and girls in their classes revealed wide variations in their knowledge of, and attitudes towards, their pupils. For example, while married women were much more perceptive as to which boys were popular, they did not find those boys especially pleasant, while single women teachers were relatively unable to identify which boys were popular though they tended to assess the most and least popular boys as respectively the most and least pleasant. Men teachers tended to equate mature leadership in pupils with good skill rather than social skill. All the teachers ignored physical maturity as having any relationship to personality. Married women and men tended to be less analytic of the pupils than single women, and girls were less analytically assessed than boys. The findings of this primary school study were found to be in keeping with similar studies in secondary schools (Kirkman et al., 1955).

Whether or not teachers adequately understand and assess their pupils' self-concepts, they do influence the growth of, and changes in these self-concepts. Perkins (1958) believed and found that teachers who had done three or more years of child study promoted healthier personality growth in children and better understood how the children viewed themselves than teachers
without this background. Davidson and Young (1960) rated teachers next in importance to parents among the "significant people" believed to affect a child's feelings about himself. They studied "how the child's perception of his teacher's feelings, irrespective of its accuracy, related to his self-concept, school achievement, and classroom behaviour" and obtained a positive and significant correlation between children's perceptions of their teacher's feelings towards them, and their own self-perception. The more favourably the teacher's feelings were perceived the more favourable was the self-image. The more positively the children perceived the teacher's feelings the better was their academic achievement and the more acceptable their classroom behaviour. Girls in general tended to perceive their teacher's feelings as being more favourable than did the boys.

The contribution made by the teacher through his attitudes and teaching techniques to the changes in the self-picture may be conscious or unconscious and may lead to a "spoiling" or disintegration of the self-picture or to greater self-acceptance and increased differentiation in the self-image (Staines, 1953). So Staines asserts that since the "self is an ubiquitous factor in all learning experiences, its presence should be recognized and its importance stressed.
by all teachers, and its controlled development made a major teaching aim" (1958, p. 111). This is in keeping with Jersild's (1951) contention that development of the child's pattern of life should not be left to chance. Jersild has said that much of what is done in education is "an evasion rather than a way of facing problems that occur in the lives of children during adolescence" and that children grow up carrying with them persistent feelings of inferiority and unhealthy attitudes regarding their personal worth because of failure of the education programme to deal with their fears and problems.

It is imperative then, that teachers recognize their own importance in the development of children's self-concepts and the need to understand how a child sees himself in order to establish an emotional climate in the classroom which is conducive to the growth of healthy self-concepts (Gordon, 1966). The teacher's task then "derives from his concepts of children and learning," and involves "the problem of the match" (Hunt, 1961, p. 286), namely, matching the structure and organization of the child with the task and the learning situation so that the task is not "too threatening to [the child's] self-concept" (Gordon, 1966, p. 3). Effective matching can occur only as educators become aware of and understand the problems of the children they teach (Clements and Oelke, 1967).
The understanding and the matching of child and situation becomes of marked importance at any critical stage of transition. The child is constantly in a stage of transition but there are times when transition becomes more noticeable and dramatic, and pre-adolescence is one of these times. Smith, W. D. (1955) emphasizes the necessity to understand transition periods and adds that such understanding entails more than a knowledge of age norms and grade expectancies; it entails a capacity on the part of the teacher and the parent to relate himself to the child so that the transition is not merely at an intellectual level, but becomes a part of "him and me." Transition involves gaining new insights, perceiving new meanings, and changing one's self-image. It also involves the teacher in changing his perceptions of the child in order that both he and the child can set up long-range goals of development, and so that he can understand new characteristics in the behaviour of the developing individual.

Transition from elementary to secondary education in Tasmania usually is associated with two major changes, as follows: (1) Physical change in school location; (2) Change in teaching structure. These coincide, roughly, with the period of pubertal change. In view of all this, the move from Grade VI to the first year of secondary education is likely to present problems for most children. In solving these they may need help
which as Parker (1964) points out, has to come largely from teachers and parents.

"Basic to the [child's] acquisition of adequate and accurate self-concepts is the teacher who accepts each child as a unique person worthy as an end in himself, and who helps him in his growth towards self-realization" (Bledsoe, 1967, p. 438).

(d) Parents and their Influence on the Self-picture

Parents, like teachers, are "significant people" in the social world of the child - more significant than the teacher because they are earliest in the field and influence the child at a period when he is most vulnerable and dependent. Freud was perhaps the most extreme of the theorists in placing responsibility for the development of the individual's self-concept on the parent. Adler attributes much to the parents but also much to the family as a whole. The phenomenologists see the parents as important parts of the phenomenological field because parents contribute greatly to the infant's and young child's self-evaluations, and these "come to form a large and significant part of the infant's perceptual field" (Rogers, 1951, p. 499). The parent's evaluations of the child, both implicit and explicit, become to the child measures of his worth or lack of it, bases of his conceptions of his social role, and bases
of the attitudes which prevail in his interaction with others, which in turn lie at the basis of felt changes in his self-concept (Davis, 1945; Jersild, 1931, 1952; Segore, 1965). Parental evaluations and attitudes influence his subjective standards of conduct, the degree of realism with which he views his abilities and limitations, his acceptance of realities and limitations, the adequacy with which he appraises his effects on other people. In view of the importance of child-parent interaction in the development of the self-concept, there are, according to Wylie, relatively few studies on parent-child interaction (Wylie, 1961, p. 129), and the most successful type of such studies that exist are the Response-Response variety where a child's responses are compared with those of the responses of the parents. From a review of studies of parent-child interaction which produced some positive findings, Wylie draws the following conclusions:

"There is some evidence, not entirely free of possible artifact, to suggest that children's self-concepts are similar to the view of themselves which they attribute to their parents. There is some limited evidence that a child's level of self-regard is associated with the parents' reported level of regard for him. There is
some evidence to suggest that children see
the like-sex parent's self-concept (as
contrasted to the opposite-sex parent's
self-concept) as being somewhat more like
their own self-concept" (Wylie, 1961, pp.135-136).

Specific areas in which parental attitudes have been shown to
influence the child's self-image and his attitude to society,
have been reported and discussed in the following studies.

Anderson (1956) looked at the attitudes to authority of
children from 51 homes, and concluded that there was an
association between inter-parent solidarity and the child's
attitude to authority. Children coming from homes where
there was inter-parent solidarity and a lack of conflict had
more favourable attitudes towards authority, were better
motivated toward school, and secured higher test results
than children whose parents were in conflict with one another.
These latter children were unable to internalize codes of
values adequately, or they built up conflicting codes of values
which prevented the development of adequate psychological
security. This resulted in feelings of hostility towards
authority, a wish to escape from the conflict situation and
to establish stronger identification with a peer group at
school, and a tendency to indulge in predominantly anti-
authority activities.

In a research carried out with nearly 2,000 young people below the age of 20 in Youth Clubs in Great Britain, Evans found reasonable ground to assume that the roots of attitudes towards authority were to be found in family life and to depend on the kind of authority parents exercised, and the way in which they did so.

A similar correlation to that of Anderson's between school progress and home environment was suggested by Fraser (1959) who concluded that home environment played a more important part than intelligence in producing school progress, and especially such factors in the home environment as the emotional climate and the motivational behaviour of the parents.

Parental evaluations were found to extend even to the child's concept of his skill in the classroom (Bookover, et al., 1964), the child's estimate of his ability being significantly correlated with the estimate he considered his mother and father had of his ability.

Parental behaviour was considered to be of such significance in dealing with the personal problems of elementary school children that Sattengburg (1957) considered that contact with the parents was highly desirable in any attempt to deal with primary school children's problems.
That parents misperceive adolescents, or at least that their perceptions differ from those of the adolescent himself, does seem to occur (Kemp, 1965). Kemp found that the parents in his study not infrequently set levels of aspiration for their 7th grade children which were out of keeping with the adolescent's own goals and aspirations, although the parental aspirations were not necessarily unrealistic.

Adolescents saw themselves as more self-reliant than their parents did. The better adjusted adolescents saw their parents as somewhat better adjusted than themselves; poorly adjusted adolescents saw their parents as even less presumably adjusted than themselves. Since accuracy of perception is a significant factor in the level and reality of an individual's adjustment, it is desirable that both parents and children be helped to improve self-understanding and understanding of one another.

Socio-economic status of the parents is probably a factor in determining self concept (Mason, 1954), though there seems to be not many studies of this relationship. Parental socio-economic values and parental interpretations of their social world are introjected by the child and are more influential than his personal experiences with members of his peer groups (Radke-Yarrow, Frager and Davis, 1949).
Klausner (1953) found a tendency for boys in a lower socio-economic group to feel insecure and inferior; Mayer (1967) found a tendency, though not at a significant level, for children of higher socio-economic levels to have higher self-concepts; and Hill (1957) found no changes in the self-concept of high school students to result from learning the details of their socio-economic rating. Mooney (1943) found that the problems of high school children least influenced by socio-economic variations were those which concern the individual's self-perception and his immediate personal activities, attitudes and relations.
CHAPTER V

Hypotheses and Aims
CHAPTER V

Hypotheses and Aims

To summarise: research and theory in the area of the self-concept indicate that the self-picture is an important factor in behaviour. It will influence adaptation to new situations. It is influenced by the attitude of others and will in turn influence attitude to others. There are differences in the self-picture associated with differences in sex, intelligence, age, socio-economic status and geographical background. There are frequently misapprehensions in the understanding of the self-picture on the part of others such as teachers and parents, but understanding by such people can facilitate learning and adjustment. There are also gaps in the individual’s understanding of himself, and problems associated with his picture of himself.

Arising from observations and the findings of such researches as have been reviewed are questions which form the basis of this study:
1. What is the self-picture, including problems, attitudes, and personal relationships, of children around the time of transition from primary to secondary school?

2. Are the self-pictures of boys and girls similar?

3. Do the differences between primary and secondary school in the type and pattern of education appear to be associated with differences in the self-picture of children at these two levels of education?

It is hypothesized that:

1. There are differences between the self-pictures of children in Grade VI in the primary school and those of the children in 2 class, the first year of secondary school.

2. The self-pictures of boys and girls differ because of differences in goals, roles and social relationships which also result in the localization of problems in different areas of experience.

3. While there may be variations between individuals in any of the groups in the study, there is, nevertheless, enough commonality between individuals to permit the formulation of composite self-pictures for the groups and to warrant thinking in terms of, and planning for the group as well as the individual.

The study aims to give, primarily, a qualitative picture. However some quantitative analysis is attempted
too though it is recognised that this obscures both intra-
and inter-personal variations. The clinician is often
neither concerned with, nor anxious to reduce material to,
statistical details, but the teacher and educational planner
can have a real use for them as "developmental norms."
PART II
CHAPTER VI

The Subjects and their Backgrounds

The subjects

The background
CHAPTER VI

(a) The Subjects

Criteria for Selection

The subjects for the study were as far as possible to meet the following broad criteria:

1. To belong to a reasonably stationary population,

2. to come from a section of the community itself fairly typical of the whole community and, preferably to have also (i) a socio-economic range similar to that for the whole State; which would mean that the group was also (ii) comprised largely of middle-working-class families, the majority urban, the minority rural,

3. to share the same or a similar background of educational experience,

4. to be headed towards the same secondary school.

Such criteria automatically ruled out specific areas such as the capital city, which, as capital and as the centre of educational administration conduced to certain unique conditions and experiences in schools there. It also excluded the smaller towns or industrial and market centres where the balance of
town and country members was disproportionate to that for
the whole state. Launceston scored the natural choice.
It is big enough to have city characteristics (population
approximately 60,000) and is active as a commercial and
industrial area. Nevertheless it grades into the country
so that it has both city schools and schools whose enrolments
come from both urban and rural areas. It also contains a
broad range of living conditions: suburbs established for
many years; newer areas of homes for those who can afford
to travel to work and build more sparsely; housing estates
populated chiefly by lower income families; landed properties
dating back to the days of the first settlement of the state.
That is more, all of these can be found in one section of
Launceston, in the northern area whose suburbs and schools
reach from the city out into the rural north east district.

Variables to be considered

1. Controlled variables:

(a) Level of educational placement and attainment.

All children at the time of first testing were to be
in Grade VI, and at the time of second testing to be
in their first year of secondary school. This would
automatically exclude slow learners ~ IQ approximately
70 or below - who would be in special classes for
specialised teaching.
(b) School attended. The home and the school are the two main milieux of, and influences on the child. How he sees himself will be influenced by his school experiences. (An aim of the present study is to see if and how difference in school is associated with differences in the self-picture.) Although no two children will ever have identical backgrounds of school experience it is possible to control the situation to some degree by studying only children who have gone to the same, and only the same, schools. It was therefore decided to restrict the group for study to two primary schools. Two schools were necessary in order to have both urban and rural children. All the Grade VI children of each school who had attended only their present school were to make up the group for study.

(c) Age. Restriction of the group to Grade VI automatically imposed limits on the age range. Under the State's system of promotion and transfer to secondary school the age at the time of testing would be approximately 10.0 to 12.6 with the majority of subjects in the narrower range of 10.6 to 12.0.
2. \textit{Uncontrolled variables:}

(a) Id. (i) No attempt was made to limit the range of IQ's through school organisation was likely to have excluded automatically the children of approximately 70 IQ and below. If these children had not already been transferred to separate schools for special education (hence no longer conforming to the criterion of one-school background) they were not likely to be found in Grade VI as their progress through the school would probably be slower than that of other pupils.

(ii) The study was concerned with the self picture of children in transition from primary to secondary school and these children comprised a wide range of intellectual capacity.

(b) Socio-economic status. The same argument as for (a) ii above applies here.

\textbf{The Study Group}

I. It was intended to include in the group for study all the students of two schools who satisfied the following requirements:

(1) For the primary school group those who (a) had attended no infant or primary school other than the school at present attended, (b) were currently in Grade VI - the final primary school year.
(2) For the secondary school group (a) those who had attended the primary schools used in the study the previous year and under the same limitations (above), and (b) were, therefore, currently in their first year at the state secondary school. The group under study therefore was to consist of two complete populations which were however, similar in many ways to the populations of other State primary and secondary schools.

II. The primary schools themselves constituted a fairly representative sample of the primary schools of a State where small rural schools have been closed and the children are sent to centralised schools serving whole districts. Each of the two schools was similar in character and composition to the others of the same category in the district and throughout the State. The secondary school was the sole one for the district and took all the children, with the exception of those who chose to go to independent schools when they passed on to the level of secondary education. As will appear later in the discussion of the State education system, this secondary school had some unique characteristics. However at the time of the study it also had much in common with the other comprehensive high schools throughout the State in the way of
student intake, curriculum, and teaching staff who were, and are, drawn from the one teaching pool for the whole State and are transferred from time to time to and from other schools. So the secondary school too was to this degree representative of the total group of comprehensive high schools. But it would be erroneous to say that it was just like all other comprehensive high schools since all of these were newly conceived and without long-established traditions or developed uniqueness of their own.

III. It was proposed to follow the primary school group through into the State secondary school the following year. Obviously there would be a certain "loss" of subjects since some pupils would stay a second year in Grade VI, some would enter independent schools, and probably, a few would leave the district.

A second sort of loss also eventually occurred through the absence of students from school on days when one or other of the tests was being done. But this accounted also for some gain through students who were absent from primary school testing appearing at the time of the secondary school testing.

Thus the groups of subjects finally consisted of:

(a) a core of subjects who did all tests in both years
(b) subjects who did all tests in one year but none or only some in the other year
(o) subjects who did not complete the full range of tests in either year.

The restricted "core" of subjects was used where matching techniques or strictly before-and-after techniques with the same group were to be used. But in other parts of the study, for example when attempting to arrive at a commonly-shared view of the self, in order to avoid too much loss of subjects, and consequently of information, subjects from categories (o) and (c) were also included.

Analysis of the subjects

1. Numbers and schools of subjects:

   School A - the semi-rural school (that is neither strictly urban, nor strictly rural). Population meeting the set criteria: 11 boys, 7 girls.

   School B - the urban school. Population meeting the set criteria: 23 boys, 31 girls.

   School C - the secondary school. Available population meeting the set criteria: 26 boys, 32 girls.

   The final composition of the group studied is shown in Table 1 below.
Table 1

Analysis of Subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School of Origin</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Boys</strong></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Girls</strong></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Boys</strong></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Girls</strong></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Twenty-six of the 29 girls in the Grade VI group did all three tests, three did only the Rogers' test; 20 of the Grade VI boys did all three tests.

Within these groups was a "core" group who did all three tests at both years. This consisted of 17 girls and 17 boys:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ex-School A</th>
<th>ex-School B</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Boys</strong></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Girls</strong></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. Distribution of subjects for chronological age:

Table 2

Primary Boys at January 1st of Grade VI Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Details of distribution according to age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10-0 10-5 11-0 11-5 12-0 12-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (n=11)</td>
<td>10-1</td>
<td>11-3</td>
<td>10-3</td>
<td>10-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (n=15)</td>
<td>10-1</td>
<td>12-5</td>
<td>11-3</td>
<td>11-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (n=26)</td>
<td>10-1</td>
<td>12-5</td>
<td>10-10</td>
<td>10-11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Primary Girls at January 1st of Grade VI year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Details of distribution according to age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10-0 10-5 11-0 11-5 12-0 12-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (n=7)</td>
<td>10-2</td>
<td>11-3</td>
<td>10-3</td>
<td>10-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (n=22)</td>
<td>10-3</td>
<td>12-2</td>
<td>11-1</td>
<td>11-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (n=29)</td>
<td>10-2</td>
<td>12-2</td>
<td>10-11</td>
<td>11-0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Secondary Boys at April 1st of E Class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ex-School Range</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A (N=7) 11-6 12-4</td>
<td>11-10 11-11</td>
<td>6 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=19) 11-9 13-8</td>
<td>12-5 12-5</td>
<td>5 6 7 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=26) 11-6 13-8</td>
<td>12-2 12-3</td>
<td>11 7 7 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Details of distribution according to age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Details of distribution according to age</th>
<th>11-0</th>
<th>11-6</th>
<th>12-0</th>
<th>12-6</th>
<th>13-0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11-5</td>
<td>11-11</td>
<td>12-5</td>
<td>12-11</td>
<td>13-5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Secondary Girls at April 1st of E Class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ex-School Range</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A (N=6) 11-5 12-7</td>
<td>12-2 12-1</td>
<td>1 1 3 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=26) 11-9 13-5</td>
<td>12-4 12-4</td>
<td>7 9 5 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=32) 11-5 13-5</td>
<td>12-4 12-4</td>
<td>1 8 12 6 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Distribution of subjects for IQ:

Table 3
Primary Boys at January 1st of Grade VI Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Details of distribution according to IQ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>below 99</td>
<td>100-110</td>
<td>110-120</td>
<td>120-130+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (N=11)</td>
<td>89-120</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=15)</td>
<td>91-125</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=26)</td>
<td>89-125</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Primary Girls at January 1st of Grade VI Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Details of distribution according to IQ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>below 99</td>
<td>100-110</td>
<td>110-120</td>
<td>120-130+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (N=7)</td>
<td>87-121</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=22)</td>
<td>85-138</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=29)</td>
<td>85-138</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Secondary Boys at April 1st of 4 Class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Details of distribution according to IQ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A (N=7)</td>
<td>89-118</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>1 1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=19)</td>
<td>91-125</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>4 6 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=26)</td>
<td>89-125</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>1 5 8 7 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Secondary Girls at April 1st of 4 Class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Details of distribution according to IQ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A (N=6)</td>
<td>97-121</td>
<td>105.5</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>1 3 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=26)</td>
<td>65-139</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>3 3 8 9 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=32)</td>
<td>65-138</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>3 4 11 9 4 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Distribution of subjects for mental age:

**Table 4**

**Primary Boys at January 1st of Grade VI Year**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Details of distribution according to mental age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10-5 &amp; 10-6 11-0 11-5 11-11 12-0 12-5 12-11 13-0 13-5 13-11 14-0 14-5 &amp; above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (N=11)</td>
<td>9-1  12-1</td>
<td>11-4  11-0</td>
<td>3  2  2  1  3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=15)</td>
<td>10-7  14-1</td>
<td>12-5  12-4</td>
<td>3  2  2  4  1  2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=26)</td>
<td>9-1  14-1</td>
<td>11-6  11-0</td>
<td>3  5  2  3  6  4  1  2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Primary Girls at January 1st of Grade VI Year**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Details of distribution according to mental age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10-5 &amp; 10-6 11-0 11-5 11-11 12-0 12-5 12-11 13-0 13-5 13-11 14-0 14-5 &amp; above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (N=7)</td>
<td>10-9  13-0</td>
<td>11-7  11-0</td>
<td>1  1  3  1  1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=22)</td>
<td>8-0  16-0</td>
<td>12-0  12-2</td>
<td>2  3  2  5  2  3  1  1  1  2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=29)</td>
<td>10-9  16-0</td>
<td>11-9  12-1</td>
<td>2  4  3  8  3  3  2  1  1  2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table continued on next page)
## Secondary Boys at April 1st of E Class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Details of distribution according to mental age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10-11 &amp; 11-0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (N=7)</td>
<td>10-3</td>
<td>13-7</td>
<td>13-9</td>
<td>12-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=19)</td>
<td>11-0</td>
<td>15-7</td>
<td>13-8</td>
<td>13-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=26)</td>
<td>10-3</td>
<td>15-7</td>
<td>13-6</td>
<td>13-3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Secondary Girls at April 1st of E Class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Details of distribution according to mental age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10-11 &amp; 11-0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (N=6)</td>
<td>12-0</td>
<td>14-6</td>
<td>12-11</td>
<td>13-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=26)</td>
<td>8-10</td>
<td>16-0+</td>
<td>13-2</td>
<td>13-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=32)</td>
<td>8-10</td>
<td>16-0+</td>
<td>13-2</td>
<td>13-2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Distribution according to occupational status

Table 5
Primary Boys at January 1st of Grade VI Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Level of occupational ranks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (N=11)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=15)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=26)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Primary Girls at January 1st of Grade VI Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Level of occupational ranks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (N=7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=22)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=29)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Secondary Boys at April 1st of E Class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Level of occupational ranks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (N=7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=19)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=26)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* See also Appendix I, Tables 89, 90.
Secondary Girls at April 1st of E Class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ex-School</th>
<th>Level of occupational status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (N=6)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (N=26)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined (N=32)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.
Occupational Classification of fathers as at June 30th, 1931.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Group</th>
<th>Grade VI</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E Class</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Grade VI</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E Class</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* For classification of occupations see Appendix I, Table 90.
(b) The Background

The subjects used and the schools from which they were drawn have been shown but the nature of the schools and of the educational system of the State needs to be explained.

Primary Schools

The nature and organization of primary schools at the time of the collection of this material had been established for several decades and was consistent for the whole State. In a school of any size an infant department (taking children from 5 to 8 years) is conducted rather independently of the rest of the primary school though under the nominal control of the primary school headmaster. In smaller schools there is no infant department headmistress but there is still a tradition of considerable independence in organization and teaching methods - more so than with the primary classes. Primary schools with the full range of primary classes (Grade III to Grade VI inclusive) are under the direction of a headmaster (not headmistress) who if school is graded Class II or above is freed of classes though he usually continues administration with some classroom teaching.

The classroom teaching in primary schools is mainly in the hands of female teachers. It is not until their last
year (i.e., Grade VI) that pupils are likely to have sustained teaching by a male teacher and even so many Grade VI are taught by females. (School B of this study is large enough to have a "non-teaching" headmaster, and one of the two Grade VI is taught by a male; School A has only one Grade VI and this is taught by the headmaster.) Until three years prior to the beginning of this study there was often a tendency for a Grade VI to become a "pressure cooker" in its efforts to prepare children for the selection procedures for admission to secondary schools. This had meant in many schools a system of weekly tests whose pattern spread downwards though all the grades even to the infant classes. Success or failure in the tests was often given great importance and tended to become the focal point of the whole curriculum. The children of this study had begun their schooling in this system and it was thought probable that they might have acquired some fear of failure in tests.

In 1939 the methods of selection for secondary school changed in association with changes in the nature and types of secondary schools.

Secondary Schools

The earliest form of secondary schools had been the academic high school and the more trades-based technical
collages. Both of these types of school were highly selective and took only a small proportion of the children sitting for the selection exams in Grade VI. As an addition, to cater for the specific educational and vocational needs of children in country districts, the area school evolved (in 1935) and entrance to the secondary level of these schools did not require such a high level of academic success but did usually require that the child reside in the district. Area schools did not often offer education to the level of examinations for admission to tertiary education.

City children had nothing quite comparable to the area school. However, in 1946, with the setting of the school leaving-age at 16, modern schools were introduced to cater mostly for those unsuccessful in gaining entry to high schools and technical schools though a few who were successful in selection examinations preferred to attend modern schools. They consisted usually of 2 or 3 years of study built on to the primary school courses, with the pupils remaining housed in primary school buildings. Modern schools met with considerable criticism and went out of existence in 1961.

During the modern school period an experiment with a different type of secondary education, style of school, administration, and education goal was made. Thus the G. V. Brooks
Community School (School C of this study) originated. The first headmaster of the school, R. L. Whitford (1954), writing of its inception and character says:

"... in 1946 the Government of Tasmania took a courageous step in raising the school leaving age to 16. A fine ideal was thus realised – the ideal of free secondary education for all .... Education in this State is now, therefore, free and compulsory from 6 to 16 years of age. At about 6 years of age the child enters an infant school where he spends 2 years. The primary school looks after the next 4 years from 8 to 12 years of age. At approximately 12 years of age the child moves to a secondary school. Three types of schools cater for this stage – the high school, technical school and the Modern School. Our well-known area schools provide for the pre-school, infant primary, and modern stages. Of course there is the usual controversy about methods of selection for the type of secondary education to be followed and as to the advisability of providing one comprehensive secondary school as against three types of secondary schools."
In general it may be said that the high school provides an academic education leading to the professions and the technical school caters for the highly skilled trades .... The Modern school however has quite a different function. It is designed to meet the educational needs of the average child .... The Modern school is not primarily concerned with vocations and careers. Its chief concern is the making of good citizens. It represents the first attempt in this State to provide a type of secondary education specially designed to meet the needs of the average child .... Where does the Community school fit into this? Our school appears to be unique .... we have no prototype. But we are a type of Modern school - the first Modern school to be established as a separate physical entity in this State. While our basic aims are those of Modern school education in general, our physical set-up, organisation, activities and special aims are quite different. We are an experimental school, a testing ground for much that is new in educational theory and practice.
It became probably the most comprehensive of all the modern schools in its scope and range of activities."

Between 1945 and 1959 the Community school existed in its unique form of offering a three year course to a relatively small enrolment drawn from every Launceston suburb. In 1959 in keeping with other changes in the secondary school system, it offered for the first time a pilot course of 4 years’ study leading to the Schools’ Board Certificate (i.e., the State-wide Leaving Certificate of the academic and technical secondary schools) in addition to its established three years secondary school Certificate course. Meanwhile the Modern schools had had difficulty in gaining community acceptance (Education Record, February, 1949). And, in addition, opinion as to what constituted a satisfactory curriculum and a satisfactory leaving certificate had caused a re-thinking which led to the establishment in 1958 of Comprehensive high schools serving proximate districts, and completing the abolition of Modern schools. So in 1960 the G. V. Brooks Community School became a Comprehensive High School whose enrolment boundaries encompassed all students in the North Launceston districts who were qualified by age to enter secondary school. Courses were devised so that each student had the opportunity to achieve the best possible
qualifications, according to his or her ability, to the fourth year level and then if qualified, to transfer to Matriculation High School.

As well, the availability of hostel accommodation, bus transport, and private board in the district gave to many country children educational opportunities equal to those of town students (Sukum, 1966). So School C (formerly the Community school) became one of a growing number of new high schools all comprehensive in character. But in some ways it had been doing the work of a Comprehensive high school from soon after its inception. From the beginning it was a district school though its district was then larger; it tapped the whole Leamington area. There had always been a small number of pupils of above-average intelligence who had preferred attendance at this school though qualified to enter the academic high school, so its pupil intake had always been comprehensive though the range of intelligence was not normally distributed. Its curriculum was comprehensive though not designed to lead on to tertiary education, and it served both town and country as did the majority of Comprehensive high schools which mushroomed into existence outside the capital city. It drew on a primarily stationary and middle- or working-class population (both urban and rural) typical of the great part of the whole population of the State. It maintained a uniqueness in the organization of its campus (a "village" of home-rooms and
specialist work-shops surrounded by school/farm and orchard), and in the resultant possible combinations of basic subjects and options. It was housed in buildings quite separate and remote from the primary schools and therefore was (like the academic high and technical schools had always been but modern schools had not) a school to which one "graduated."

The reason why this particular school was chosen for this study should now begin to be apparent. With a population drawn from both town and country it is something of a microcosm of the whole State, more so I believe, than any other comprehensive high school existing at the time of the study.

It is now appropriate to look at the change from primary to secondary school and at the procedures which, in this State, accompany the transition, and at the type of organization into which children entering a Comprehensive high school pass, and to look particularly at the organization of this specific Comprehensive high school.

With the abolition of Modern schools and the establishment of Comprehensive high schools for all, there ceased to be any need of a qualifying examination for entry to secondary schools.

However the Comprehensive high school receives students of widely differing abilities and skills and in order to organize efficiently and with the least possible delay curricula and
teaching appropriate to such diverse students it is necessary for schools to have indications of their students' intellectual level and their attainment during the primary school years. This is available, and has been for the past 30 years, in the form of individual records of results of intelligence tests and of standardized tests of skills. The head teacher of the primary school also contributes an assessment of the child's ability based on his knowledge of the child and his success at the school. Armed with this information the secondary school may organize its intake into streams or modify its standards or adapt its curriculum—according to whatever pattern it prefers.

School J has preferred a streaming method. This meets two major purposes: first, the mixing of pupils from different schools and localities; secondly, the creation of fairly homogeneous intellectual groups. The organization of the school is best conveyed by quoting from the Headmaster's report in the Observation Book for 1965. (This is an official annual record of the school's administration.)

1. Though this report is for 1965 (because the 1963 report was not available) the Headmaster states that the same scheme was in practice in 1963, the year of the E class under study.
"Class Groupings"

(a) Streaming:

(1) In "D" Grade, 3 classes follow the Language Course (French), 3 follow the Technical Course, and 3 the Secondary Course. They are selected after considering the IQ, Primary School Record, Lateral Assessment of Standardised Tests by Guidance and Welfare Office, and the recommendation of the Primary School as to potential.

31-6 follow the basic subjects at advanced level.

27-9 follow the Secondary Course in basic subjects, while 29 is a selected group of retarded children with IQ of 35 or less.

(2) In "D" Grade, D1, D2, and D3 follow basic subjects at the two-point level; D4, D5, D6 follow one-point basics, while D7, D8, and D9 are secondary groups. D9 is a selected retarded group.

(3) In "G" Grade, G1, G2, and G3 follow two-point basic subjects, G4, G5, G6 one-point basics, while G7 and G8 are secondary course groups.

Briefly, the basic subjects are organized on a 3-step streaming system with possibility of regrouping in some subjects at the borderline:
Endorsed "A" Setting possible in basics

01, 2, 3

Endorsed "B" Setting possible in basics

04, 5, 6

Secondary

C7, 8

(4) In "B" Grade modified setting is used. B1 and B2 are following mainly two-point basic subjects while B3 is a one-point basic group.

In Mathematics, Social Studies, and English, there are 2 two-point and 2 one-point groups.

In Science there is 1 Science IIA group, 1 Biology group and two Science IIC groups.

Basic subjects are timetabled together in most cases to allow setting. B1 can operate on its own in Mathematics I and Science IIC.

(b) Home Room groups are relatively homogeneous in groups of 2 or 3 classes:

21 Language Non-language

22, 3 23, 5, 6

Secondary C7, 8

Endorsed C9

1. These numbers may vary according to the size and quality of the intake of a particular year.
S1 consists of the best potential students: IQ 110+
S2, 3 average IQ 105+
S3, 5, 6 average IQ 100+
S7, 8 average IQ 90+
S9 average IQ 80+ approximately
S1 contains the best literary, science and mathematics pupils.

The other grades are homogeneous in pairs or threes but are not rigidly streamed in descending order of ability, for example, S2, 3 are not of equal potential, while S4, 5 and 6 are of equal potential at a lower level.

Some degree of heterogeneity is retained in "C" and "G" grades (except D1 and G1) where optional subjects cause regrouping of students.

Slow learning pupils are grouped in special classes in first and second year (S3 and S9) and are taught on the home-room teacher basis, (i.e. by the same teacher for all subjects as was the system in the Primary School. This is intended to give a greater sense of security and less disruption and loss of effective learning).

In third year the weakest secondary students are grouped in C9. Other slow learners follow secondary courses in S7, 6, D7, 8, and C7 with a less degree of specialisation of teachers than in advanced groups.
(c) Accelerated groups are taught on specialist lines. The very brightest are in 51, 61, 71, and 81. Other capable students are grouped heterogeneously in 22, 3, 4, 5, 6, 62, 3, 52, 7, and 82.

(d) By the end of the second year, course adjustments have separated the schools' sound and secondary students quite clearly. After each examination, individual cases are studied and adjustment of course level made in a few cases.

There is some degree of fluidity in change of level in "D" class but during the "C" class year the potential level of each student is well established.

(e) Policy on Promotion

(i) Generally promotion must be earned by an average or points pass.

(ii) Where children fail in several basic subjects, each case is considered individually. Course levels are established, then optional courses offered.

(iii) Course committees under chairmanship of senior masters consider three aspects:

1. Should student repeat the year at the same level.

2. Should student repeat the year at a lower level.
3. Should student proceed to the next year grade at a lower level.

In the case of a student whose age makes repetition of a year undesirable, adjustment is made in the level of the course.

Doubtful cases are promoted on probation and their progress reviewed at each terminal examination.

The student intake has a wide range of ability, but as indicated by graphs made in the annual intake of the past several years, follows a normal curve of distribution.

On enrolment the children are streamed along the outlines previously indicated into classes and also into one of 3 courses:

(a) literary
(b) general
(c) secondary

These all have certain common or core subjects, namely, English, Mathematics, Social Studies, Physical Education, Activities, but differ in the optional subjects offered such as languages, sciences, commercial subjects, technical subjects. The core subjects change a little over the years in conformity with the demands of education, industry, and further education, and the number of options also changes according to pupil demand and ability and timetable organization. In 1953, for
example, the curriculum was described by the Headmaster as follows:

"Curriculum:

The wide range of the curriculum is self-evident from what has already been said. There is a rich intermingling of studies and activities throughout, and the subject areas are not always convenient or desirable as points of reference. But in terms of the subjects studied, the curriculum is made up as follows:

(a) Basic subjects - English Expression, English Literature, Social Studies, Mathematics, Home Arts and Crafts, Agriculture, Physical Training, Religious Education.

(b) Optional subjects - Sciences, Music, Art, Forestry, Business Principles, and Practical Typing and shorthand. Later, options for senior years were added, e.g. Farming, Art of more advanced and varied kind, Motor Mechanics, Leatherwork, additional trades.

(c) Extra-curricular activities, e.g. the "Group Interest Scheme" (special activities such as Music Lovers, Dram, Junior Rangers, Archery, Pigeon Fanciers). School Councillors modelled on the Administrative
pattern of the city with its mayor and
Councilors later introduced and still functions."

In later years certain options have been restricted to
specific courses and levels of ability, or are introduced on
examination success, as the pupil progresses through the school
classes, and the re-establishment in 1963 of external examinations
for 4th year pupils brought back attention to examinations which,
because of the possibility of engendering tension, had previously
been reduced as far as possible.

School C draws its population from, chiefly, the districts
of Northern Launceston. These contain both city schools serving
residential and industrial areas and semi-rural schools situated
on the rural borders of the city and taking some children from
the country. There are also some students coming from more
remote country districts; but in 1963, at the time of the
study, such country students were fewer since there were not
then available the present hostel facilities. The numbers
of children coming from the city and semi-rural schools in
1963 were roughly in the proportions of 14 : 5, with three city
and three semi-rural schools involved.

The area served by the school samples fairly representatively
the full range of socio-economic levels of the Launceston area
and its close hinterland, except probably the small highly
professional and executive groups — the children of many of whom would in any case attend independent schools. However, the socio-economic classes adequately represented range from the managerial and self-employed levels down to unskilled city and farm labourer level.

One of the earliest settlers in the area was Captain Lathow Friend, a retired English Naval Captain, who in 1853 built the fine colonial home which is the heart of the estate that constitutes the campus of School C. Other wealthy citizens also made their homes on large parcels of land in this same area. Early in the growth of Launceston the land nearer the city became a "working class" suburb settled fairly closely round a few earlier large well-to-do houses and the outer urban area became an upper-working-class residential area grading off again into large estates and farms. More recently, following the second World War, a migrant hostel was set up in one part of these outer suburbs and two large Government Housing Estates built on the rural fringe.

One of the two primary schools serves the outer working-class suburb, the migrant area and part of the lower working-class area, the other draws its pupils from one of the Housing Estates and the outer reaches of the working-class suburb on one hand, and the rural area on the other. The secondary school in turn serves the same areas as both these schools.
1. The two primary schools were considered to tap fairly representatively the whole district feeding into the secondary school.

2. The district was chosen as being itself fairly typical of the State as a whole. It had both urban and rural components, was not highly selective in socio-economic classes and the schools avoided any uniqueness that might attach to similar schools which were in a capital city.

3. The ratio of rural to urban children in the study group corresponded roughly with the ratio for the total population for School C.

4. Distribution of the subjects in the secondary school classes followed much the same ratio as for all the B class pupils, and so (in spite of the imposed limitation that only children who had a one-primary-school history should be subjects in this study) followed a normal curve distribution for potential and streaming.
CHAPTER VII

The Materials

Selection of the tests
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Outline of Analysis

The Check List

The Rogers' Test of Personality Adjustment

The Michigan Picture Story Test

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CHAPTER VII

(a) Selection of the Tests

The study is an attempt to ascertain the self-picture, attitudes, relationships of a group of young people; to look for a moment at their stage in the developmental process with a view to seeing what, if anything, is common to the group and how the individuals within the group differ. It is primarily an attempt to present the picture the child has of himself but it must be recognized that a child has available, as has any individual, only a limited number of facets or ideas about himself. There are other, deeper levels of personality which influence his behaviour - needs perhaps not really formulated or which he may not be able to admit even to himself. There are attitudes which he has not incorporated into his cognized picture of himself and which may be revealed only through the medium of projection onto, or identification with other individuals whom he views as separate from himself, in the same way that a young child uses the imaginary companion as an externalization of those parts and ideas of himself which he is as yet unable to integrate into and accept as part of his self. The data presented about the self image is therefore intended to show the child as he consciously admits himself to
be and as he probably may be as suggested through projective material. Mckinnon (1949) briefly expresses the difficulty implicit in this situation of trying to discover features of both the conscious and the unconscious self, as follows:

"And so it is that we have traditionally two kinds of diagnostic tests — on the one hand, tests that reveal (of course, with large probable error) what a person has done, how he has felt and now feels, what he has thought and now thinks, in short the person as a phenotype; and on the other hand, tests that reveal what we have been wont to call the underlying dynamics of a person, in other words, the person as a genotype. But between the two there has been a tremendous gulf to be bridged .... we have not yet discovered the formula which will enable us to move from one to the other."

Three measures are used in this study to get the data, namely a Check List, Rogers' Test of Personal Adjustment, and the Michigan Picture Story Test. Why are these measures chosen? They offer different degrees of directiveness of approach — the first is quite direct, the second considerably less so, and the third is projective and indirect. The first may be expected to get at overt behaviour and symptoms of maladjustment; the others should lead to less conscious motivations, evaluations, explanations, dynamics. Together
they may provide "self" material ranging from the subjective conscious evaluations of his self in his unique phenomenological field to assumptions made by the observer about conscious or unconscious, unformulated, nebulous, or denied elements of the subject's self or behaviour - "behaviour is self" (Koustakas, in Hathaway, 1965, p.44), 1956 - and to arbitrarily categorised and numerically summed dimensions of the self derived from the manifest content of the tests.

But there is argument as to how valuable or even justifiable it is to attempt to explore notions about the self by such different measures. Can anyone other than the subject himself expect to know his unique self and explain his, at the time, apparently unpredictable and inexplicable behaviour? But then, can the subject be expected to be truly insightful or to be able and willing to reveal his self in direct self-evaluations? "A self threatened by its perceptions may deny the perceptions" (Snygg and Combs, 1949, p.14). Brewster Smith (1950) takes up the issue of combining or attempting to combine the objective-observer and the phenomenological approaches to personality assessment. "The phenomenological approach, the clinical interview, the projective protocol, the behaviour observation - none of these yield direct knowledge of psychological constructs, subjective or objective, while all of them can provide the basis
for inferring explanatory constructs and their relationships.

Methods that get the subject to reveal his private world as he sees it need to be supplemented by others which permit the observer to infer effective factors that are distorted or disguised in the subject's awareness.\(^{(p.51,q)}\)

Snygg (1941) points out that when behaviour is to be studied, "it must be observed from one of two distinct points of view. It may be studied objectively, as by an outside observer; or it may be studied phenomenologically, from the point of view of the behaving organism itself." These two methods of observation - the objective and the phenomenological approaches - may produce material which is non-identical and even contradictory. The Rogers' Test and the Check List test may be regarded as a means to get at, primarily, the phenomenological viewpoint - the subject rates himself as he sees himself; the Michigan Picture Story Test is used as a means to get at some of the things which the subject cannot necessarily tell about himself, but which an observer may infer from the data given in the stories.

Snygg sees attempts to combine material facts derived from these two frames of reference as undesirable and dangerous because he considers that a system attempting to combine the facts "leads into a multiplicity of conflicting laws and
concepts or into the postulation of loci of action inaccessible to observation," and in either case accurate prediction of behaviour becomes impossible.

Getzels and Walsh (1950) consider that most behaviour studies do and should include some concept of depth of reactions. They consider that a response to direct procedures such as Check Lists is valid at "its own level of reaction ... [it] represents the level of behaviour at which the individual permits society to look at him — it is the expressed reaction." However, in responding to projective material the subject is not aware that what he says refers to himself, that he may be applying value judgments, and that he is attributing to others behaviour which he might be disposed to distort or censor if he were attributing it to himself. Therefore Getzels and Walsh feel that it is desirable to elicit both direct and "top level" responses and projective on "deeper-level" responses from the same subject, so that the responses may be compared objectively.

"One of the problems of self-report inventories is that their purpose is too obvious, and consequently they are easily falsified. A common characteristic of projective techniques, in contrast to inventories, is that their purpose is disguised and the subject does not easily comprehend the way in which
his response will be utilized and interpreted" (Kleinman, 1967, p. 261).

David and Milden (1950) also consider two approaches to the assessment of personality which they categorize as
(a) the straightforward evaluation of behaviour as observed through external appraisal and reported introspection, and
(b) the psychoanalytic approach, as exemplified in projective techniques, which stresses human irrationality and determinism and emphasizes unconscious instinctual motivations and the influence of early childhood learning experiences. Like Snygg (1941) they point out that material obtained from these two approaches often results in contradiction, from which follows the query: Are projective and direct techniques both making essentially the same appraisal of the normal individual, or should they be regarded as measuring two different aspects or levels of personality? Allport (1953) considers that the separation of material obtained from direct and projective measures is unreasonable and asserts that both techniques reveal the same information about the motives of, at least, the normal well-adjusted personality. Gylle (1961) thinks one should expect discrepancies between the material obtained from introspection and from projective techniques since "because of theoretical reasons one might expect that important
characteristics of the subject and his relation with his environment would be unavailable to his phenomenological field. Theorists point out that much learning occurs pre-verbally, and the need to maintain self-esteem will lead to repression and denial" (pp. 250-251).

Nor will only the need to maintain self-esteem lead to difficulty in getting at repressed and denied material. Sanford et al. (1943) accounting for differences between needs reflected in overt behaviour and those which are not shown in overt behaviour but revealed strongly on projective tests such as the CAT, suggest that this difference between the two sorts of material could be due to the functioning of cultural prohibition or internal conflict which, by preventing their overt expression, increase their intensity in the subject's fantasy. It has also been suggested that motives that are culturally encouraged are "likely to be as strong in their overt as in their covert manifestations, while motives that are culturally discouraged are apt to show little or no relationship between the strength of fantasy and overt expression" (Losser, 1957; p.xn). There is, therefore, some explanation of why some needs expressed in projective material reach expression in overt behaviour while others do not.

Wylie (1961) concludes that "It is obvious that the phenomenal self, at least as measured by currently used
instruments, is far from providing a sufficient basis for accurate predictions of subjects’ behaviours .... Instruments which purport to measure the phenomenal field will provide an incomplete inventory of relevant variables, no matter how highly perfected they may become for the purpose of measuring the phenomenal field” (p. 250).

Allport, in spite of his lack of regard for the usefulness of projective tests with normal individuals, does think that projective tests add to phenomenological data in the case of the neurotic "those motives are repressed and displaced by fears and hostilities," and for whom "projective materials are best able to elicit repressed material" [so that] "information is obtained which is contradictory to conscious reports" (Davids and Alther, p. 2). But Davids and Alther (1953) commenting on results of studies they have made, state that intercorrelations were lowest between projective and direct measures and conclude: "It was readily apparent that personality appraisal is to be based on both direct and projective measures if maximum validity is to be achieved. Projective assessment methods, in addition to providing a largely fool-proof means of detecting attempted distortion, are able to eliminate critical errors of personality which often obviate direct measures .... projective assessment techniques can contribute a great deal more to the study of
normal personality than Allport seems willing to admit and should not be restricted to the study of neurotic and distorted persons."

These seem sufficient evidence and reason for including a measure other than those which are more direct and aimed more particularly at discovery of the phenomenological self.

The need to get at underlying dynamics or levels of the personality is generally agreed: the argument is as to whether the projective test will contribute the repressed or denied or unrecognized material, or add anything valuable, justifiable and capable of validation to the self-picture. Opinions on this are so diverse as to range from Vernon's (1964) claim that projective tests "are the psychologist's X-ray apparatus for penetrating beneath the facades and barriers to the deeper needs and dynamic forces of the personality," to Eysenck's statement that "they are little more than a vehicle for the clinician's imagination to run riot. They are based on muddled theorising, and all scientifically conducted attempts to demonstrate their validity have yielded almost negative results."

Vygotsky questions whether unconscious attitude towards the self is what a projective test reveals. "If one is to say that a certain projective response or score represents an unconscious
attitude towards the self, one must prove not only that the
subject holds this attitude but that he is unaware of it.
At least one should check to see whether the same attitude
might be consciously present, as inferred from self-report.
If the inferences from the self-report and the projective measures
differ, one may then have grounds for exploring the more complex
assumption that the projective measure is revealing an
unconscious self-attitude." But actually it is not important,
at least in this study, to decide whether what is revealed
is unconscious or simply withheld. The important point is
that there may be differences between the inferences drawn
from self-report and those drawn from projective material.
Davids (1955) comparing the three methods of personality
assessment – direct, indirect, and projective – also found
that there were differences between the material from the
three sources and concluded that this substantiated the idea
that the validity of phenomenal self-concept measures may be
impaired by the subject's view of the purpose of the invest-
igation. Some differences between such sets of data and
inferences may occur, then, not because the projective measure
is getting at attitudes of which the subject is unaware, but
because it is getting at material of which the subject is
aware but in such a way that he is not aware that it is being
got at. That is, the emphasis can be placed, as it is by Allport (1953) and Kurestein (1956) on unwillingness rather than unconsciousness on the part of the subject. A number of other researchers, e.g. Scodel and Lipetz (1957), Wirt (1956), Fader (1957), Clark (1952), offers to support this view. Kurestein based his opinion on the results of his investigations (1956) into "response-set" and he considered that willingness and response-set were more important with sophisticated subjects, for whom, consequently, even projective tests may be relatively inefficacious. One can reasonably claim little sophisticated in the subjects of this study, and may therefore expect their disclosure of material through projective tests to be little affected by inhibitive response-set.

In line with Allport's support for the use of projective techniques with the neurotic, it might well be argued that the pre-adolescent and the young adolescent can be said to be at a "neurotic" phase in their development. They are at a time of disruption of physical processes and of relearning and adjusting to new inner and outer demands: they are passing through a stage of "weaning" from the breast of the family - a process which recapitulates in social if not physical terms, according to some psychoanalytic thought, the problems and maladjustments of weaning and toilet training and of those
early years from which are said to arise the psychoses.

Therefore the Michigan Picture Story Test has been included as a measure in the belief that it will reveal both material from the unconscious and also some of the inadmissable, denied or concealed attitudes, relationships, feelings and ideas about the self which might be said to constitute a self-behind-the-self not easily or perhaps at all reached by direct and phenomenological measures.

Since on the Michigan Picture Story Test the subject is not asked to make statements about himself, it may be assumed that he will be freer to admit to conscious but derogatory ideas that he may consciously conceal on the Rogers' and the Check List. He is offered a possibility of logical detachment not unlike that which an uncomfortable interviewee attains by scribbling and doodling - activities which free him from direct confrontation by the interviewer. "Since he is under less constraint of conventionality or reality, his responses are more likely to depict his inner feelings" (Solanki, 1953, p. 195).

There will be no attempt to validate statistically the findings on the two types of techniques against one another - a lack which has been deplored in other studies also (Nielie, 1961, p. 238 & p. 274) - in an attempt to prove the greater
validity of either one. As Setzele (1958) points out, each of these sorts of responses is valid at its own level of reaction; .... "the response to the direct instrument should in fact approximate what has been called the expressed reaction and the response to the projective instrument has been called the personal hypothesis" in which the subject reveals levels of behavior he might otherwise be disposed to distort or conceal. As to what level of personality is being tapped by the projective test "clinical psychologists have .... differed. These differences have depended primarily on the training of the individual psychologist, and his willingness to accept particular hypotheses concerning relationships between overt expression and underlying motivation" (Setzele, 1958, p. 13).

Another criticism associated with the use of projective techniques concerns the degree of certainty with which the hero or some other identification figure can be taken as projecting the subject's own relationships, attitudes, feelings, etc. Lindsey (1952) makes the argument that one may not be justified in assuming that there is only one identification figure - the hero - or even in assuming that one can correctly identify the hero. To conclude after examination of evidence from his own studies that "although the feasibility of the
identification assumption cannot be clearly demonstrated at present ... empirical evidence suggests that identification figures can be established with reasonable reliability" (p. 8). Further he holds that, in spite of the lack of empirical evidence that recurrent themes in a series of stories are particularly likely to mirror the impulses and conflicts of the story-teller, this is probably true on rational grounds. "The presence of the same theme even when the stimulus situation has been thoroughly altered implies strongly that there are impelling forces within the individual creating these themes rather than their being the inevitable outcome of stimulus constraints" (p. 13). "In general, then, this assumption seems to have been accepted consistently by most projective testers although there is little or no direct evidence demonstrating its utility. However there are a number of rational considerations which support such an assumption."

A further assumption relevant to this investigation is that story projective material reflects group-membership, cultural or social determinants as well as personal or individual determinants. Lindsey (1952) believes that from projective tests we get at the contemporary patterns of the subject's social behaviour and may be able to infer the genesis of these patterns. He finds little conclusive
evidence on this score but "that evidence is available appears to support the assumption." Therefore, failure to take into account the influence of factors such as culture, social milieu, sex differences, or subjects could introduce a source of serious error in deriving conclusions about them as a group. By restricting the selection of the subjects of this investigation in the ways described in Chapter VI the likelihood of this type of error was recognized and attempts were made to eliminate its occurrence.

Whatever the level of personality tapped, a projective test has a useful place in the study - perhaps to add something new, perhaps to affirm something already indicated by another measure. "If we accept the hypothesis of determinism of psychological behaviour, it follows that deductions concerning the personality of an individual can be based on any kind of performance .... Similarly nearly any test can be analysed for a great many different aspects, and since each dimension is a function of the testee's personality, one is bound to have some results" (Bellak, 1950, p. 190).

So in spite of the conflicting arguments about the validity of the claim that projective measures get at the "unconscious self-concept," about which character in the story-projections represents the subject and presents his
attitudes and self-ideas, about contradictions and repetitions in the material obtained, the Michigan Picture Story Test (MPST) was included in the measures used in the study. Stated briefly it was included primarily for the following reasons:

1. The MPST does present provocative stimuli – situations very much of the stuff of the lives of the subjects, but allowing them to move, if they wish, outside the range prescribed by the very structure of the Rogers' Test and the Check List.

2. It does permit a degree of detachment from the immediate obvious attention of the subject to himself.

3. Whether the subject is conscious or not, intending or not, that the attitudes and so on that he is expressing are true for himself, they have to be formulated from the background of his own experiences and therefore present ideas (attitudes, relationships, feelings, outcomes, wishes, etc.) that to him seem appropriate to the situations, or desirable, or expectable, or expected. In other words, they illuminate his "system of central meanings" (Broomfield, 1952, p. 547) against which he makes his evaluations.

"Assessment of conscious and unconscious aspects of the self seem necessary for a complete understanding of the self-concept. Projective techniques may be of value in eliciting certain aspects of the self-concept which are unobtainable
by other techniques .... But while it is possible and advisable to depend on a phenomenal approach, it is risky and insufficient to depend only on non-phenomenal approaches" (Jahoda, 1967, p. 239).

The basis of Snygg's (1941) resistance to mixing phenomenological data and objective systems' data is that uncertainty of prediction results. However, he admits that such a mixture is suitable for explanation in retrospect.

Further, it is also true that once one talks in terms of a group one is having less regard to individual differences, to the uniqueness of phenomenological fields, and so the chance of error in prediction for separate individuals is increased. In a study such as this which is primarily descriptive there is something of the nature of an explanation in retrospect.

There has also been an endeavour to keep in attention the fact that what has been said of the group need not be true of each of its individuals, and that while a group may over a period of time yield an unchanged norm, separate individuals within it may have changed markedly.

Snygg's approach is that of the clinician: he is concerned with the unique individual. "This knowledge of what "most people," "the average individual," or "the typical three-year-old" is most likely to do in a given situation "other things being equal," is of little value to the applied worker, the
clinical psychologist, or the classroom teacher who must predict and control the specific behaviour of particular individuals" (Jay, 1941, p. 409). This is only one way of looking at the classroom situation and the educator's or clinician's task. He must also work with groups and think in terms of the optimal good. Much of what is planned in schools and other social situations must be planned in relation to the group and to what best suits the group rather than to what best suits the individual, even though the desirability of catering for the individual is recognised. So if it is possible to discover what helps for the group or for the majority of its members at given times, then it is surely reasonable to predict majority needs and to plan to meet them.

So group pictures have been drawn, individual differences have been considered, material from the phenomenological field and from objective systems have been used, and a description of the past and the possibility of prediction both offered.
(b) The Tests Chosen

A detailed discussion of each of the three tests in relation to the study follows:

1. **The Check List** (based on the Looney Problem Check List)

   (a) General discussion: The problems of The Check List used in the study were selected and adapted from the items of the Junior High School form of the Looney Check List which was itself composed from counselling interviews and from lists of problems elicited from approximately 4000 high school students (Looney and Gordon, 1950). This Check List uses the same problem areas but exemplifies them more briefly and in language appropriate to the local culture.

   The list contains an equal number of questions, namely twenty (20), in each of seven (7) areas which, together with their letter designations, are:

   I Health and Physical Development (10)
   II School (3)
   III Home and Family (12)
   IV Money, Work, and Future (13)
   V Boy and Girl Relations (2)
   VI Relations to People in General (10)
   VII Self-centred Concerns (2)

   Selection of items was, as in the original Check List, on
The Check List is the most obvious and direct of the three measures used. Its approach is more direct than that of Rogers' Test in that there is no displacement of the subject's attention from himself to the "pattern-child" and no searching out of his adjustment via the indirect paths of his wishes, his job aspirations, his fantasies about desert islands. There is no attempt to disguise its intention. It requires conscious recognition by the subject of his problems. "In this sense, it relies almost completely on the examinee's motivation and willingness to co-operate in a forthright manner" (Reisman, 1957, p. 107).

The only alleviation of the strict alternative-response answering is the opportunity to indicate, by circling it, the most important problem in each area. There is no provision for indicating the intensity any problem has for a subject and no common standard by which one may compare the relative intensities of a problem for various subjects. It is possible that the "good" child may be ever-scrupulous to be honest and in his striving and by rating no problems things which have caused, or are causing him no more than slight growing concern. This means that the list permitted no more than a survey of the incidence of recognized or
admitted problems. The usefulness of the list obviously depends not only on the subject's motivation and willingness but also on his having a degree of insight and intelligence sufficient for him to be able to formulate his anxieties in words. Because of certain features of the measure such as its directness and its dependence on reading skill, and because of the desirability of getting spontaneous reports, some specific administrative conditions were set up.

(b) Administration:

1. The Check List was administered in class groups and on the same day to all the children in the final year of the two primary schools, and in the following year to all in the first year of the secondary school, without regard to whether or not they were subjects in the study. Inclusion of all pupils in the classes was made to avoid as far as possible adverse reactions that might arise from fear or hostility if the subjects felt they were being singled out for self-criticism.

2. Instructions and procedures included assurances that the list would not be used as a selection or grading measure for secondary school and that the results would be confidential.

3. To mitigate difficulties arising from reading
inadequate, to keep responses as spontaneous as possible, and to prevent discussion among the children, the questions were read aloud to the groups by the investigator and marked by the children as the reading proceeded. At the end of the session a short time was allowed for checking back where subjects thought they needed help.

(c) Analysis:

Analysis of the problems was made first according to areas as set out in the original format of the list. But it was apparent that there were clusters or constellations of items which transversed the limits of these areas and that considering these items together could add valuably to the analysis. That such a regrouping of items might be desirable or necessary arises partly from the fact that some items are apparently related to two or more classifications, though listed under only one area (Mooney and Cordon, 1930, p. 4).

It was expected that there might be changes in problems or areas of problems common to the whole group, and changes specific to individuals. Changes in the patterns of individuals are considered according to the notion of shift (see p. 183).

2. The Rogers' Test of Personal Adjustment

(a) General discussion: The Rogers' Test is neither
direct nor projective. It is more subtle than the Check List and less disguised than the Michigan Picture Story Test. Its situations are structured and restricted for the subject but open to inference for the observer. It uses an evaluative approach, and self-evaluation yields samples of the self-picture since, "when an individual is assigned the task of evaluating himself, whatever the method of his evaluation, he inevitably makes reference to a system of central meanings that he has about himself and his relations to the world about him which we call the self-concept. Every evaluative statement a person makes about himself may be thought of as a sample of his self-concept from which may be inferred certain properties of that self-concept" (Bumtalin, 1952,p.47). The approach therefore is a subjective or phenomenological one. The data springs from the subject himself and are the outcome of his own insight, the revelation that he permits himself to make for public consumption. The facts that he gives are not necessarily the facts as they are seen by the onlooker nor do they necessarily express in their manifest content the way in which the subject really sees himself. They may be part of a camouflage, features of a self which he is prepared to present to other people or wishes other people to accept as his real self, but which he himself does not consistently
hold to be true for himself. "When we use an inventory to
measure a person's ideas about himself as he thinks he really
is, or to measure his ideas concerning his ideal self - the
kind of person he thinks he ought to be - we cannot be sure
to what extent one or the other account reflects unrecognized
elements of an idealised image of self .... Neither can
we know without deeper enquiry to what extent a person is
revealing aspects of his inner life which he consciously
recognizes but is unwilling to disclose" (Jersild, 1950, p.125).
That ignoring, distorting, and denying of perceptions may be
done by the subject in order to maintain or enhance his
current self-structure is a tenet in Rogers' theory of the
development of the self concept. "In some instances the
denial of the perception is rather conscious .... There is
however an even more significant type of denial .... In this
instance, it would appear that there is the organic experience
but there is no symbolization of this experience, or only
a distorted symbolization, because an adequate conscious
representation of it would be entirely inconsistent with
the concept of the self .... The individual may deny experiences
to awareness without ever having been conscious of them"
(Rogers, 1951, p. 505). What results as the structure of
the self or the self-concept is "an organized configuration
of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness .... either as figure or ground .... and the self-in-relationship, together with the positive and negative values which are associated with those qualities and relationships, as they are perceived as existing in the past, present, or future" (Rogers, 1951, p. 501).

Whether we call this approach phenomenological in the terms of Shygg and Combs (1950) or subjective in the terms of Brewster Smith (1950), the field of Rogers' test is the individual's conscious experience and perceptions. The field of conscious experience "provides certain kinds of data, not all the data. It furnishes the basis for certain valuable constructs; it does not give birth to them in full concreteness .... the psychologist, theorist, or clinician must infer the answers" (Brewster Smith, 1950, p.518). Rogers does not deny the existence of material not currently in the phenomenological field (or at least not currently differentiated out of it) and in using "the method of indirect questioning" as far as possible in the test (Rogers, 1951, p. 9), he does allow for, and expect the examiner to draw inferences.

There are, then, both problems and advantages in using Rogers' Test. Rogers felt that he faced and successfully dealt with the problem of camouflage and self-deception while
still operating within the phenomenological field of conscious experience and causation. When constructing the test, he himself queried: "With a test of personal attitudes, how can it be proved that it is measuring what it is claimed to measure?" His reply was that in the case of the group used to establish the test "the completeness of the social history on each case, and the possibility of obtaining disinterested opinion entered in. If a child's responses to a test indicated that he felt unhappy in his play-life, that he had no good friends, and that he preferred solitary fun, these attitudes could be checked. Judgments could also be obtained from the psychologist, the psychiatrist, and the social worker who had studied him, as to what was the child's real attitude. His test responses, in other words, could be checked against fairly satisfactory criteria" (Rogers, 1931, pp. 4-5).

(In this study, the check list may be regarded as providing something of a check on the subject's responses to the Rogers' test; the Michigan picture story test cannot properly be regarded as providing a check since it is being assumed, in accordance with opinions held by eminent researchers, that the projective test is likely to provide contradictory but valid measures of the self springing from less conscious levels of self-recognition.)
Further, Rogers recognized that the answers given by the children would not necessarily truly reflect the child's attitudes. In fact his test was designed to get at discrepancies between the child's stated attitude or self-report, and the genuine underlying attitude or idea of the self. "Judging from experiences with children it seemed more than probable that some of them would not even try to tell the truth but would definitely attempt to mislead the examiner as they would also do in an interview. Such children would be likely to paint themselves as "good" children or would wish to impress the examiner by their "badness" (Rogers, 1931, p. 9). So the test was designed in such a way that direct reporting was to some degree avoided or disguised. As Rogers points out "few people will give truthful answers when directly questioned about their feelings and so indirectness was essential" (Rogers, 1931, p. 3). Questions were organized in such a way that the truth about a child's underlying attitudes or feelings could be supplied by the observers putting together two or more separate responses made by the child. For example, in one place the child is asked to say how many friends he has, and in another place he is asked how many friends he would like to have. The discrepancy between these two replies enables the observer to deduce whether the
child is unhappy or happy about the size of the circle of friends without the subject being required to face directly this revelation of his self.

There are other possible deficiencies in self-rating scales such as their susceptibility to faking, biased answers, restriction and depersonalization of responses. Surrstein (1953) considers a self-rating scale no more open to criticism on the score of faking than a projective technique since the subject's co-operation and his wish to maintain face can effectively influence the material given on projective tests. Davids and Milner (1950), however, think projective tests are not really so susceptible to faking as more direct tests, or at least that the faking has different results since subjects attempting to fake on projective tests reveal their defensiveness; even restriction of responses can reveal personality defenses.

In reply to the critics who questionnaires permit self-deception, that they are affected by unwillingness, yield biased answers, and do not allow for differences between subjects in levels of awareness, Milio (1954, pp. 164-5) aligning himself with Staines (1954), claims that "there is a high degree of stability in that which the subject consciously maintains concerning the self and it is this conscious
motivational pattern which the questionnaire investigates. It is the nature of the response consciously given in relation to the circumstances prevailing at the time of questioning that is of value rather than speculation concerning its truth. Indeed no response would be without "truth" in the sense that it is what the subject is consciously able to admit to himself. We have been too ready in the past to emphasise the unconscious springs of motivation and to ignore the motivational force of conscious self-knowledge." Millie's argument seems rather to overlook the case of the subject who admits certain facts to himself but lies to the observer because he does not wish to co-operate.

Mcleod (1951) points out "the self and the world organize each other or, better stated, become organized together. And it is this coming together of the objective and the subjective (the interaction of external and internal factors) which constitutes the frame of reference of the ensuing reaction which is expressed in the rating made on a self-rating scale. But the evaluations made on a self-rating scale are subject to the defenses of the self. Frenkel-BrunswicK (1959) found the defenses of the self so strong that her subjects would omit, justify or completely reverse facts in reporting their own shortcomings: other subjects would not desert objectivity. In all these cases the behaviour was related to the nature
of the self-picture. "The self-picture is influential in selecting the content of memory and the individual behaves in a manner not only to maintain his self-picture but to enhance it" (Wilkie, 1962, p. 62).

"One of the most common criticisms heard from any subject taking almost any popular personality inventory is that 'so many of the items seem ambiguous'" (Goldberg, 1963, p. 467). A second frequent criticism is that the subject felt that his responses would have differed when answering the inventory on another occasion. This latter protest may reflect only the instability of the subject's feelings about himself or may be related to the first criticism in that the item was so ambiguous as to leave the subject uncertain as to how he should respond. A third and allied problem is that of making a decision when the subject feels that he falls near the borderline between "yes" and "no" for a dichotomous-choice item, or when the response provisions do not allow for an underlying continuum in the attribute being checked.

Rogers' Test of Personal Adjustment, in Section Four where personal attributes have to be rated, seems to have avoided fairly successfully these problems. The child is not asked to make abstract judgments but is given a stereotype which exemplifies precisely the attribute to be checked and provides a down-to-earth objective criterion against which the subject
is to evaluate himself. He is also provided with a
“meaningful” continuum along which to rate himself. These
two factors avoid the ambiguity and unserving openness of
such questions as “Are you good at...,” where “being
good at” something is a matter of personal unique definition,
and frees the subject from the usually over-limiting response
pattern of “yes” or “no” or the too-great freedom where
the answer is left completely open. Where there is no
continuum, as there is in the 10-point-ladder items of
section four, the subject is given nevertheless a range of
fairly unambiguously defined possibilities from which to
select an answer. He is therefore helped to structure
the situation in terms common to both himself and the
observer, and he is allowed to rate himself in degree
rather than in simple but limiting positive and negative
terms.

In addition, the stereotypes of section four possibly
help to induce some degree of detachment or self-objectivity
for the child. Though he is requested to answer about
himself, this self about which he is speaking has to be
rather objectively lined up alongside another self,
that of the stereotype who is by reason of the formulation
of the question a sort of group norm. 1

In Section Five of Rogers' test the questions are much more direct than in any other part of the test, "but multiple choice is allowed and also "certain pairs of questions should, however, be noted .... [they] are significant both in themselves and when compared to the other member of the pair" (Rogers, 1931, p. 18).

For the test as a whole Rogers claims (1931, p. 18) that "it resembles most of all an interview with the child. It takes questions such as a skilled clinician would ask and puts them in such a form that they can be answered by marking the paper rather than by an oral response." The operative word is, presumably, "skilled" and a skilled clinician avoids - usually - provoking a biased, deliberately untrue, or hostile response from the subject. The skilled clinician's approach, especially in the case of Rogers, the master of the non-directive or client-centered approach, is more subtle than direct.

1. This use of a stereotype is not unlike techniques employed by Getzels and Salah (1958). Getzels and Salah wanted to be able to compare responses to direct procedures with responses to projective instruments in relation to the same object. They asked their subjects to answer direct questions on the questionnaire relating to the same object as in the projective material. The projective material consisted of sets of incomplete sentences given in the third person. The stereotype in Section Four of Rogers' produces something of the same detachment as the use of the third person in Getzels' and Salah's study.
Wilkie (1962, p. 106) describes Rogers' test as an attempt to get an all-round view of the self based upon a sampling of the protocols of cases, and says: "It appears to be the first adequate analysis of the self known," and Ammett (1959, p. 141) describes Rogers' scale as "the sole attempt [to date] to gather data on a global view of the self." However, Ammett is somewhat critical of the construction of Rogers' test in that he considers it was not planned on a systematic theoretical basis but rather is a random sampling of the protocols of therapy cases. Ammett wanted also to construct a rating scale which contained a "selection of items which were typical responses to various aspects of the self and which had been made or could be made by children." He felt that the Rogers' test did not have sufficient items to cover adequately the global view of the self, and seemed doubtful that its items were typical of children's thinking about their selves. But, in fact, Rogers' test items were derived from therapy sessions with children, from their own comments, expressed needs and wishes, and so were related to those aspects of the self that the children had indicated as important to them. "In looking for the material for the test, it was found that the greatest help came from the interviewing techniques used with children.
by psychologists and psychiatrists. These clinicians are daily making estimates of the extent and areas of maladjustment in individuals. It was felt that a sound basic for a test would be made by systematising and putting into test form many of the questions which are ordinarily used in clinical work to get at the causes and motives of bad behaviour" (Rogers, 1931, p. 7). Other researchers such as Jersild (1952), Staines (1954), Gillie (1962), and Emmett (1959), have preferred to use children's own compositions from which to call and categorise items and attitudes.

(b) Administration:

The test was administered on the same day and in the same way as the Check List. That is, it was done by whole groups who followed the reading of the test by the examiner and marked the items as the reading proceeded. Help was given if a subject asked for it, and it was apparent that answering the test was not without difficulties for the subjects. In some items the exact nature of the question is clouded by introduction of more than one attribute or criterion, for example items 1 and 2 of Section four for boys. Some children tended to be confused over the use of the extreme ends of the 10-point ladder in Section 4,
perhaps due to the fact that the words "yes" and "no"
already occupied those final squares, and since it seemed
highly probable that some children regarded the ladder as
having only eight useful squares, it became necessary to
treat the first two and the last two squares as extremes.
Several children stated that they found it difficult - even
impossible - to rate choices in Section Two in the order
first, second and third. They were unable to solve tied
ratings. Thirdly, there is no proof that some answers are
not faked answers though the method of administration was
thought to reduce the possibility of faking.

(c) Analysis:

In this research it was felt that certain sections
of Rogers' test were, alone, sufficient to yield the sort
of data required. The material was not always treated in
the original divisions and sequences as set out by Rogers.
The idea of comparing responses and drawing inferences, as
recommended by Rogers himself, was often responsible for
this. Only certain sections of the test were analysed,
that is Sections Two, Four, and Five, Section Four being
especially required because in it "the individual rates
first himself and then his ideal as to certain traits and
qualities" (Rogers, 1931, p. 12).
No use was made of the norms supplied by Rogers. It was not the design of this study to measure maladjustment, as was the intention of Rogers. Rogers wanted to create a test whose "purpose" would be to measure roughly "the satisfactoriness of a child's adjustment," and to do this by "attempting to estimate items which are largely subjective, intangibles" (p. 6). Interest in this study lay not in comparing the Tasmanian group with an American group of children by using American norms, nor with estimating the maladjustment of the children involved but in arriving at some estimate of the self-picture which, in Rogers' study (1931) was the "norm" against which he measured the psychological deviation of his subjects. There has been some adverse criticism of the validity of Rogers' norms. Durchinal, Gardner, and Hawkes (1958) criticized the percentages of children at various adjustment levels used by Rogers, and L. Smith (1958, p. 1) questioned "the feasibility of arithmetically combining scores on each part [of Rogers'] test into a total common score," because he considered that there was a lack of relationship between the various sections of the test. In the analysis of the relationships between aspects of Rogers' test he found practically zero correlation: "the individual who scores high on one scale does not necessarily
score high or low on any of the other three scales."

He considered that the test could make a valuable contribution to case study but that in differentiating adjustment groups it was neither adequate nor satisfactory: "in selecting, say, the maladjusted group one would include too many falsely classified subjects." So in this study the test has been used simply as a source of ideas about the child's picture of himself, his attitudes and relationships, with responses being taken from different parts of the test and used to supplement, illuminate or modify responses from other parts of the test, or from other tests. For example, a boy's notion of his physical adequacy can be drawn from item 1 of Section Four and item 3 of Section Five; they can be matched with his anxiety or lack of it over items of physical health and strength on the Check List.

3. The Michigan Picture Story Test

(a) General discussion: The Michigan Picture Story Test consists of 16 TAT-like pictures for children aged about 8 to 14 years.

[It] "has been called 'the most systematically and solidly constructed thematic apperception test' since the Thematic Apperception Test, and it has been especially commended for its careful design, good standardisation, adequate norms,
and careful cross-validation. Yet from a strict psychometric point of view, evidence for its validity are still too meagre to warrant its use" (Inclanutz, 1967, p. 323).

There is currently much discussion of and difference of opinion over apperceptive methods, the way in which they work, the importance of variables affecting them, and the validity of predicting behaviour or deducing motivations from them. Much of this centres round the nature and effect on the subject of the stimulus cards. Kenny (1961), in a paper given at the Conference on Contemporary Issues in Thematic Apperception, postulates two primary problems. The first involves the relevance of the stimulus properties of the pictures in the determination of the thematic stories. The second and general problem concerns the level of personality functioning reflected in thematic apperceptive stories.

"There appears to be, at the present, no agreement between writers as to what level of personality functioning is tapped by thematic apperceptions techniques" (Kenny, 1961, p. 239).

Early in the use of thematic apperceptive method unstructuredness (vagueness and lack of unity in the physical content of the picture) and ambiguity (uncertainty of meaning) were thought to be desirable qualities in the stimulus cards because their "manifest perceptual meanings could be ignored in the
in the evaluation of the story content" (1961, p. xi).

Kurstein (1963) and others (Kagan and Lesser, 1961, pp. 229-237) point out that the objective nature of the picture is important and can influence the story in many ways. Quoting from his own and other studies of the TAT given to various groups, Kurstein (1961, 1963) presents certain findings such as

(a) the "everyday" series of TAT cards elicited the greater part of the themes of aggression, hostility, conflict, and occasional aspiration, while the ... fairy-tale series containing few instances of social situations provoked stories of a descriptive, impersonal and symbolic nature" (1961, p. 236).

(b) "The more 'pleasant' the stimulus property of the TAT card, the more 'pleasant' the 'emotional tone' of the stories" (1951, p. 233).

Response to

(c) "an ambiguous stimulus may be a less sensitive indicator of a motivational predisposition than a theme told to a non-ambiguous stimulus. Kagan ... found that boys rated as non-aggressive were differentiated from boys rated as aggressive via stories told to highly structured hostile pictures but not differentiated by ambiguous pictures" (1951, p. 240).

(d) "The chief determinant of projection was the scene depicted" (1961, p. 251).

(e) "Similarity [of the central character to the subject] to
the point of idiosyncratic identification promotes ego-defensiveness and a reduction in the degree of projection" (1961, p. 254).

(2) "The influence of the stimulus is not a simple function of its similarity to the subject. The culture plays a crucial role in the interpretation of perceptions" (1961, p. 250).

Added to these can be Armer and Rosann's findings (1948) that the individual selects those objects in the picture which he values; "needs and wishes determine his choice."

S. L. Lesser (Logan and Lesser, 1961) discussing Barstein's paper, counters with: "It is not my intention to minimize the role of the stimulus in determining thematic material. It seems clear, however, that we know very little about the empirical problem of estimating the relative proportions of variance contributed by stimulus, background, and organismic variables¹ (and their complex interactions) to the psychological meaningfulness of thematic responses" (p. 275).

In view of such studies as these and their conclusions, the stimulus pictures of the MBPT are discussed and references made to the place and conditions under which the test was given, not with any intention of trying to estimate the relative

1. Organismic variables are "the objective traits possessed by the individual, his self-concept with regard to these traits and the totality of his experiences in terms of these traits" (p. 231).
proportions of variance contributed by stimulus, background, or organic variables but as a reminder of these factors, and as an opportunity to think how they may have contributed to the results given later.

The Stimuli

(1) The Stimuli

Andres (1953, p. 17) in her appraisal of the pictures selected for the Rorschach agrees that “most approaches [to picture selection] have failed to appraise adequately the importance of the effect of the actual picture stimuli on the story productions.” She also points out that there is often a lack of relationship between the obvious content of the card and the resulting stories.

The Rorschach cards were chosen on the basis of clinicians’ “armchair” judgments, on presenting various types of inter-personal relationships within certain areas of potential conflict (e.g., conflict with authority figures) and on permitting poor identifications for children from age 0 to 14 years, and as implying some cultural framework, and as being realistic yet ambiguous enough to allow freedom of fantasy (Andres, 1953, pp. 10-11).

Andres, like Kurtz (1955) doubts the adequacy of relying on clinicians to determine the stimulus value of a card.
Furstein (1934) argues, first, that if the expert has heard many stories given to a card "his own perception probably now reflects at rough survey of the responses he has collected to the picture," and secondly, that opinions on the objective properties of the picture are likely to be influenced by the judge's own age, sex, experiences, personality, etc. Andrews suggests that the proof of the pudding is in the eating and that real pictures as used by the original constructors and investigators have been successful in their function of screening unadjusted children. 

Whatever, its primary use in this study is not to screen unadjusted children but to see what contribution the stories can make to revealing the self-concept and behaviour dynamics of the child subjects.)

The ambiguity of the UBQ cards is intended to be that arising from the possibility of multiple interpretation. 

(1934 annual, p. 19.) Inspection of the cards suggests that the figures in the cards are fairly clearly depicted, can be readily related to significant people in the child's social environment, and that the emotions expressed appear to be fairly unambiguous. The only two cards which, according to reactions in this current investigation, might be said to have some ambiguity, are Card VI where identification of sex of some of the children was sometimes difficult, and
Card 2 whose background puzzled some subjects. According to such studies as those of Gijou and Lenny (1951, 1953), Sauro and Stein (1959), Stone (1966), Auerstein (1956, 1961), and Hogan (1959), this medium degree of ambiguity and structuring (the pictures are more structured than those of the TP) favors more revealing projections than would be accorded more highly structured and less ambiguous stimulus cards.

Auerstein states "the stimulus (my emphasis) is by far the most important determinant of a TP response" (1969, pp. 195-226), and presumably also of an MES response. (He does not, however, consider other variables to be of inconsiderable importance as will be shown later.) Hutt (1955, p. 5) argues that part of the story is determined by the stimulus, but to him this is not the most important variable.

Part of the power of the stimulus in determining the projection lies in the characters, especially the central figure, in the picture. Murray (1943), Thompson (1949), and Hutt (1955), hold that the more a figure approximates the subject, the more readily he will identify with it and, accordingly, be likely to produce more meaningful material.

Hutt (1955, p. 6) says "a subject probably is more able to identify with a figure in a picture when the apparent age
of the figure is close to his own age." So of the 12
IAT cards for each sex only two do not depict figures from
the 8-14 years age group, and of these only one of those for
both sexes (Card VII) does not include characters obviously
from each sex. But sex identity, at least with adult subjects
on the IAT, does not seem to be essential to projection of
feeling (McIntyre, et al, in Kagan and Lesser, 1961, pp.251-254,
and Lurie, 1965, pp. 205-209). Lurie (1943) thought that
the subject should be shown at least one IAT card in which
there was a figure of roughly the same age and sex as the
subject. Lurie, (1965, p. 220) considers "the role of
physical similarity between stimulus and subject has been
over-valued, while the sociological value of the characters
depicted has been underestimated." In support of this claim
he quotes several experiments with IAT (Lurie, 1965,
pp. 262-214), including some which indicate, further, that
cards specifically structured to tap certain feelings
(e.g., hostility), facilitate expression of a similar feeling
in a subject "only when such expression is consistent with
the self-concept of the subject" (p. 211); that is, "organismic"
variables are tied in with the stimulus variables.
(2) The Background and Organismic Variables

one may therefore postulate on the basis of these investigations mentioned above that on the MiiH cards - which the constructors state are designed in content to present a range of probable conflict areas - the children's expressions of feelings in relation to their identification figures or heroes (that in their projection of themselves into the structured stimulus situation) will be those consistent with their self-concepts.

Malt (1953, p. 5) claims the MMH cards are essentially non-traumatic and that "when the patient projects feelings into the stories it is more likely to be the result of his own unresolved needs than of factors in the interpersonal situation" of the investigator and subject. It is his opinion that though part of the story is determined by the stimulus, and rather more of it by the personality of the examiner (1953, pp. 6–3), the important determinant is the subject himself: the other two variables he appears to regard as relatively unimportant. "The setting in which the test is taken," he says, "may affect the performance of the subject although in most instances this will not be of paramount significance." This view is supported by Malle (1945) and Schachtel (1945). So Malt (1953) concludes that
much of the story is determined by the projection of the subject "who apperceives the stimulus in accordance with his own need system," and who finds in the situation of non-traumatic picture plus examiner plus subject (that is, "stimulus" plus "background" plus "organismic" variables) a "relatively standard and neutral screen" for his projection.

Kurstein (1961, 1963) and Lesser (1961) and others previously quoted, would seem hardly likely to accept Hutt's relegation of the examiner and the stimulus to such insignificance, since they stress that a projective response is the result of the pooled interaction of the "stimulus," "background," and "organismic" variables in the behavioural situation .... and ...."variation in any of the variables may change the adaptation level" (i.e. the projective response) (Kurstein, 1961, p. 229). And further, "since these variables subsumed by the headings of "background" and "organismic" characteristics, are precisely those variables that most psychologists are attempting to assess in using thematic tests for clinical or research purposes, their importance is obvious" (Lesser in Eagan and Lesser, 1961, p. 275).

Lazarus (1961, p. 51) states that the current trend seems to be to emphasise "structural variables related both to the external stimulus and to the ego-control characteristics of
the personality. If the directing qualities of needs have not been completely eschewed, then they have been sharply minimised in favour of these structural forms."

However, Hutt (1953, p. 6) comes down fairly firmly on the side of the organismic variables and the needs system. "Probably the most important determinant of the test response is the subject himself. His personality, the nature of the conflict, his preoccupations, his defences, and his needs, all play a part in his responses." And whatever the degree of emphasis placed on the subject, the advocate of projective techniques must agree that this belief is basic in the theory of projection.

But just how the subject expresses his feelings, needs, and so on, and under what conditions, is again a matter for argument. Early theory held that there was a direct reflection of needs in the projective material and so the greater the need the more strongly and frequently it appeared in the story. However, such a simple theory has been put to the test of experiment and found inadequate to explain lack of need-expression when the subject has been subjected to conditions designed to arouse a high degree of need (Sanford, 1936, 1937; Murray, 1939; Atkinson and McClelland, 1948). Direct expression of needs still holds however in some situations (Atkinson, 1961). Three principles together
perhaps sufficiently cover what happens in apperceptive fantasy and indicate some of the conditions under which it happens.

(a) direct-expression concept

(b) substitutive concept

(c) ego-defensive concept.

The substitutive and the ego-defensive principles were proposed by Lazarus (1961, p. 66). The substitutive concept holds that "there will be a positive relationship between need states and fantasy only when the need has been blocked from motoric discharge. If there is adequate expression of the need in real life there will be no need to express it in fantasy, from which follows the corollary that if the need does appear in the fantasy, "there should be an absence of striving behaviour with respect to that need."

The ego-defensive principle states that "as the need reaches excessively high levels (because of environmental blockage or internal conflicts), the organism is under stress, and various ego-control processes to reduce the disturbance will be brought into play." So the need is altered, eliminated or repressed, and its fantasy counterparts inhibited.

Now to the background variables, that is, the environment of the test, and the examiner: "no examiner is a standard
situation .... No matter how valid a test may be and no matter how adequate the normative data may be, some variance in the responses of subjects may be attributed to the personality of the examiner" (Nutt, 1953, p. 9). Studies have been done on the differences in stories given to different examiners and there is some evidence, but not unequivocal, that the examiner's personality does have some effect; but what, and how much, and how it may be related to the personality of the subject is not known.

The difficulty in this study, in common with others, is the impossibility of knowing such things as how much notoriety expression of needs occurs, what constitutes an excessively high level of blockage - surely an individual matter for every child and every situation - and what effect the examiner had on the subjects.

However, as Jenkins (1961, p. 79), commenting on Lazarus' paper points out, it is because overt behaviour is elliptical that one turns to the apperceptive measure -"only to find that the feelings, thoughts, and conflicts in a story also become elliptical under certain conditions."

(b) The MPST in this study: Obviously all this argument has served to show that however the MPST is used the method
will be open to criticism, whatever conclusions are derived they will be suspect in various ways. It should also have shown that in spite of the techniques, limitations, and "unknowns," the opportunity for misinterpretation and disagreement, use of the MFST should add something to the information and indications derived from Rogers' test and the Check List.

The discussion has highlighted variables which might well be considered further and specifically in relation to the MFST. For example, to what degree do the MFST cards present stimuli which are ambiguous? How appropriate are the stimulus pictures to the experiences and socio-economic backgrounds of the subjects of this study? Going further - do the pictures provide situations which would readily allow, and even facilitate, expression of stresses which analyses of the Check List and Rogers' test suggest the children felt, for example, problems of money, work, and future, especially for the boys, problems of personal acceptability, especially for the girls? Under what conditions was the test administered?

(1) The Stimulus

A. Structure : (i) The Content

According to the MFST Manual (1953) the cards:

(a) "are somewhat more structured than those of the TAT" (p. xvii).
(b) "each represent a kind of semi-structured, social-emotional situation" (p. 5)

(c) "provide a coverage of a number of common types of social and emotional conflict situations" (p. 5) which are believed to be important in a children's apperception test and to include potentiality for "intrafamilial conflicts, conflicts with authority figures, conflicts involving physical danger, sexual difficulties, conflicts arising out of the school situation, feelings of personal inadequacy, confusions in self-perception, conflicts involving aggressive drives, and feelings of social inadequacy" (p. 18).

Without adhering strictly to this enumeration of conflict areas and situations, analyses of the situations in which the children in this study set their stories (see Table 7, and Appendix IV, Tables 97-98) and of their themes (Appendix IV, Tables 99-100) indicate that the cards did indeed sample or permit the projection of a variety of real life situations of the types intended by the test-constructors. However the analyses also suggest that although the pattern of percentages of response to various situations remains fairly constant for each sex over the interval between testings, there are differences between the sexes. This is discussed under (iv) stimulus value (p. 164).
### TABLE 7 *

Situations used in MPST shown as Percentages of the Total Number of Situations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification I</th>
<th>Summary of Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Boys</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Grade VI</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary E Class</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Girls</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Grade VI</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary E Class</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Classification II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Family</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Social</th>
<th>Physical danger</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Card 12(blank)</th>
<th>Described</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Boys</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Grade VI</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary E Class</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Girls</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Grade VI</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary E Class</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* For full analysis see Appendix IV, Tables 97-98
The settings for the stories of most subjects fell into four main categories: family, school, peer social group, and natural phenomena such as storm and fire. For almost all the boys, Card XI called up a rather wider social framework: a meeting of home and general community authority (the mother and the police) though a similar combination of "home" and "other" authority occurred also in some of the stories centered on the school.

Within those main categories the situations tended to be further restricted to specific aspects according to the identification of the figures in the card. Except for Cards IX and XII there were relatively few attempts to introduce non-depicted characters or to weave complex situations into the stories.
(ii) The figures in the Pictures

When the figures of a series of pictures vary in age, in sex, in activity and in group relationship, part of the story response is determined by the stimulus....

It is in this connection that the age levels of the figures in the story become of crucial importance. A subject probably is more able to identify with a figure in a picture when the apparent age of the figure is close to his own age .... or slightly younger than the examinee rather than .... slightly older. The Michigan pictures provide a sufficient variety of figures to enable most children between the ages of 8 and 14 years to make ready identification (Manual, p.6).

The MEST contains some cards used with both sexes and some used with boys only or with girls only to permit hero-identification with own sex. In this study a few pictures appeared to create some identification difficulties. Card I
seemed relatively difficult for personal identification for male subjects who, themselves aged 10 years or more, were confronted with the figure of a male child much younger than themselves. The boys' stories often gave the feeling that they were standing outside the picture; one or two introduced a non-existent figure with whom they seemed to identify.

Card VI tended to provide a hero-group for several subjects, both boys and girls, no one specific figure appearing to predominate and the theme of the story being along the lines of boys-versus-girls.

Similarly Card VII tended to produce a hero-group for the boys, and no hero but a detached description from the girls.

Few subjects introduced a hero for Card VI on which no figures were portrayed. More frequently they confined themselves to description or to some vague reference to "all the people," "the firemen," or a similar ill-defined group.

(iii) Socio-economic Level and Cultural Qualities

(a) "The total series of pictures represents a standard series of stimuli of this type" (i.e. social-emotional situations) (Manual, p.9).

(b) "One of the most intriguing problems which has confronted us is the effect of socio-economic differences on test responses .... It seems
reasonable to us, on a priori grounds, that socio-economic status should have an effect upon test responses, and yet the literature concerned with apperception tests is singularly lacking in evidence on this point" (Manual, p. 13).

Do the pictures represent a society comparable with that of the Tasmanian subjects? The Tasmanian children were drawn from a society and culture generally held to have overall much in common with that of the United States of America (the society reflected in the Michigan pictures), excepting for the race and colour elements. The small local society to which the subjects belong is made up largely of lower- to comfortably-prosperous working class families not self-employed, together with a small number of professional and/or self employed families and semi-urban semi-rural families of unskilled artisan or farm-labourer class. (For details see Chapter VI and Tables 89 and 90.)

The background and clothing detail of the MPT pictures are generally appropriate to the socio-economic level of these local subjects, though an occasional detail did strike the children as incongruous, not belonging, or restrictive. Children commented on the American flag and on the swivel
chair (not used in Tasmanian schools) in Card III, and decided the school must be in the U.S.A. Card IV brought the comment "old fashioned" from several girls, and on Card X5 several boys inferred - because of the boy's leather coat which at the time of testing was local "bodgie" dress - that the boy in the picture must indeed be a bodgie or similar out-grouper, and therefore equally certainly must be in trouble.

(iv) Stimulus Value of the Cards

Do the cards have comparable stimulus potential for each sex? Empirically it seems rather doubtful that they do (see, for example, comments on identification with heroes, p.161). For example, Card I seemed rather more provocative and/or appropriate to girls and Card VII to boys.

Again, at first glance the pose of the figures in VIIIb and VIIIG appear fairly similar. However, although roughly one quarter of the primary school boys saw the figure on this card as being in physical pain, usually with toothache, no girls gave this interpretation to their card. And indeed, with due awareness of being accused of projection the examiner also would more readily concede pain and toothache to the figure on Card VIIIb than to that on Card VIIIG. Of more importance, however, is likely to be the difference in the background of the same two pictures. The background of the
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group 1</th>
<th>One situation for majority (75%) of subjects</th>
<th>Group 2</th>
<th>Two chief situations</th>
<th>Group 3</th>
<th>No commonly chosen situation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td></td>
<td>School</td>
<td></td>
<td>Society</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-child</td>
<td>I  I*</td>
<td>Group</td>
<td>Teacher-child</td>
<td>Peer</td>
<td>General</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sibling</td>
<td>III X*</td>
<td></td>
<td>Peer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VI* VII IX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Indicates different cards for the two sexes
boys' card is completely unstructured and black, the girls' card presents a structured background strongly evocative of the Tasmanian school room where iron-framed desks may still be found as standard school equipment. Card 123 compared with Card 125 presents rather different content: the male-card figures are standing, rather stiffly and at some distance apart - aided to which as mentioned previously the boy is wearing a jacket frequently seen as a "boglie-jacket."

The female-card figures are seated, a medium of relationship between them (a book) is introduced, and they are geographically closer. And the backgrounds are different in character. The male-card background is formal, clear, office-like; the female-card background is less distinct and the padded chair hints as much at home as at a formal or office setting. It might be expected on these grounds alone, that the general tenor of the girls' and boys' stories would differ, as indeed they do.

Cards 11D and 11C also seem to present rather different stimuli. Having seen Card 11D it is easy enough to read a similar theme — say, of punitive detention — into Card 11C. However, without this prior experience, as the children are, since only their own sex card is given them, it seems less
likely that the two situations presented will tap similar areas of potential conflict.

Referring to the detailed analysis of response to cards (Appendix IV Tables 99–100) it is indeed apparent that some shared cards "meant" different things to the different sexes, and that some parallel cards for boys and girls (VIII, X, XI) did not evoke parallel situations for the two sexes. For example, in the secondary school year Card II (same for both sexes) evokes mainly sibling situations for the boys, but for the girls is equally evocative of peer as of sibling situations; and Card VIII (different for the sexes) evokes little but school situations for the girls but relatively infrequent school association for the boys in both Grade VI and Ejclass.

These situation-response differences expressed as percentages of the total situation-responses for each card are shown in table form below.
TABLE 9:

Situation-Identification of MPST Cards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Card</th>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Primary School</th>
<th>Secondary School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Calculated on actual numbers of subjects: chi-square and $p$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>peer</td>
<td>82.4</td>
<td>47.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sibling</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>peer</td>
<td>96.2</td>
<td>73.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sibling</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>school</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>84.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>other</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>teacher-child</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>parent-child</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>other</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XI</td>
<td>school</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>84.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>general</td>
<td>98.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>94.1</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* significant at $p < .05$
For Cards II and VI the evidence is not sufficient to claim beyond reasonable doubt a sex difference in the situations called up by the cards. However, of the cards which differ for the sexes (namely, IV, VIII, X, XI) only the two IV cards seem to act as parallel stimuli. Cards VIII, X, and XI produce significantly different situation responses from the boys' and girls' groups. This could be due to differences in personality dynamics (and hence projection) but it is just as much or more likely to be related to the difference in the structure of the pictures themselves.

These situation differences limit to some extent comparisons which may be made between the sexes. But nevertheless it will still be possible to see and compare themes and relationship projected for comparable situations (though not necessarily onto the same cards) by the two sexes.

(2) Ambiguity

(a) "The pictures should contain realistic but generally ambiguous situations" (Andrew, 1953, p. 18).

(b) "Many pictures were found to cover more than one conflict area. This is probably due both to the overlapping of the areas themselves, and to some ambiguity in the pictures themselves. For example ... the picture of a man standing
Facing a boy (Card XII) may be interpreted by the child as a father-son relationship, a social situation, an authority figure, or a school situation" (Andrew, 1953, p. 19).

(c) "Ambiguity of the picture must be considered important, since a vague setting will probably allow more fantasy and will permit the child greater choice in his story production" (Andrew, 1953, p. 19).

Ambiguity, then, in the LPST cards is not of the order found in the Object Relations Test and to a lesser extent in the Symonds and the TAT where outlines and features of the characters are assumed, indeterminate, hidden in shadow. The LPST characters are fairly definitely limited, some broad definition of emotion implied, and the sex clearly conveyed (except perhaps for some of the figures in Cards VI and VII), but the interpersonal relationships are less defined. (The pictures were photographs, hence the reality.) So a variety of themes can be and is projected.

In Appendix IV, Tables 99-100 the themes, core ideas or central trends of the stories are shown in their appropriate areas. These areas refer not to the setting of the story (titled situation - see Table 7 p. 159), but to the field...
of relationships (e.g., authority) or quality (e.g., personal adequacy) with which it is concerned. So a story may have a school situation, be concerned with the teacher's authority relationship to child, that is, the authority area, and present a theme of co-operation in which the teacher helps the child. A few stories have more than one major theme.

B. Background : (1) The Test Setting

(a) "One should be attentive to the possible implications of the setting upon the performance of the subject" (Hutt, 1953, p. 8).

(b) "In some cases the subject may view his visit [for the test] as a form of punishment for a "crime" committed. How such an attitude will affect the test results may be readily understood" (Hutt, 1953, p. 8).

The test was given individually on the school premises usually in rooms not used as classrooms, such as the staff-room in the primary schools, or the office of a department head or the research room of a laboratory in the secondary school. This ensured some degree of privacy and freedom from interruptions and hence, it was hoped, a feeling of "security" and relaxedness on the part of the subject. As far as could be judged and as was expected from previous
experience with children in these schools, the subjects did react to the situation in this way.

In both types of school, though with rather more spontaneous expression in the primary schools, the children seemed to regard being "selected" to do the test as an especial privilege and honour, and in all cases the test was presented by the investigator and accepted by the subject not as a test of the subject but as a way in which he/she could help to lighten the investigator's darkness. The explanation was given "I want to know what sort of stories boys (girls) of your age can tell, and you have been chosen to make some stories for me" — or as close as possible to this wording as the situation permitted, since sometimes the subject's questions on what was afoot predetermined the wording of the investigator's response and explanation.

In order to avoid any test antagonism that might arise, from the subject's missing a lesson or activity in which he was particularly interested, he was questioned as to what he was missing, and his feeling about it, and where it seemed on these grounds advisable, the test was delayed till a more opportune time.

(2) The Examiner

(a) "Not to be overlooked is the stimulus value of the examiner insofar as this can be
objectively ascertained. Is the examiner attractive, young, easy-going, insecure, or ugly, old, stern and confident?" (Bairnstein, 1961, pp. 230-1).

(b) "There are two fundamental aspects of the examiner as a factor influencing the test performance. The first is his technical skill in administering the test and in making relevant enquiry .... The other aspect - the more important one - is the personality of the examiner" (Hutt, 1953, p. 9).

Three different examiners participated in the test with the WST. In all cases they were females: two recent graduates and one considerably older. The young graduates had been trained and examined in testing procedures by the older examiner as part of their undergraduate courses and were proceeding to jobs where they worked closely with children. The older examiner had been a teacher and later a clinical psychologist working as a schools' guidance officer.

At the time of testing all three examiners lived and worked in a different city from the subjects and so came as "visitors," and free from the "stigma" of being teachers. This seemed fortunate in that it helped to break down the idea that the test was an exercise in English composition.
Co-operation was enhanced by the fact that the stories were
tape-recorded, a procedure which was regarded by the children
not only as complimentary but also as proof that the story and
not the quality of the composition was the thing.

**Outline of the Proposed Use of the TBR**

The intention is to reveal the subjects' reactions,
atitudes, dominant feelings, interpersonal relationships,
implications of adequacy and inadequacy, as far as is reasonable,
through the use of a medium generally claimed to get at the
less conscious dynamics of behaviour.

It is intended (1) to attempt to build up from these
exploration, as with the Rogers' Test and the Check
List, ideas about or behind the self-pictures of the
subjects,

(2) to see if the findings derived from this measure

correspond with, elaborate, reinforce, or contradict
the findings derived from other measures. That is,
to see whether and how the self-pictures of the
children, presented by themselves on relatively
"direct" or less disguised measures as honest self-
assessments or in a wish to satisfy the investigator,
tie in with their, probably, less-witting self presentations.
3. Administration

1. The test was administered to a random sample of the primary school subjects who fulfilled the criteria of selection for the study and who had answered the Rogers' Test of Personality Adjustment, and the Check List. The number tested with the MGT was fewer than those tested with the Rogers' and the Check list because of the time absorbed by individual testing and the restricted period during which the children were permitted to be available for testing. In the second year, because of similar restrictions on time, the difficulty of getting children who were then working under vastly different teaching arrangements which often made them unavailable, the fact that some subjects had not moved to the secondary school, and incidental absences, the number doing the MGT test dropped again, so that only thirty-four subjects did the test on both occasions.

2. The test was administered by three examiners each with some degree of experience, though not the same degree, in working with children in clinical and observation settings. Each examiner used the same initial instructions but thereafter was free to answer any questions asked by the subject in the way that seemed most appropriate, while avoiding conveying any such ideas as that the test was in any way related to school
attainment tests or to be used for assessment of the subject for school promotion, or for selection for employment.

3. Each child was seen individually and alone in a room set aside for testing and free from the possibility of being overheard. The stories were tape-recorded with the subject's knowledge and consent. This appeared to act as an inspiration to effort with almost all the subjects who reacted as feeling that they derived considerable status from having their efforts recorded for posterity. No child showed any antipathy to or fear of being recorded.

4. The test proper was presented according to the instructions and with the words as prescribed in the manual to the ESP2 (1959, pp. 61-62).

D. Analysis

The initial intention was to use the scoring and interpretation as set out in the manual (1959), especially to derive Tension Index, Direction of Forces and Interpersonal Relations. This had considerably influenced the selection of the test because it seemed, in theory, to offer a relatively "fool-proof" and objective method of analysing the responses to a projective test. However this particular method of objective scoring was eventually abandoned largely because, in practice, some scoring techniques were insufficiently clear.
For example, there was difficulty in deciding what constituted a single verbal expression of a need (Manual, p. 63) and the manual failed to give an adequate supply of examples against which to match responses. Difficulty were particularly noticeable in the scoring for the Tension Index, where three independent scorers were unable to reach any reasonable degree of agreement. The authors of the test themselves suggest that under such circumstances analysis should ignore their norms (Manual, pp. 63-64).

Since it was not intended to use norms from other groups or to divide the Siamesian group according to a pre-established estimate of maladjustment based on scores on the RST, there was no need to adhere to the scoring methods set out in the manual. Instead, Mine's (1951) method of objective scoring was used as a model for part of the analysis (see below, p. 179) as were also constructs such as Main Theme, Areas of Conflict, Hero-strength, used by other researchers such as Bellak (1948), Andrew (1953), Murray (1933). The main concern was that the constructs chosen should fit in with the areas of characteristics about which information was required, and permit some matching up with the areas being explored by Rogers' test and the Check List.

A theme, in this analysis, is the core idea of a story and
is not to be confused with Murray's construct, a "theme."

Unless there is an interweaving of stories in the responses given to a card, the response will have only one theme.

Themes have been divided into five categories, namely, conflict, co-operation, aggression, antagonism or competition, and adequacy/ inadequacy (grouped under the single title, adequacy). All these psychological states were thought by the constructors of the Test (Andrew, 1953), to be covered by the scenes constituting the Test.

The themes occur within broad frameworks of personal relationships, known in this analysis as "areas", such as relationships with people in authority. They may also occur in relation to specific people in these areas, such as parents or teachers. So the theme of a story is located in its relevant area and in relation to the specific person or persons concerned as set out in Appendix IV, Tables 99-100. The five themes are broadly defined as follows:

Conflict: opposition of ideas, usually accompanied by feelings of hostility, with one party attempting to dominate the other.

Co-operation: sharing of ideas or effort; acceptance of one party by another.
Aggression: attack, whether physical or verbal; not necessarily directed against a specified object, for example, "throwing things," "fighting."

Antagonism: may range from dislike without further action to opposition but in both cases with unresolved tension.

Adequacy/inadequacy: the capacity to deal with the circumstances of a situation. Inadequacy may arise from an inherent lack in the hero or from the weight of circumstances being so great as to render the hero's efforts unsuccessful.

As mentioned earlier one of the disadvantages of projective tests is the difficulty of finding sufficiently objective ways of measuring and presenting the data they present, and of working in terms that permit statistical comparison and evaluation.

Fine (Sheidran, 1951), in an attempt to cope with such difficulties evolved a form of analysis done along the lines of a check-list. The method stresses primarily hero-strength, feelings and relationships. It adopts a psychometric frame of reference rather than a purely projective point of view.
It is open to criticisms for and against, such as those listed by Holtzman (1959), and particularly to the criticism stated emphatically by Joel and Shapiro (1951, p. 120) that "in order to understand how the subject's ego functions, it would help us little .... to classify and tally the subject's reactions removed from the context in which they occurred."

It is proposed now to use this method, not, as was Pine's purpose, to diagnose for clinical use but to arrive at some descriptions of feelings and relationships expressive of the subject's private world and personality process.

Pine's method is hero-orientated: it is the hero's feelings in the relationship between him and other characters of the story that are derived. Its application in this study is normative in that it is used to discover the frequency with which certain feelings and relationships are expressed in relation to the hero — and insofar as the hero represents the subject, in relation to the subject — and how such feelings differ at another time of testing.

The MPST, then, is not being used as a clinical tool to discover material about the subject for the purpose of individual therapy but as a research tool to diagnose and measure elements in behaviour in such ways as to enable the findings to be expressed sometimes qualitatively and sometimes quantitatively. "There is room for the two approaches both in
clinical work and in research" (Urstein, 1963, p. 7).

Summing up, for all the Tests

1. The Check List allows for the recognition and expression of a subject's conscious problems. It enquires about symptoms. To the extent that the child is able to recognize and express such problems, he possesses either insight or adjustment. It can not get at the problems of the Unconscious. It cannot therefore get, to any extent, at the real basis of maladjustment, the repressed or denied experiences inconsistent with the self-picture.

2. The Rogers' test does not ask for a statement of problems. It asks for a feeling about a specific representative situation from which the observer may deduce a problem at a conscious or unconscious level. It reveals more than the symptoms. It gets at both upper and lower levels of the personality. Its approach is relatively indirect. One would expect some correlation with the Check List, but not a high one, of a positive kind because some problems would be conscious, some unconscious, and some a little of both.

3. The Michigan Picture Story Test does not ask for a statement of problems nor give a clearly specified situation. It asks the subject to supply both situation and the feelings
182. It does not even require the subject to speak or think consciously about himself. It can therefore elude conscious self-evaluation and get to unrecognized depths of the personality. Its approach is indirect. One would therefore expect data both contradictory to and in agreement with that from the Check List and the Rogers' Test.

(c) Statistical Techniques

A major aim of the study is to present a picture of the self given by children at two levels of educational placement. There is therefore much that is primarily descriptive. Numerical distributions and percentages have been used as bases for visual and descriptive comparisons. Where there are apparent differences between groups or within groups on different occasions of testing, tests of significance such as the "t" test, chi-square, the Binomial test and the Sign test have been used. Probabilities which attain a level of $p<.05$ (usually for a two-tailed test, since predictions of direction of differences were seldom made before analysis) are considered significant.

Group techniques such as the "t" test tell about the sums of individual differences as though the group were a simple unit. They do not indicate what is happening to the individual
members of the group: positive and negative changes made
by individuals may cancel each other out and so conceal the
fact that individuals within the group are changing. To
help in expressing what is going on in the nature of "internal"
movement the Kendall rank correlation ($\tau$) and the Index
of Shift (see note below) have also been used. Staines
(1954) makes a similar use of the notion of shift and the
Shift Index to show closeness of two sets of scores or the
reliability of scores ($\text{reliability} = 1 - \frac{\text{possible shift}}{\text{actual shift}}$),
and Brownfain (1952) refers to a similar measure of difference
as the "stability index" - "the larger this discrepancy
the more unstable the self-concept is assumed to be."

Siegel's *Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioural
Sciences* (McGraw-Hill, 1956) has been used as the basic text
for the statistical techniques.

While within the group of subjects studied it may be
found that enough subjects give identical or similar responses
to certain situations to enable useful group norms (statements
of attitudes generally held) to be presented, nevertheless
differences in the behaviour of individuals will be concealed
or neglected in the group picture.

Therefore, although two testings may show comparable results,
suggesting that no change has occurred in the intervening period, this assumption may be quite incorrect. It is possible to arrive at statistically comparable wholes constituted of widely dissimilar parts. For example, two people may have identical intelligence quotients but have achieved these quotients on the basis of quite different skills, one being highly verbal, the other superior in performing tasks. So in a study where comparison is made of the same group on two different occasions though the group results may show little difference, nevertheless the reaction of individuals within the group may have changed greatly.

Within the total group of Tasmanian subjects there is a large proportion who repeated the test. It is, therefore, possible, by comparing the responses given by these subjects alone, to gain some idea of the amount of "movement" within the group (but possibly concealed in the group-norm by the counter-effects of individuals changing in opposite directions) that has been made in the transition period. This is what is denoted by the Index of Shift.

The Index of Shift has been described as an estimate of reliability. It is actually a measure which takes into account two things — the number of people changing their
rating, and the degree to which they change it regardless of the direction of the change. A high index of shift, that is an index approaching 1.0 may indicate that either a large number of people made individually small changes, or a small number of people made individually large changes, or something between these two. It is therefore, expressive of a kind of fluidity on the part of the whole group.