This monograph describes the individuation module (concerning the perceptions, cognitions, feelings, attitudes and beliefs a person develops towards himself), which is part of the Early Childhood-Special Education Teacher Preparation Program. This module deals with six aspects of the emerging self: body image, self-image, self-concept, self-esteem, ideal self and moral self. Learner outcomes, ontogenies, discussion of the module's relevance to early childhood education, measurement techniques, and instructional strategies pertinent to desired outcomes are provided for each of these six areas. Deviances and handicapping situations are also discussed for body image, self-concept and moral development. Cognitive and skill competencies needed by the teacher, and an outline of required readings and activities are included. (ED)
Monograph XIV
Kathryn Castle
Individuation
Social Development
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Lovelace Cook

BACK COVER: Ruffner Hall, School of Education, University of Virginia.  
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# Social Development - Individuation Module

## Table of Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Overview of Individuation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner Characteristics</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Body Image:</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ontogeny</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevancy</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deviancy</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measurement</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditions to Facilitate Outcomes</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Self Image:</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptual</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measurement</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditions to Facilitate Outcomes</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Self Concept:</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ontogeny</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevancy</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variables Related to Self Concept</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deviancy</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measurement</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditions to Facilitate Outcomes</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. Self Esteem:</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ontogeny</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevancy</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measurement</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditions to Facilitate Outcomes</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. Ideal Self:</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevancy</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measurement</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditions to Facilitate Outcomes</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII. Social Self Moral:</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevancy</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deviancy</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measurement</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditions to Facilitate Outcomes</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII. Competencies Needed to Facilitate Individuation:</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Competencies</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill Competencies</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required Readings and Recommended Readings</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Preface

Professor Daniel Jordon's work at the University of Massachusetts provided the structure for the developmental area of Individuation (Jordan, 1973). Previous to his work and this module the literature has commonly confused self concept with self image, self esteem and body image. Although they are interrelated it is important to see them as separate developing aspects of the individual.

Other persons providing input into this module include Diand Fleming, Gwen Brown and Marlis Mann.
OVERVIEW OF INDIVIDUATION

Individuation involves the understanding of the emerging self and the process of identification. Individuation refers to self development and includes all the perceptions, cognitions, feelings, attitudes and beliefs that the individual has about himself. Children are not born with the concept of self or individuality. At birth there is no differentiation between "me" and "not me". This concept is formed as a result of direct interaction with the environment and with others. The child's self concept is actually formed as a result of the quality of his caretaking. As he gets older, he moves away from the family setting and the influence of teachers, peers, and other adults become increasingly more important.

Individuation or self development has been defined in various ways. The present work deals with six aspects of the emerging self which include body image, self image, self concept, self esteem, ideal self, and moral self. Body image concerns the psychomotor aspects of self development including awareness of physical body in space, awareness of body as a separate person, and awareness of one's body in reflection to other objects within the environment. Self concept formation begins with development of body image. Children with inadequate body images often have distorted perceptions of their physical capabilities. Body image can be trained by providing many opportunities for the child to use his body in interaction with the environment.

Self image refers to an individual's perception of self in terms of specific concrete, socially important attributes such as body size, strength, and build which influence his attitude toward self. Self image includes awareness of self as object and as subject, ability to objectively describe the physical self, and ability to deal effectively with feedback from others. Self image differs from body image in that self image involves perceptions of the person as seen in the mirror while body image involves how the person perceives his body as an inner physical or kinesthetic experience.

Self concept is the cognitive aspect of viewing self and refers to an individual's awareness of his own characteristics, and attributes, and the ways in which he is both like and unlike others. Self concept involves awareness of self as a separate, individual person, awareness of one's identity in a social world, and self acceptance.

Self esteem is the persons' evaluation of self or how he feels about himself. It includes awareness of feelings of personal worth, beliefs in one's own abilities and competencies, ability to solve problems, ability to express one's preferences, ability to accept minor failures, and development of responsibility and independence. Self esteem influence every aspect of self development including academic achievement.

Ideal self is the "person I'd like to be" and represents the self which the individual aspires to become. It is very similar to Freud's ego ideal and involves the ability to describe and set goals for the person the child wishes to become. High and low real-ideal discrepancies may lead to poor adjustments. In other words, it is important to set
goals for oneself as long as they are reasonable and not too easily or difficulty obtained.

Social self moral is concerned with the self as it becomes a moral being. Moral development is highly related to cognitive development and includes: knowing the basis for decisions in value judgments, social attitudes, ability to interact with others, interest in the welfare of others, sense of justice, cooperation, tolerance, lack of prejudices, and ability to see the value in mistakes.

It is not surprising if these areas seem highly similar and inter-related. Theorists and investigators have confused the issues of self development by failing to adequately define it. On the other hand, the aspects of self development are so interrelated that it is difficult to discuss self concept without also attending to self esteem. It must be realized that the total self is not the sum of its individual parts. But for the sake of clarification and understanding, the above aspects of self will be discussed and analyzed as separate entities.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terminology</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Area of Development</th>
<th>Atypical Conditions for Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phantom Limb phenomenon</td>
<td>Lack of body image resulting in retardation of reading and numbers processing.</td>
<td>Body Image (Psychomotor)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reacts as if limb is still attached.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feelings of loss of body boundaries which involve a sense of blurring of the demarcation line between one's own body and that which is outside one's body. (Child bumps into objects, runs into walls, people).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sensations of depersonalization which revolve about a perception of one's body as strange, alien, and perhaps even as belonging to someone else. The attributing to one's body of unrealistic qualities and extra parts. Confusion regarding the distinction between the right versus the left side of the body; or the attributing of contrasting characteristics to the right versus the left side. Awkwardness of bodily movements.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selects space on the floor too small for task defined. Indicates an imperfect awareness of the space occupied by his body in various positions. Inability to move one arm (or leg) without the other arm (or leg) when required to move body parts upon command. Long hesitation before child can move a designated body part.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TERMINOLOGY

LEARNER CHARACTERISTICS:

INDIVIDUALIZATION

Characteristics

Area of Development

Atypical Conditions for Characteristics

Denial (ego defense mechanism)

Withdrawal (ego defense mechanism)

Hypochondria

Denies or devalues opinions of self and others in order to maintain a consistent self-image. Draws or describes self contrary to reality (black child draws self as white.).


Behavior indicates child is highly anxious and defensive. Demands reassurance and support from parents and teachers, but is unable to organize his perceptions so that he can gradually become an independent individual. Withdraws into fantasy and becomes a social isolate.

Withdraws into fantasy and becomes a social isolate.

Engages exclusively in opposite sex behavior. Uses egocentric speech and makes self-referent statements. Expresses fears and anxieties by becoming aggressive.

Engages in self-stimulant behavior such as rocking, twirling, spinning or gazes at objects. Engages in self-destructive behavior such as self-mutilation or head banging.

Uses egocentric speech and makes errors in communication with others.

Expresses fears and anxieties by becoming aggressive toward others. Engages in self-stimulant behavior such as rocking, twirling, spinning or gazes at objects.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Area of Development</th>
<th>Atypical Conditions for Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child is unable to express preferences or make minor decisions. Uses self-derogatory expressions. Lacks self-confidence expressed by resistance to enter into skill activities. Becomes irritable or apathetic when corrected. Displays irresponsible behavior such as failure to pick up toys and put them away. Clings to teacher and cries or whines (displays dependent behavior). Wants teacher to do everything for child. Displays fears, phobias, or compulsions. Makes negative self ratings. Poor academic performance due to loss of self-esteem. Engages in highly anxious and defensive behavior. Child is unable to solve minor problems and engages readily in peer disputes. Sets goals so high he can never reach them. Child is a perfectionist in his work and becomes overly anxious when he does not meet his expectations.</td>
<td>Self-Esteem (affective)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child cannot delay gratification; must have immediate rewards. Refuses to interact with peers. Becomes highly aggressive in peer interactions - strikes, pushes other children. Severely teases other children. Displays shallowness of affect or an affectionless personality. Contact with others is on a superficial level. The child is unable to control his impulses (he may throw toys at other children when unprovoked). Lacks a sense of guilt or conscience. Makes many errors in time discriminations such as</td>
<td>Ideal-Self</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LEARNER CHARACTERISTICS:

INDIVIDUATION

- Atypical Conditions for Characteristics
  - Knowing time (older child).
  - Lacks the ability to foresee the consequences of his actions, or threatens, hits, scratches, or scrapes and crying.
  - Emotional outbursts such as screaming, crying, or damage or destroys others' property and belongings.
  - Does not value material possessions, and the ability to profit from the consequences of his actions.
  - Relates to others as objects rather than as persons. Does the opposite of what he is told to do, avoids eye contact.
  - Displays unprovoked emotional outbursts such as screaming and crying.
  - Threatens, bites, scratches, or hits others without provocation.
  - Social, Self-Moral Magic Circle

Kohlberg's social dilemma situations

- Does not value material possessions, and the ability to profit from the consequences of his actions.
- Relates to others as objects rather than as persons. Does the opposite of what he is told to do, avoids eye contact.
- Displays unprovoked emotional outbursts such as screaming and crying.
- Threatens, bites, scratches, or hits others without provocation.

DUSO Program.
BODY IMAGE

Body Image (Psychomotor) Outcomes

1. Awareness of physical body in space
2. Awareness of body as a separate person
3. Awareness of one's body in relation to other objects within the environment

Body Image Ontogeny

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 weeks</td>
<td>Visual tracking of moving and stable objects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 weeks</td>
<td>Reaches out to grasp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 weeks</td>
<td>Discovers and manipulates hands, feet, genitails</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32 weeks</td>
<td>Strong bilateral use of hands, in approach, grasp, and manipulation, and in simultaneous holding of two objects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 weeks</td>
<td>Sits up alone, leans trunk and arms forward, mirror play, imitation of gestures and sounds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 months</td>
<td>Walks and runs, pushes and pulls.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 months</td>
<td>Climbs, watches movements of others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>Verbally identifies some of basic body parts, regards own movement during scribbling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3½ years</td>
<td>Distinguishes between two sides of body.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 years</td>
<td>Simultaneous, spontaneous gestures, as well as simultaneous movement of fingers in manipulation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>Awareness that left and right limbs are found on either side of body.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 years</td>
<td>Much activity and movement, stunting and physical skills, makes left-right discriminations about body.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-9 years</td>
<td>Identifies another person's left and right hands and names most observable parts of his won body.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Body awareness or body image is the concept that an individual has of his own body as a result of subjective experiences with his own body and how he organizes them. Most of the body image research has involved the investigation of neurological and psychiatric problems, psychosomatic illness, and drug effects. One question which has been over looked is how one's body image affects personality and behavior. Body image is certainly one aspect of self development and is involved in the development of the self concept. The self concept becomes the means by which we create our self image and identity. The self concept is initiated by physical awareness. Awareness of inner and outer body states is the first cue for creating a self image and identity.

Piers and Harris (1964) have obtained moderately high correlations between measures of feelings about one's body and scores thought to evaluate a more comprehensive opinion of total worth. Second and Jourard (1953) developed tests measuring body cathexis and self cathexis and found a moderate relationship between scores evaluating the total self concept and numbers obtained from the body cathexic portion of the tests. They suggested that women develop more anxiety at their bodies than men.

The maturing child perceives his body as a vehicle for motor performance (Cratty, 1968). Thus it is reasonable to assume that his feelings about himself are related to the quality and quantity of movement he perceives his body capable of making. The formation of the body image begins early in infancy when the baby begins looking at moving and stable objects. Then comes the discovery of hands and feet, mirror play, and observations of other's bodily features. Through movement and exercise, the child gradually develops a sense of bodily awareness. Through interactions with people and objects, he begins to form relationships between his own body and objects outside himself. With the development of language, he begins to verbally identify his body parts. Eventually the child is able to make left-right discriminations.

Benton (1959) refers to three elements which are necessary to the formation of body awareness beginning early infancy; integration of sensory information, learning, and symbolic representation. Impairment in any of these three can be expected to produce a lag in the development of body awareness. Barsch postulates that a child's body image follows the same cephalocaudal sequence as motor development. This sequence is from head to tail. The child first acquires an awareness of head, then shoulders, torso, pelvis, legs, and lastly, feet. It probably also follows a proximal-digital rule with awareness of near midline coming before awareness of end members. In Kephart's film "Body Image", children's initial figure drawings reveal that they perceive the face and some of its parts, usually the eyes. They also tend to draw sticklike upper and lower limbs protruding directly from the circular head. Only later is there evidence of awareness of the trunk. Final development of the body image is reflected in a filling out of the arms (initially represented as spaghetti-like sticks) and the addition of details in the face, arms, hands, and limbs.

Other researchers such as Schilder and Bender have emphasized
that body image is needed before we can start movements in order to imitate. Thus one means of assessing body image is by having the child imitate certain gestures and movements. Cruickshank ( ) expressed his belief that unless a child has a coordinated and coherent understanding of his body image, learning to read and process numbers becomes extremely retarded.

There is some evidence that the body scheme or image may function as a basic standard of frame of reference that influences some ways that an individual perceives his ability to perform certain tasks such as arithmetical computations.

Body image has been defined as a psychological variable because it grows out of a learning process as the individual experiences his body and sees other people's reactions to it. As he grows he assigns a hierarchy of values to its main areas which apparently can influence such things as the site selection of psychosomatic illness.

Body image concepts are found in the literature of the psychoanalytic thought of Freud, Jung, and Rank. Freud saw body image relative to the three main areas of the body (oral, anal, genital) which over time are of unusual sensitivity and erogeneity. According to Freud, if body image does not develop as the body grows and becomes an adult, then the childlike body image will seriously interfere with gaining satisfaction from adult experience.

Body image plays a definite role when an individual suffer mutilation of his body. The phantom limb is a classic example of this. Until the individual begins to integrate the loss of a limb into his scheme, he may often feel as if the limb is still there.

Deviacy in the Development of Body Image

There is a large amount of observation that shows the wide range of distortions that body image is subject to that indicates the importance of body image to the functioning individual. Four broad categories have been defined by Fisher and Cleveland (1955) as having the greatest frequency:

1. Feelings of loss of body boundaries which involves a sense of blurring of the demarcation line between one's own body and that which is outside one's body.
2. Sensations of depersonalization which revolve about a perception of one's body as strange, alien, and perhaps even as belonging to someone else.
3. The attributing to one's body of unrealistic qualities and extra parts.
4. Confusion regarding the distinction between the right versus the left side of the body; or the attributing of contrasting characteristics to the right versus the left side.

Sams (1968) developed a test to assess the body image of blind
children. The inability of the blind child to project himself into another's reference system must influence his formation of body image. Sams stresses the importance of training blind children to gain insight into the nature of space. Cratty (1968) found that blind children must depend upon less exact information as they attempt to perceive their bodies and relationships to objects in their environment. Educators of the blind note that blind infants seem to have a vague idea about what is part of their bodies and what is not. Cratty has designed a 16-step body image training sequence for sighted children which he subsequently modified in order to evaluate body image in blind children and to develop sequences of tasks related to body image training of blind children.

**Measurement of Body Image**

Researchers have used many methods to measure body image. Two popular means of assessment are psychiatrists' projective tools such as the Rorschach Ink Blot Test, and the child's ability to verbally identify various body parts. Others have measured it by having the child draw the human figure. It is assumed that distortion of details, omission of parts, variations in size, difference in emphasis, etc., reflect a state of confusion in the body image of the drawer. This method has been criticized for being too subjective. Kephart suggests behavioral criteria by which a child with body image problems can be detected:

1. The child selecting a space on the floor that's too small for tasks defined—or vice versa—indicates an imperfect awareness of the space occupied by his body in various positions.

2. In activities which require them to move various parts of the body upon command, the child may not be able to move one arm without the other arm.

3. Long hesitation before child can move a designated body part.

One problem in the area of body image assessment has been that the major efforts in the area have centered on the manner in which body image scores of several kinds reflect various personality disorders, rather than on how a psychologically sound child perceives his body and its movement. This should be taken into consideration when choosing an assessment tool. The following is a list of some of the body image measurements used with young children:

1. **Factual-Localization Test** - This is an adaptation of Bender's Face-Hand Test (1953). In this test, a part or two parts of the child's body are touched and the child is asked to identify the object or body part which has been touched. It detects body image difficulties.

2. **Draw-a-Person Test** - by Mackover (1949) is a clinical tool requiring the child or adult to draw a picture of a person. This technique has been used to evaluate personality, assess the presence of neurotic and/or psychotic symptoms, measure intelligence and body image. The validity of the test has frequently been questioned. It is of limited value as a means of assessing...
body image. Most clinicians use this test within a battery of projective tests to gain a more global picture of the person.

3. Incompleted Man Test - by Ilg and Ames (1966). This is a modification of the draw-a-person test in which children are asked to add missing body parts to half a man. Evolution of body image is reflected in test performance.

4. Imitation of Gestures - by Berges and Lezine (1965). The experimenter, facing the child, scores the accuracy with which he can reproduce both simple and complicated limb and hand gestures.

5. Perception of Body Conformations - by Adams (1963). This test employs a manikin and/or outlines of bodies with various conformations. As the individual constructs a manikin or selects the outline he perceives as most closely conforming to his own or to some ideal body image, various measures may be collected.

6. Verbal Identification of Body Parts - Benton and others have constructed a test of the accuracy and the speed with which a child can touch or move his various body parts when asked to do so. At one point, the Benton test evaluates body image by the accuracy with which the child can touch or move his various body parts when asked to do so. At one point, the Benton test evaluates body image by the accuracy with which the child can point to the body parts of a picture. The primary criticism against such verbal tests is whether they are testing a basic precept, or merely are a reflection of the quality of a child's vocabulary. The following is an example of a nonverbal and verbal test of body image.

**Concept: Body Awareness**

I. Nonverbal Identification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Point to the boy's</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. head</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. mouth</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. neck</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. nose</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. eyes</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. ears</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. shoulder</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. arm</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. hand</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. leg</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. foot</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l. elbow</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m. fingers</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n. toes</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o. hair</td>
<td>R W</td>
<td>R W</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
II. Verbal Identification

What is this.
What are these?

a. head
b. mouth
c. neck
d. nose
e. eyes
f. ears
g. shoulder
h. arm
i. hand
j. leg
k. foot
l. elbow
m. fingers
n. toes
o. hair
p. knee

Total right

What part of the body do you use in order to hear?
What part of the body do you use in order to see?
What part of the body do you use in order to talk, smile, kiss, or eat?

On which part of the body would you wear

a hat? 
socks? 
gloves?

III. Classification:

Group together (Pictures) things that are part of the body? (10)

All None How Many

Group together body parts that can be found on the head?
(eyes, nose, mouth, ears, hair, face) All None How Many

Group together things that could be worn on the body.
(hat, socks, gloves, shoes, sweater, shirt) All None How Many

Conditions to Facilitate the Development of Body Image

There have been a few proposed body image training programs. Cratty’s (1968) 10-step program for sighted and blind children involves training
in several areas: body planes, body parts, body movements, laterality and directionality. Many clinicians suggest that disorganized or imperfect movement attributes point to a deficit in body image, and that therefore one should concentrate upon movement activities as training tasks (Kephart, 1966). Others have taken a more restrictive view of body image and seem to suggest that its development is signaled by a cognitive-verbal awareness of various body parts. These training programs rely upon practice in verbal identification of body components (atty, 1967).

Following is a list of suggested activities for the classroom to facilitate the development of body image. Also see the Motor Module - Visual Spatial section.

1. Robot man - children move limbs on command
2. Simon says
3. Puzzles of people, animals, that show functional portions of the body
4. Pictures of body parts missing to draw in
5. Life-size drawings
6. Pantomimes of particular occupations
7. Twister
8. Facial expressions matched with pictures of people or people in a story
9. Swimming activities
10. Outlines of body drawn on paper
11. Learning Right - put masking tape on right hand, Raise your right hand. Put your right hand on your head, etc.
12. Imitation of movement
13. Angel in the snow
14. Stepping Stones - eye-foot coordination; child's feet are color coordinated with squares on floor. Child matches colors by putting red foot on red squares, etc.
15. Animal Walks - requires body to assume different positions and functions.
16. Obstacle course - helps child to become aware of space needed to accommodate his body.

Learner Outcome: Body Image: To develop awareness of physical body in space.

Conditions:

Learner Characteristics: Normal children aged two to seven.

Situational Variables: This may be done either in the classroom or out of doors.

Instructional Strategy I: Developmental
Construct an obstacle course in which child must go over, under, through, around, up, down, and between various objects.

Contents: Chairs, desks, blocks, boxes, walking board, any handy equipment found in the classroom.

Instructional Strategy II: Directive
Choose one child to be leader and play follow the leader. Last done outside.
SELF IMAGE

Self Image (Perceptual) Outcome

1. Awareness of self as object
2. Awareness of self as subject
3. Ability to objectively describe physical self (body size, strength, body build, etc.)
4. Ability to deal effectively with feedback from others about self (mirror image)

Self Image - Perceptual

The development of self-image is the part of self development involved with how the individual objectively views certain personal attributes and characteristics. It is the individual's perception of self in terms of concrete, socially important attributes. It is a self description in terms of concrete descriptive characteristics. Body size, strength, body build and energy all play a role in the formation of one's image of self. Self-image is formed as a result of the individual's objective experiences with his body and his abilities. As a result of mirror play and self discovery of his physical abilities, the child comes to view himself as tall or short, fat or thin, strong or weak, active or inactive, etc. Self-image is closely linked with self-esteem. The child grows to form self image. Since the development of self image is an aspect of self concept development, please see the self concept section for the ontogeny.

Closely related to self image is mirror image which refers to how the individual perceives how his teacher and peers see him in concrete descriptive terms. Mirror image differs from self image in that self image involves treating the self as an object while mirror image involves treating self as a subject. Mirror image has often been described as the social self, that part of the self which is derived through one's perceptions of him through their behavior and what they say about him. In schools where there is ability grouping, it doesn't take a child long to figure out how his teacher rate him. Mann (1960) found that children at the top and bottom academically have little difficulty in determining that they have been grouped according to their ability. Mann feels that such negative attitudes as: "I am dumb," or "We're not too smart" may be the result of the attitudes held by the teachers and that teacher acceptance and rejection may have a great deal to do with the formation of positive and negative self concepts in the students.

Some researchers feel that when other's opinion of an individual are too discrepant with that individual's self concept, then the individual will cope by denying or devaluing the opinion of others in order to maintain a consistent self concept. Harvey, Kelly, and
Shapire (1957) employed college students in a study investigating the reactions to unfavorable evaluations of the self made by other persons. They found that their subjects who were exposed to unfavorable evaluations of themselves reacted by: 1) devaluing the source; 2) re-calling the evaluations as more favorable than they actually were; or 3) denying that the source could have made the low evaluation of them. These results support other findings relating to the tendency of the individual to maintain and enhance his self concept. This is in keeping with Festinger's (1957) theory of cognitive dissonance in which the individual attempts to reduce psychological tension by modifying one's cognition or changing one's attitudes. Another example of this was given by Lecky ( ) who illustrates the importance of self image. Lecky tells of a six year old boy who sucks his thumb. Nothing can stop this habit, not even punishment. Suddenly he stops sucking his thumb, and when he was asked why, he said, "Big boys don't suck their thumbs". In other words, he had heard this from an adult probably; he felt that he was big boy, and that didn't fit with his present thumb sucking style of life. One's conception of what one is, one's proper style of life, must fit into the present style of being, and is an important factor in making or breaking habits and informing attitudes.

Measurement of Self Image

There are very few measurement instruments for self image as such. Most self concept tests can be modified to give measures of both self image and mirror image. This can be done by changing the wording of the items from "I am most like..." to "My teachers think I am most like ...". The following are examples of tests which may be used to measure self image and mirror image.

1. Perception Score Sheet by Combs and Soper (1963) - This score sheet measures self generally, self as instrument, self with peers, self with adults, self with teacher, self and school, perceptions of adults, perceptions of teachers, etc.

2. Brown ID's Self Concept Reference Test by Brown (1966) - The original version gives children's perceptions of how their mothers teachers, and peers view them. While looking at a picture of himself, the child is asked 14 to 21 bipolar questions in an either-or format.

Conditions to Facilitate the Development of Self Image

The child should be given opportunities to make objective observations and descriptions of himself. The classroom should be equipped with a full length mirror. If possible, one activity would be to take photographs of each child and put them on the wall. Then have the children describe themselves and each other.

In his drawing of himself, the teacher can assess how far the child has proceeded in the grasp of himself and of the surrounding world.

One teacher in an article from the Instructor implemented the following program in her kindergarten classroom:

10020
"On November 11, both groups were asked to "Draw a picture of yourself for me." Then, for the following nineteen school days, the experimental group participated in physical exercises suggested by me (and the children) for a few minutes each day. We also called attention to how it feels to tiptoe, what happens before you sit down, and so on, at every possible opportunity. Specifically, the exercises included action songs, such as "Did you ever see a Lassie?" The control groups did these songs every day too, but no conscious attention was called to the bodily movements and body parts involved.

To emphasize hands and fingers we felt articles that were sticky, hard, rough, and wet. We counted fingers, stretched them, and made tight fists; caught balls. For legs and feet we marched with high-as-possible; tiptoed; walked in "sock" feet; picked up marbles with our toes; jumped; hopped alternating feet; climbed steps and jumped off; crawled; lay on the floor and lifted legs; skipped; stretched.

When we talked about arms, each child hugged another. Each lifted a little block then a large heavy one. We stretched arms high then touched the floor; folded arms; swung arms; clapped hands in front and behind, high and low. We pushed chairs and pulled them, talking about how it felt when we moved our arms.

When emphasizing bodies and clothes, we counted and manipulated buttons. We talked about clothes worn in hot weather and cold. We talked about boots and put them on and took them off. Pupils rolled on the floor — "Some things feel hard to our bodies; some things feel soft." We swung our legs from our hips and bent over at our waist to touch our feet.

On the fifth day, we discussed our faces and made uninhibited "faces" at each other. Some pupils discovered they could wiggle their ears — some could not. I whispered directions to each child such as "sit under the middle table." The children used their ears.

We pulled the blinds tight; turned out the lights; turned them on again, and looked quickly at each other's eyes. The children were fascinated to see the pupils change. We listened as popcorn popped. Then we ate it, noting which children had lost some teeth and those who had not. We listened to our own and at each other's heart beats with a stethoscope.

Always we talked about what we were doing and how it felt to be doing it.

Activities to Facilitate the Development of Self Image

1. Discuss body parts of dolls with children giving them the correct names.
2. Get a life sized child manikin and discuss body parts.
3. Trace the child's whole outline on large roll paper. Then cut and label parts. Use on bulletin board.
4. Make clay paper weights with hand-print for family gifts.
5. Paint pictures of themselves. Discuss paintings, especially with reference to body parts.
6. Draw facial silhouettes on black paper, cut out and mount on white paper. Can also be used for family gifts.

7. Read stories which contain body parts. For instance Dr. Seuss's, *Foot Book*.

8. Be sure to include a full length mirror in the classroom.

Developmental Outcome: **Recognition of Voice**

Behavioral objective: The child will recognize his voice and be able to distinguish it from others.

Procedure: Let the child listen to taped voices of classmates, and adults. Record his ability to distinguish between adult voices and children's voices, his voice and others.

Activities:

1. Let child listen to his own recorded and live voice, speaking, singing, laughing etc.

2. Let the child listen to the voices of others.

3. Set up a listening center where the children can work independently with recording and listening to their own voices and others.

Developmental Outcome: **Child is Aware of his Physical Characteristics**

Behavioral Objectives: Child can recognize and verbalize about his own physical characteristics.

Procedure: Question the child as to his physical characteristics. Include descriptive terms such as tall, short, fat, thin, eye color, skin color, hair curly or straight, etc. (Accept the child's perception of himself and do not correct his impression.)

Activities:

1. Take photographs of the children. (If possible have these blown up to large size.) Use these for the basis of a learning center display (Photos may later be used as presents for parents.)

2. Let children paint self-portraits on large paper.

3. Discuss these pictures with the children supplying appropriate adjectives if they don't have them. Again accept the child's perception of himself and do not compare him to other children.

4. Have a mirror included in the learning center.

5. Periodically weigh and measure the child. Keep a chart of this information.

6. Circle each child's birthday on the calendar - then have a joint
party to celebrate them all. Let the children share in the preparation for the celebration. Make a powdered-sugar frosting at the table for each child to spread of a graham cracker or cookie. Mix up several different colors for excitement.

Learner Outcome: Self Image: To develop awareness of self as object.

Conditions:

Learner Characteristics: Normal children aged two to seven.

Situational Variables: This may be done inside or outside the classroom.

Instructional Strategy I: Developmental
Take snapshots of each child engaged in some activity and hand these around the room.

Content: A Polaroid camera would be nice since children can see immediate results.

Instructional Strategy II: Directive
Have children lie down on large sheet of paper (butcher paper) and draw outline of body. Have children color in and decorate their features and clothes. Hang these around room or use in role playing.

Content: Butcher paper or large construction paper taped together

Learner Outcome: Self Image: To be able to objectively describe physical self.

Conditions:

Learner Characteristics: Normal children aged three to seven.

Situational Variables: This may occur indoors or out.

Instructional Strategy: Directive
Have children get in circle and describe each other's facial features. Then show mirror to each child and have him describe himself.

Content: One full length, nonbreakable mirror.

SELF CONCEPT

Self Concept - (Cognitive) Outcomes

1. Awareness of self as a separate, individual person.

2. Awareness of own identity in a social world:
   a. self as object;
   b. self as process;

3. Acceptance of self
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 mo.</td>
<td>Reacts to social overtures by a reduction general activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 mos.</td>
<td>Facial animation, stops crying at sight of mother, tries to respond to adult vocalization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 mos.</td>
<td>Vocalizes and smiles in social response, reaches out to grasp objects in environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 mos.</td>
<td>Initiates social smile and displays recognition signs on the sight of mother, begins to laugh in response to adult activity, regards own hand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-4 mos.</td>
<td>Primary circular reactions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6 mos.</td>
<td>Responds to mirror image.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6 mos.</td>
<td>Awareness and exploration of hands and feet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-8 mos.</td>
<td>Withdraws from strangers, display of fear of strangers indicating differentiation of familiar from unfamiliar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-9 mos.</td>
<td>Holds out arms to be picked up, develops strong attachment to mother.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-9 mos.</td>
<td>Develops person permanence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 mos.</td>
<td>shrieks to hear own voice and begins to see cause-effect relationships, beginning of autonomy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-10 mos.</td>
<td>Begins to enjoy games like peek-a-boo, development of object permanence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 mos.</td>
<td>Recognizes reflection in mirror; makes detours and solves easy problems (how to remove bead from jar.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-12 mos.</td>
<td>Responds to own name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-12 mos.</td>
<td>Recognizes physical separateness from mother, has differentiated self from outside world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 mos.</td>
<td>Plays pat-a-cake and nursery games; explores adult's facial features and compares to own; waves bye-bye; has resolved trust vs. mistrust conflict.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-18 mos.</td>
<td>Points to parts of own body and clothing when named.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 mos.</td>
<td>Primarily egocentric; some social relations with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Range</td>
<td>Stage Descriptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19-24 mos.</td>
<td>Refers spontaneously to his own name and to names of other children; uses possessive pronoun for people and things; beginning of feelings of sympathy for family members, empathetic crying.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 mos.</td>
<td>Deepening awareness of adults; tends to treat other children as though they were objects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 mos.</td>
<td>Occupation with own individual activities; consolidating sense of self by obtaining and hoarding possessions; beginning of bowel and bladder control thus beginning of independence; global self concept begins to emerge; calls self by name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-30 mos.</td>
<td>Refers to self as &quot;I&quot;.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 mos.</td>
<td>Involvement in more interpersonal relations; differentiation of self as knower of self from self as thing known.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-36 mos.</td>
<td>Knows his name and where he lives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-36 mos.</td>
<td>Awareness of physical sexual self; awareness of physical differences between sexes; taken pride in things made; shows affection to peers; beginning of feelings of competence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-48 mos.</td>
<td>Beginning of associative play.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48 mos.</td>
<td>Fabricates imaginary companions whom (usually) he can control completely; strong responses to other children; excessive boasting and bragging about self, abilities, relatives, possessions; considerable attempts at verbal domination of others; beginning of peer and teacher attachments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-48 mos.</td>
<td>Beginning of associative play; period of possessiveness indicating step toward identity and articulation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-48 mos.</td>
<td>Engages in collective monologues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48-68 mos.</td>
<td>Beginning of cooperative play; rule making and following.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-72 mos.</td>
<td>Awareness of body becomes stable and well defined; resolution of initiative versus guilt conflict.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48-72 mos.</td>
<td>Knowledge of sensory functions (eyes are for seeing).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48-60 mos.</td>
<td>Moral realism; makes moral judgments on basis of...</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
material damage done; ability to delay gratification; ability to name all major external parts of body.

Relevancy of Self Concept Outcomes

Self concepts has an enormous effect upon the child's behavior. A child who lacks self acceptance or is overconfident, often displays poor social behavior.

Self concept refers to an individual's awareness of his own characteristics and attributes, and the ways in which he is both like and unlike others. This awareness begins during the first year of life, when the child begins to differentiate himself from his environment. It is in the sensorimotor period of cognitive development that the child seems to become aware of me and not me. By age 1, most infants recognize self. This often shows up in mirror play. The child eventually come to think of himself as attractive, or strong, or ugly, or dull, or awkward. He learns to make such referent because of his particular learning experiences. By the time a child is 2 to 3 years old he sees himself as a separate individual and uses such ego words as me, mine, you, yours, we, and ours. Use of the first person singular - I - is felt to be associated with the achievement of self-consciousness. Most children by age 3 know their sex and the physical differences between the sexes. Also by this age most children discriminate racial differences. With experience the child makes more specific observations about himself. For example, rather than thinking "I am a good boy", the child says to himself, "I am a good boy when I'm with people I like." This gradual capacity for differentiation is greatly influenced by other's reactions.

Self concept then is formed as a result of the individual's direct observation of his own conduct and the observations of significant others who formulate beliefs about his personality, convey these beliefs to him, and whom have a status which implies that opinions and judgments must be considered authoritative. If the reflected appraisals of which the self are made up are mainly derogatory, the growing child's attitudes toward himself and others will be derogatory.

In an attempt to understand the self concept and its formulations, it is important to know how it has been defined. In psychology, there are two distinct ways of defining self. One way is to define self as the person's attitudes and feelings about himself, and the other is to regard self as a group of psychological processes which govern behavior and adjustment. The first definition is the self-as-object since it denotes the person's attitudes, feelings, perceptions, and evaluations of himself as an object. In this sense, the self is what a person thinks of himself. The second definition is the self-as-process (self as subject) in which the self is a doer consisting of an active group of processes such as thinking, remembering and perceiving. Some writers use the term ego when referring to self as process, and others use ego to refer to self as object. Self concept has been defined in such various ways that it important to look at some of the differences.

Kagan (1969) refers to the individual's view of himself as self
The child’s self concept consists, in part, of his "evaluation of the degree to which his attributes match those that the culture has designated as desirable."

E. R. Kelley (1962) defines self as that which is achieved and not given. Our concept of ourselves is achieved through social contact with others and must be understood through the terms of others.

The self includes a system of ideas, attitudes, values and commitments. It is a person’s inner world, his center of experience and significance. The self is essentially social, arising in social experience. It is impossible to conceive of self arising outside social experience. According to Horney and Sullivan, the self is made up of reflected appraisals. The self is acquired, it is the only one he has and the only one he knows so they must not strip it away until it can be replaced with a better concept.

Garrow and Wolf say that the self concept is the inclusive, collective, value judgement each person makes about himself. Regardless of the way it is expressed, self concept is never static for the normal individual. All the experiences one has shape it, and thus self is constantly being shaped. Every person seeks positive experiences as he and society define them. These experiences and satisfactions help the individual to maintain a balance among his realities. A troubled youngster has difficulty in maintaining a balance and in achieving the positive experiences that will carry over into his collective judgement of himself.

Theories and research about the self have been greatly influenced by psychodynamic and humanistic psychologies. Freud’s ego was one of the first definitions of self. The ego which is the reality oriented part of the personality becomes differentiated out of the id which is the storehouse of unconscious impulses and desires. This occurs during the first few years of life as the individual begins to deal with the demands of reality. Freud’s third aspect of the personality is the superego which can be compared to the conscience. It is formed as the child internally incorporates parental rules and standards. The ego acts as a go between in an attempt to satisfy the id demands and comply with superego restraints in a way which is acceptable by society.

The neo-Freudian’s protested against the biological orientation of the Freudian position in favor of the importance of social relationships in influencing personality development. Harry Stock Sullivan proposed an interpersonal theory of personality. He defined personality as the creative expression of sociocultural processes, and maintained that it cannot be isolated from interpersonal relations. There are two categories of interpersonal tendencies:

1. Pursuit of satisfactions, such as satisfaction of hunger and
2. Pursuit of security, or maintenance of self-esteem.

Sullivan said that the beginning of the development of the self-concept occurred in infancy in relation to the quality of mothering the child received. Sullivan (1953) lists three personifications of self: good me, bad me, and not me. He sees these personifications growing out of
experiences with the mother which are rewarding or anxiety provoking.

"...there comes an initial personification of 3 phases of what presently will be me, that which is invariable connected with the sentience of my body - and you will remember that my body as an organization of experience has come to be distinguished from everything else by its self-sentient character (knowing through sensing). These beginning personifications of 3 different kinds, "ich have in common elements of the prehended body, are organized in about midinfancy - I can't say exactly when . . . ."

Through the process of empathy, the infant comes to experience the feelings and moods of the mother. When the mother is rewarding and tender, and satisfies the infant's needs, feelings of "good me" develop. The concept "bad me" develops when increasing degrees of anxiety are associated with behavior involving the mothering one. The concept "not me" reflects mental disorder in the form of schizophrenia in which the person has broken with reality and suffers gross perceptual distortions.

Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development is based on biological determinants influenced by social and anthropological factors. Erikson sees crisis situations occurring at various critical periods in the life of the child. Conflicts which arise at each stage in development are resolved in accordance with the strengths and weakness of the basic alternatives which are present. These alternatives are polar qualities which emerge at certain ages. Erikson's stages of psychosocial development are:

1. Trust versus mistrust (infancy)
2. Autonomy versus shame and doubt (2 years)
3. Initiative versus guilt (3 to 5 years)
4. Industry versus inferiority (6 to 12 years)
5. Identity versus confusion (13 to 18 years)
6. Intimacy versus isolation (19 to 21 years)
7. Generativity versus stagnation (22 to 50 years)
8. Integrity versus despair (after 50 years)

Erikson's approach to personality development is an effort to bridge the Freudian theory of infant sexuality (psychosexual stages) and present-day knowledge of children's physical and social development. Erikson's 3 systems of the personality include: the somatic or body the ego or self; the societal or the influence of the culture.

Humanists have given self such a central role that some of them (Rogers, Maslow, and Allport) are referred to as self-theorists. These theorists use phenomenology as a method for studying human behavior. Phenomenology is a method of describing such aspects of behavior as perceiving, feeling, learning, remembering, and thinking. In this view human experience is organized around the figure-ground concept and behavior depends upon how one perceives the world about him.

Carl Rogers (1951) stresses the phenomenological viewpoint where the organism reacts to the field as it is experienced and perceived. In other words, a child responds not to the environment itself, but to the environment as he perceives it.
The maintenance and enhancement of the self-picture is the fundamental human motive. The maintenance of this self concept requires that the person's self picture be appropriately and consistently reflected in everything that happens to him. The enhancement of the self results in self-realization where one's potentialities are fulfilled. The self concept is the basic yardstick against which everything the person does is evaluated. Each new experience is assimilated into the self-picture or reinterpreted to make it fit.

While Rogers does not delineate specific development stages, he outlines the formation of the self concept as follows:

As the infant interacts with his environment, he builds concept regarding himself, his environment, and the relationship between the two. These earliest concepts, of course, are nonverbal and may not be present in his consciousness.

The second factor to influence the infant's perceptual field is the evaluation of himself by others, especially his parents. Through his perceptions of how others feel about him, he begins to regard himself as loved or unloved, worthy or unworthy, etc. The self-concept is developed through the process of earning approval or disapproval from others.

Once the self-concept has been established, biological tendencies of humans to resist change exert pressure on the individual to behave consistently with his concept of what he is. Rogers believes that the central tendency of man is to actualize his potential. This self-actualization tendency and the need for positive self-regard favor behavior consistent with the self concept.

Since the self-concept is formed largely as internalization of the perceived attitudes of others, ideal self-concept is based upon society's standards of worth. Conflict occurs when an individual desires to behave in a manner not in harmony with his ideal self-concept. For example, when the child hits the baby (an act which satisfies certain needs), he learns from his disapproving parents the feeling that he is not loved or lovable. Therefore, for his self-concept to be in harmony with ideal which he feels to be loved by his parents, he must reject the idea that hitting the baby was enjoyable. Full actualization which can be described as full congruence of self and self-ideal is probably impossible.

Carol Rogers is better known for his client-centered method of psychotherapy. It is a nondirective approach in which the person talks out his feelings with assurances that he is accepted for what he is by the therapist. Three themes which dominate Roger's self theory are: self-actualization, self-maintenance, and self-enhancement. Once self-actualization is achieved, the personality must maintain itself. Self-enhancement suggests improvement, making progress, and transcending the status quo.

In one of his books, On Becoming A Person, 1961, Rogers attempts to formulate a general law of interpersonal relationships based on the concept of congruence. The term congruence indicates a matching of experiencing, awareness, and communication. When communication is ambiguous and unclear, experiencing is not matched with awareness.
and incongruence in communications with teachers and other adults. Roger's law of interpersonal relationships states:

"Assuming a minimal willingness on the part of two people to be in contact; an ability and minimal willingness on the part of each to receive communication from the other; and assuming the contact to continue over a period of time; then the following relationship is hypothesized to hold true. The greater the congruence of experience, awareness and communication on the part of one individual the more the ensuing relationship will involve; a tendency toward reciprocal communication with a quality of increasing congruence a tendency toward more mutually accurate understanding of the communications; improved psychological adjustment and functioning in both parties; mutual satisfaction in the relationship. Conversely, the greater the communicated incongruence of experience and awareness, the more the ensuing relationships will involve; further communication with the same quality; disintegration of accurate understanding; less adequate psychological adjustment and functioning in both parties; and mutual dissatisfaction in the relationship."

Snygg and Combs (1964) say that the most important differentiation in the individual's phenomenal field is the development of his phenomenal self.

"What a person does and how he behaves are determined by the concept he has of himself and his abilities. . . . This phenomenal self is the most permanent part of the individual's phenomenal field and is the point of reference for every behavior. The basic need of everyone is to preserve and enhance this self, and the characteristics of all parts of the field are governed by this need. The phenomenal self is so important in the economy of the individual that it gives continuity and consistency to his behavior . . . Whether we have come to think of ourselves as being competent, attractive or repulsive, honest or dishonest, has a tremendous affect on our behavior in different situations. . . . The phenomenal self is the only frame of reference the individual possesses. It is the only self he knows. Whether other persons would agree to his self definitions or not, the self has the feeling of complete reality to the individual derive their meaning from the relation they bear to the phenomenal self. Thus the self concepts we hold select our perceptions and bring them in line with the way we see ourselves. Piaget's work illustrates very clearly this selective effect of the self on perceptions."

Snygggs and Combs also assert that the phenomenal self is the most important part of the field to the learner. They cite cases where pupils undergoing changes of self concept have made startling improvements in their level of achievement. They tell about a boy named Rober who was twelve years old and had never learned to read. Test results showed he had normal intelligence and had no abnormalities. He firmly believed he could not learn and refused to even try in his daily school life. When he had started to read in first grade, the children laughed at him when he made a mistake and continued to laugh when the teacher did not correct the other children's mistakes. Roger laughed with them at first, but suddenly refused to read anymore. He
was treated as an incompetent and so became incompetent. Later in a clinic, a reversal of this treatment had decided effects of improvements. It is the responsibility of the school to help students to perceive themselves in ways that will be more satisfactory to them.

According to Earl Kelley (1962) self is the experiential background and backlog accumulation of the individual, built since life began. Children are influenced by those who surround them and are close to them. A child cannot select who that will be. It is therefore important to make those early associations good. The growing self of the child has to be involved and feel a part of the action as a contributing member. Kelley lists eight characteristics of the fully functioning self. The child:

1. Thinks well of himself.
2. Thinks well of others.
3. Sees that he is a part of and has a stake in others.
4. Sees himself as a part of the world movement in the process of becoming. He expects and can take change.
5. He sees the value of mistakes.
6. He develops and holds human values that are good for all people.
7. He knows no other way to live than in keeping with his own values.
8. He maintains a creative role if always learning and always trying.

Maslow (1962) has some interesting propositions regarding the self concept and its development and maintenance. He makes the point that each person is his own project and makes his own brand of self. He says that no psychological health is possible unless this inner self or essential core is loved and accepted by others as well as by self. Frustration helps the children to tolerate frustration in other and see their needs. Immaturity is the process of gratifying deficiency needs in their proper order; thus, growth always tends toward self-realization.

Allport defines the self as including those aspects of experience which the person believes to be of significance. Allport delineates seven functions of the self, as follows:

1. Sense of body - awareness of the physical organism itself.
2. Self-Identity - the set of ideas a person has about himself which are most important to him.
3. Self-Esteem - the basis upon which the person feels or while.
4. Self-Extension - recognition of the importance of those things, people, and events central to one's existence.
5. Rational coping - thinking about and dealing with tasks in a reasoned way.
7. Propriate striving - conscious, rational processes of working for what one wants; illustrating future orientation and choice.

One study (Gordon, 1969) says children's original images of themselves are formed in their family circles. The most important factors in determining whether or not a child will develop good feelings about
himself is the general climate or 'feeling surrounding him. He first experiences the world and self as one. Having no background of experience to lean on an compare with his present situation, his perceptions of the way he is treated looms large in affecting his concepts of self and the world.

The self concept is not static. A child's idea of himself is constantly in-evolution with new ideas taking the place of the old ones as new experience are presented. Any specific single concept is not formed by any single event. These concepts are a mixture of the accumulated psychological, physical, and environmental factors.

Cognitive developmentalists and social learning theorists have been more concerned with sexual identity than with self theory. According to these theorists, sexual identification begins when the child is labeled "boy" or "girl". This label becomes associated with positive interactions in the home, provides the gender identity basis of an abstract self concept, and is also used to label other (McCandless, 1973). Sex self concept stabilizes around the beginning of the concrete operational period. The child then begins to assimilate and accommodate stereotypes of sex appropriate behavior. McCandless and Evans (1973) report that in their investigation of sex behavior in the nursery school, sex differences in play behavior exist among 3 year old children. Female nursery school teachers reinforce feminine behaviors for all children, regardless of their sex. And also, like sex peers reinforce each other in appropriate sex role behavior.

From birth, the child's sex forms an important aspect of his identity. It is reflected in his name, clothing, and toys (Ferguson, 1970). By age 7, it has become a crucial part of his self concept.

Much evidence has accumulated stressing the relationship of self concept to such things as academic achievement. Wattenburg and Clifford (1965) did a study on the relationship of self concept to school failure with 183 children enrolled in the kindergartens of Detroit. One school served the lower-class neighborhoods, while the other served the middle-class neighborhoods. Children were followed for two and a half years. Data was gathered to determine whether low self concepts correlated with reading difficulty, or whether it was reading failure, which undermined the self concept. The statistical levels of confidence were marginal, but in general the measures of self concepts at the beginning of kindergarten proved to be more predictive of reading achievement two and a half years later than mental ability. From the data, it would appear that self concept stand in a casual relationship to reading achievement.

Brookover and Patterson in 1962 found in their study of self concept with kindergarten children that the concept children held about themselves affected their reading achievement rather than the reading achievement affecting the self concept. Of course failure at any point does negatively affect the self concept of children.

Cummings (1970) investigated the relationship of self concepts of third grader to reading achievement. Positive self-concepts were
found to be related to adequate reading achievement. The most significant differences were found between groups based on reading level in their own classrooms. Children's reading achievements in comparison to that of others in their own classroom seemed more related to their self-concept than achievement in comparison to one's own anticipated reading achievement. She also found that girls seemed less positive in their self concepts than were boys.

Combs and Spear in 1963 found that kindergarten children's self concepts were predictive of their academic achievement in first and second grade.

Berry and Wolf (1965) concluded that the self concept affects learning in all areas.

Sears in 1961 worked experimentally with the relationship of early socialization experiences to self concepts and gender roles in middle childhood. This was carried on at Stanford University. Five self concept scales and an K-F instrument were given to 84 girls and 75 boys in the 6th grade. The mothers of these children had been interviewed 7 years earlier. In the case of both sexes, high self concept were associated with high academic achievement, small family size, early ordinal position in the family and high maternal and paternal warmth. With boys, high self concept was associated with low father dominance in the marital relationship. In both sexes, femininity was associated with poor self concepts. Where there is only one child in the family the child naturally gets more attention and has no competition but the everlasting handicap of being smaller, younger and less effective competitors and at any one time may have less talent for making themselves seem worthy of admiration within the family reference. Thus, it is to be expected that the older children have better self concepts than the younger ones.

Trent (1977) investigated the relationship between the self concept and expressed attitudes toward others among black children aged 9 to 18 years. He found that the most self-accepting group expressed more positive attitudes toward both blacks and whites than the least self-accepting group. There was no significant difference between the most self-accepting and the ambivalent groups. Since clinical research has shown that a child develops an awareness of "I" before "they", the data here may be interpreted as suggesting that if a child does not accept himself as a person of worth, he may tend to perceive others in the same light.

These research findings point to the importance of the development of good self concept to academic achievement, interpersonal relations, and social adjustment. The child who is able to accept himself will be better able to accept others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES RELATED TO SELF-CONCEPT</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good Self Concept</td>
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<tr>
<td>Positive attitudes toward others.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Good Self-Concept</td>
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<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mother with high self esteem</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mother's favorable attitude toward</td>
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<tr>
<td>More likely to be conformist; persuasive.</td>
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<tr>
<td>High Anxiety.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Psychosomatic symptoms.</td>
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<td>Feeling of depression.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Insecure and fearful in emotionally challenging situations.</td>
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<td>Acceptant of blame in contact with adults.</td>
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<td>Overly aggressive toward peers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Withdrawal.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Self-conscious.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Feeling of derogation by others; feelings of failure; self-criticism.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dependency on others.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comparative closeness to mother rather than father</td>
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<tr>
<td>Low academic achievement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FACTORS NOT SIGNIFICANTLY RELATED TO SELF-CONCEPT:**
- Status
- Income
- Education level
- Height
- Physical attractiveness
- Amount of punishment received
- Amount of time spent with parents

Coopersmith, U.C. Davis
childbearing and parenthood; no preferences as to sex of child; willingness to accept responsibility of parenthood.

Being the oldest or only child in the family.

Parental attitudes which give the child the feeling of being loved, wanted, accepted, and respected.

Parental support and encouragement.

Clearly defined limits and goals (neither a permissive nor democratic family management).

Parental discussion and reasoning with child.

Punishment by restraint, denial, isolation.

Relatively high demands and expectations for performance.

Deviancy of Development of Self Concept

The young child is egocentric and self centered. He is concerned with "I". To adults the differentiation between "mine" and "ours" is a relatively simple idea. To the young child, especially if he is developing more slowly than his peers, this differentiation is a major concept, and one that must be genuinely felt and acted upon if an interaction is to take place. An important self development goal is for each individual to achieve his own personal identification, recognizing his relationship and responsibilities to the group and his privileges as a group member. Such differentiation is difficulty for the retarded child.

Curtis (1964) compared the self concept of the mentally retarded adolescent with certain other groups of varying mental abilities. He found that the mentally retarded adolescent had more negative self concepts and negative ideal self concepts than any other groups. The greatest difference in scores on the self concept test was between the mentally retarded group and the intellectually superior group. The greater the intelligence of the group, the more positive was the self concept.

Alighess (1961) also investigated self concept among children of varying degrees of intelligence. He found that mentally retarded children more generally tend to overestimate success than average or bright children. Bright children tend to rate themselves most highly, retarded children next highly, and average children least highly. Mentally
retarded children had less realistic self concepts than bright or average children. Self ratings of mentally retarded children are also less reliable than those of average or bright children.

Carpenter and Busse (1969) measured self-concept of first and fifth grade black and white children using a game called "Where Are You?", which consisted of self-rating on dimensions such as strong, brave, well-liked, smart etc. Their sample of first grade "ego girls reflected a significantly lower self-concept than their white female peers. Also fifth grade subjects of both sexes indicated a lower self concept than did first grade subjects. Overall, girls showed a more negative self concept than boys.

Brookover, LePere, and Hamachek, working with the hypothesis that one's self-concept is a factor in setting the functional limits of one's ability to achieve in academic tasks, set down strategies for improving self-concepts of students whose academic performance was believed to be impeded by low self-concepts. Three different strategies were tested:

a) Enhancement of the academic expectations and evaluation of parents for their children;

b) introduction of an "expert" to communicate reinforcing information to the students regarding their academic ability;

c) introduction of a counselor who holds high expectations for the students and evaluates them favorably.

They found that experiments using experts and counselors to work with students did not result in significant changes in self-concept or academic achievement. The conclusion drawn from this information is that attempt to induce change in self-concept of ability and behavior of students by persons other than the significant others of those students are not likely to successful. A counselor cannot be very effective when he is working against the parents. Accepting the counselor's view when it differs from the parent's view involves the rejection of parental views—which is extremely important to a majority of students. It is interesting to note that only where there was a significant change in self concept of ability was there any change in academic performances.

Measurement of Self Concept

The problem of measurement of self concept has arisen due to the difficulty in defining self concept. Most of the current techniques for measuring self involve self-ratings or self-description. Occasionally ratings of an individual by other people such as teachers or peers are used. One problem of measurement occurs because many investigators devise their own measure of the self, since they have their own definitions for it. As a result, much of the measurement research is not comparable. Another problem is that many of the measures are filled with value assessments so that the child feels compelled to answer in a socially desirable way. These problems should be kept in mind when reviewing the self concept literature.

List of Measurements

1. The self-Concept Inventory was developed by Sears (1963) for use with 5th and 6th grade children. It is composed of categories in
which children spontaneously have feelings and make judgments about their own effectiveness and competence. Self ratings responses provide two scores that are relevant to the self-esteem dimension. They are SCI: self-satisfaction, and SCI: comparative rating. Uncorrected split-half reliabilities for the two scores are .94 and .95.

2. The self-Criticism and Ideas of References scales were originally designed for college men (Sears, 1937). These are both self-rating scales. The S-C questions involve satisfaction with the self's physical abilities or achievement in school or social relations, and those which express guilt about certain adequacies. The I-R questions are oriented toward hypersensitivity to other people's actions or feelings toward the self. The corrected odd-even reliability coefficients are .81 and .82.

3. The Femininity scale was derived by revision of the Fe scale contained in the California Psychological Inventory (Gough, 1957). Hi score indicates high femininity. It is a self-rating scale.

4. The Self-Aggression scale (Sears, 1961) contains items expressing hostility toward the self and involves feelings of self-derogation. It is also a self-rating scale.

5. The Laurelton Self Attitude Scale (Guthrie, et al., 1961).

6. The Hostility Scale (Culbertson, et al., 1961) consists of 100 items in which the subjects are asked to agree or disagree with a suggested response to an angering situation.

7. The Social Value-Need Scale (Bozduc, 1960) presents 95 situations in which the subjects are asked to choose between an alternative that reflects social values and one which reflects personal needs.

8. The Verbal Self-Attitude Scale (Butler, Guthrie, & Gorlow) deals with discrepancies from what is socially desirable.

9. The Brown IDS Self-Concept Referent Test requires the young child to characterize himself on 14 bipolar dimensions (happy-sad), using for specific referents: a. how he perceives himself; b. how he perceives himself to be viewed by his mother; and c. his teacher; d. other kids.

10. Self-Concept Measurement of Retardates (Guthrie, Butler, Gorlow & White, 1964) consists of a series of 50 pairs of colored slides, with the same protagonist throughout (always a woman.). The entire series was replicated with a new protagonist and a new cast, but depicting the same need. The subject was asked to choose the slide in which the protagonist was most like herself and to choose the slide in which the protagonist was doing the best thing. This instrument gives two sets of choices for each subject, a reported self and an ideal self.

11. Lipsitt Self Concept Scale contains a list of 22 traits descriptive adjective phrase, each prefaced by, "I am ..." and followed by a 4 point rating scale from "not at all" to "all the time."
12. The Learner Self Concept Test is composed of 21 separate items. Subjects are shown drawings representing a particular classroom situation and are asked two questions about them. Responses indicate either positive or negative character identification.


14. The California Preschool Social Competency Scale (CPSCS) was designed to measure the adequacy of preschool children's interpersonal behavior and the degree to which they assume social responsibility and independence. This scale: 1. Provides a relative index of the child's social competence, permitting comparisons with children of the same age, sex, and socioeconomic status; 2. permits investigation of the effects of environmental and characterological variables on the child's development as differing ages; 3. can be useful in predictive studies of school achievement; 4. can be helpful in the evaluation of deviant groups; and 5. can be useful as a criterion measure of the effectiveness of different interventions at the preschool level. It is designed for use in evaluating the social competence of children ages 2 years and 6 months through 5 years and 6 months. The scale consists of 30 items which are representative samples of the critical behaviors in the preschool child's social functioning.

15. The Cain-LeVine Social Competency Scale was developed to provide a method of measuring the social competence of trainable mentally retarded children. It consists of 44 items divided into 4 subscales: Self Help, Initiative, Social Skills, and Communications.

16. The Thomas Self Concept Values Test assesses the personal self-concept value of pre-primary and primary aged children.


18. Preschool Self Concept Picture Test (Woolner, 1966) measures self concept, ideal self concept, and the discrepancy between them. It is non-verbal and contains 4 separate but comparable subsets for Negro and Caucasian boys and girls.

19. The Self Concept and Motivation Inventory: What Face Would you Wear? (SCAMIN)

Conditions to Facilitate Self Concept Outcomes

Since self concept is to a great extent influenced by others and is predictive of school achievement and reading ability, certain implications can be drawn for the teachers of young children. Teachers should be aware of their pupils' self concepts and should provide experiences which would encourage each child to build a healthy concept of himself. Without a positive view of himself, a child may be successful in the formal school setting. The studies which investigated the self concepts of elementary school children and adolescents indicate that children who viewed themselves positively, (Horowitz, 1939).
Jersild (1966) found that children have the capacity for understanding themselves more than educators have ever realized. He also believes that the most important discovery boys and girls can make, is the discovery about themselves. He states that the best way for teachers to help children understand themselves is for the teacher to have help to increase her own self-understanding.

Lane (1964) in speaking of the teachers' impact on the children's self concept, says that only as a teacher understands a child's feelings does he know what he is teaching a child. Exposure to materials does not guarantee learning. A child's feelings about adults and authority are part of his self concept. This includes his feelings about how much initiative he is willing to take, his extensions of himself to others, his eagerness to find out things, his sense of responsibility, and his drawing conscience.

A teacher has limited opportunity to insure a healthy self concept, but she is unlimited in opportunities to relate to the child in ways that are growth producing and restorative of an adequate self. Lane's study indicated over 300 either reassures a child of his worth or fails to reassure him. The younger the child, the more influence the teacher has.

Bailer and Charles (1961) found that group experiences and the enacting of different roles in social play and dramatization were important to young children for proper development. They felt that as a child enacted out the different roles, they learned the responses they could make to others and how they felt. In addition and more important for the self concept, they learned what concept they held of themselves, which before was unknown to them. Bailer referred to these as the different "me's".

1. The me that I see.
2. The me that others see.
3. The me that I think others see.
4. The me that I think others think I see.
5. The me that I'd like to be.

The child who gains correct views of himself can work through many of his problems and solve them. Through a child's social experience with others, he is able to learn whether he is brave or cowardly, handsome or ugly, quickwitted or slow, leader or follower, prophet or clown and in addition, what it feels like to be each. This process works in a fairly open fashion. Children are honest and they will call each other all kinds of names and tell each about his behavior. In later years the judgements are inferred, but they still operate to touch and influence the picture one has of himself. Thus, the self concept which is central and integrative to the person cannot be formulated without reference to social interaction and membership in groups.

Bessell and Palomares (1967) have developed a Human Development Program for very young children which involves helping children to develop a sound emotional outlook. A first step in this process is to help the child overcome his fears about such things as his safety, his acceptance by others, his helplessness, and his lack of power.
The objectives of their curriculum include the achievement of improved social interaction skills, self-awareness, and mastery. In their program, they use the Magic Circle which puts eight to twelve children and the teacher in a smaller (inner) circle with the remaining children seated in a larger, concentric circle. The children in the inner circle participate while those in the outer circle observe. The teacher introduces a topic for discussion and the group works toward the clarification and analysis of children's feelings and perceptions. The program is designed to shift leadership responsibility gradually from the teacher to the children. Bessell maintains that the key to successful human relations training is involvement. As responsibility is divided, involvement is multiplied. In order to promote self-responsibility, definite opportunities for this must exist in the classroom.

Carlton and Moore (1965) investigated the use of self-directive dramatization (pupil's own interpretation of a character in a story acted out), in a reading program for disadvantaged elementary school children, on improvement of reading and self-concepts. Changes in behavior did occur and gains in reading also occurred, although the two were not significantly correlated. It was felt that children became more adept at meeting their "on needs when they were permitted to choose their own reading material, and that the children were helped to work and play together, share, have better opinions of themselves and others, and become more stable.

Crawford (1962) determined the effect of art experiences on the self concept of retardates. Creative and directed art experiences result in differential effects on personal adjustment. He found that creative art experiences aided the mentally retarded in achieving better personal adjustment. Observations during the art sessions also provided indications that the creative group profited from the art experiences in respect to degree of self-expression and self-awareness. Judgments of the drawings of the creative group offered evidence of increase in self concept, self involvement, and overall quality.

In order to facilitate self concept development, a program was set up in the Orange Public School in Orlando, Florida. Positive changes in self-concept, as evidenced by data obtained by teachers and skilled observers completing adjective checklists, resulted from the following program:

Student activities - silhouette drawings of each child were posted in the classroom; moving pictures and slide pictures were taken of children engaged in their regular class activities and shown in the classroom; individual and group counseling services were offered; tutoring was provided by student teachers from local colleges; nearby museums and the Kennedy Space Center sponsored special programs.

Parent activities - the program was explained to parents by a counselor who visited each home; discussion groups with counselor, teachers, principals, and parents were held; the movies and slides of the children were shown at PTA meetings; visitation of their places of employment by the children were arranged by parents; children were accompanied by parents on field trips.
Teacher activities - teachers were trained in the Plandory International Analysis Procedure from the Handbook of Research on Teaching, which involves rating classroom procedures and student involvement; teachers were also trained to use the Carman Scales for Empathy, Congruence and Positive Regard, and Success Promotion Scale; teachers were asked to stop at the end of each hour and look at each student to determine whether the student had experienced failure during the last hour, and if so, to provide some specific success experience during the next hour.

Dinkmeyer (1971) has said that educators have stressed intellectual goals while ignoring social and emotional objectives. It seems that the reason this has been so is that the teacher has not been prepared to deal with human feelings in the classroom. Yet, the teacher must be able to cope with these feelings, and deal with guidance in empathizing, listening, and understanding the children's feelings, for according to research done, a child's development will suffer if his feelings and emotions are ignored, for affect and cognition are in-separable in every learning situation. Teachers must concentrate on developing human beings, not just on teaching subject matter. This is the purpose of education, and it can be accomplished through planned experiences that personalize and humanize the educational experience such as role playing, open ended stories, and interaction.

Other activities which could be used to develop the self concept are art projects, informal discussions with the children seated in a circle on the floor, literature, music, and socio-dramatic play. The teacher may want to introduce a self-concept unit such as "Nobody Just Like Me" and involve the children in a discussion of physical differences in people. The children may then make a bulletin board of cut out pictures of different faves from magazines. In addition, life size tracing or actual photographs may be put around the room. Suggested books concerning the self concept include:

No Fighting No Biting
Feeling Blue
Mommies are for loving
Frances Facemaker
Play with Me
What Color is Love
My Friend John
Just Like Me
A Bad Day
The Joy of Being Me
The Rabbit Brothers
Goggles

Other suggestions include the following list of methods to help develop the positive self concept of children.

Methods to Help Develop Positive Self Concept of Children

1. The child experiences success at home, school and in play and academic attempts.

2. The use of democratic child rearing practices:
3. The child finds his own identity through identifying with others.
4. Develop trust by having consistency in behavior of caretaker.
5. Develop trust by having warm accepting relationships.
6. Allow the child to develop independence by letting him explore and make his own decisions. Reinforce such behavior.
7. Permit the child to express his emotional feelings through play. This increases awareness of personal feelings that the child is unable to express.
8. Encourage self acceptance and openness toward others by:
   a. recognizing individuality
   b. listening and respecting children's opinion and emotions.
   c. accepting feelings, aggressiveness, rough tumble play of exuberant children
   d. planning activities that allow child to use his abilities.
   e. allowing opportunities for children to be friends.
9. Help the child to perceive emotions correctly by being honest with yourself and child. The child can develop concepts of inadequacy and distorted perceptions of self and world when his behavior and feelings have become isolated from each other.
10. Set realistic expectations adjusted to the child's ability. The goals must be in keeping with the work the child can do and an accordance of the child's concept of self.
11. Provide a variety of stimuli so that the child is able to select material covering a wide level of difficulty.
12. Provide for productive and creative work through role playing.
13. Provide the child with immediate feedback. This helps the child to make his own evaluation and allows him to know the evaluation of others. Adult social approval or successful completion of task is best.
14. In handling classroom discipline:
   a. use positive discipline
   b. limits must be clear and realistic
   c. try to let the class design its own code of conduct within the classroom limits.
   d. The teacher should expect both limits and code of conduct to be modified as the class develops. The child should be able to make choices appropriate to his age and comprehensions.
15. Establish a good home/school relationship so that the parents and teacher can work together for the good of the child.
17. Encourage children to act, behave, and live in accordance with their choice.
18. Develop appropriate sex role identification by providing the child with an appropriate model to imitate.
19. Provide enough adult or peer attention for acceptable behavior, so that it is not necessary to resort to quarreling to get attention.
20. Provide for the child to see himself as others see him - photographs, video playback techniques, tapes.
21. Assigning the child chores and self helps to develop a sense of responsibility to himself and others.

Learner Outcome: Self Concept: To develop awareness of own identity in social world.
Conditions:

Learner Characteristics: Normal children aged three to seven.

Situational Variables: May occur indoors or outdoors.

Instructional Strategy I: Developmental
Have children devise and perform their own puppet show.

Content: Puppets and puppet stage.

Instructional Strategy II: Directive
Have children sit in large circle. Assign different roles to several children and provide them with a situation. For example:
Mary = mother
Joey = father
Susie = child
"The child has been naughty and has taken money from mother's purse without permission. The father has just come home from work. What do the parents say to the child and what does the child do?"

Self Esteem

1. Awareness of feelings of personal worth
2. Belief in own abilities and competencies (Self confidence)
3. Ability to solve problems
4. Ability to express own preferences
5. Ability to accept minor failures

Self Esteem Ontogeny

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Behavior</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 months</td>
<td>Vocalizes and smiles in social response, reaches out to grasp objects in environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 months</td>
<td>Begins to laugh in response to adult activity, observes own feet and hands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-9 months</td>
<td>Development of strong attachment to mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 months</td>
<td>Shrieks to hear own voice and begins to see cause-effect relationships; beginning of autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 months</td>
<td>Makes detours and solves easy problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-12 months</td>
<td>Responds to own name; recognizes separateness from mother and from outside world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 months</td>
<td>Defends and strengthens sense of self by obtaining and hoarding possessions, beginning of bowel and bladder control thus more independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-24 months</td>
<td>Skill play</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Self Concept has probably been more confused with self esteem by theorists and researchers than with any other aspect of the self. In this work, the difference between self concept and self esteem is explained in the following way. Self concept is the cognitive sense of self and involves the individual's ideas about who he is and how he is different from others. Self esteem is the affective part of the self concept and involves the individual's subjective evaluation of himself, i.e., how he feels about who he is. McCandless (1973) refers to self esteem as the value a person puts on himself and his behavior. It involves how he feels about himself and how he judges himself in terms of *goodness* or *badness*. Coopersmith (1969) also defines self esteem as the evaluative dimension of the self concept.

Self esteem is so closely linked to self concept that young children often confuse the truth about themselves with other's evaluations of them. For example, children are often given such value judgements as, "you're such a big man!" This type of feedback influences not only the development of the self concept but also the child's evaluation of that self. There is some evidence that self esteem is also related to body build or somatotype, although this has been a controversial area. Felker (1968) found that heavy boys reported less positive self concepts than aged peers of normal build. Not much is known concerning this relationship in girls. However, it is quite reasonable to assume that a child of poor physique would not receive as many positive reactions from peers as one of normal build. Also the success a child experiences in sports is dependent on his build and physical agility.

McCandless (1973) reports that self esteem is influenced by parental child rearing practices. There is evidence that parents who encourage the child's autonomy and who accept their children will enhance the development of self esteem in the child. Dreyer and Haupt (1966) found that kindergarten children whose self evaluations are more autonomous are more likely to manifest independence, achievement behavior, and stable aspiration levels than children whose self evaluations are less autonomous. The autonomous children are also more likely to come from homes not characterized by high material control. Coopersmith (1967) found that high self esteem during preadolescence (and presumably before) was associated with two basic patterns of parental behavior: parental acceptance of the child and the style with which parents manage their children's behavior. Acceptance involved parental expression of affection, demonstration of concern about child's problems encountered by their children, general harmony within the home, friendly joint activities, and the availability of parents to provide well outlined, confident help for their children when help is needed. Management style involved such things as providing a set of clear and fair rules and demands, acting firmly and consistently in applying these demands, and respectfully allowing freedom for children to act. Coopersmith
also found that parents of low self esteem children used physical punishment and love withdrawal disciplinary techniques more often. These parents conveyed to their children that acceptance is conditional on what they do rather than on who they are. Since parents provide more feedback to the child during the early years and also provide models, they have a tremendous influence on the child's self concept and self esteem.

Concerning self esteem, race, and socioeconomic level, studies have been done which show that blacks have a less self esteem than whites. However, when socioeconomic level is a better indicator than race, some recent investigators have found a reversal in past trends. White and Richmond (1970) found that disadvantaged school children reported consistently higher self esteem than their advantaged peers, regardless of race, geographical residence, or the extent to which their schools were racially mixed.

Katz and Zigler (1967) report that children generally become less positive in their self evaluations with age. Morse (1964) found that the attitudes of the pupils about themselves and school become more negative between grades 3 and 5. However, recovery starts with grade 7 and by grade 11 both self and social self are equivalent or better than grade 3. Morse also reports that the school self seems to be more negative than the social self. This may indicate that teachers have communicated a sense of personal failure to pupils or that the sights of the students have been raised with regard to school performances. Also involved may be more experience, advances in cognitive development, and peer evaluations which produce more awareness of the child's role in academic life.

Epstein and Komorita (1971) found that children whose self-evaluations are low or negative are also characterized by higher anxiety and generally less favorable reaction from peers, and are most external in their locus of control. There is much evidence to point out that children with low self esteem are often hampered in academic areas. Among educators, there are two different ways of viewing self-esteem and academic achievement. Most early childhood educators argue that a positive self concept and self esteem are necessary for successful academic achievement. Therefore, they feel early childhood programs should be designed to facilitate the development of self esteem. Others argue that in order to have self-esteem, the child must master meaningful tasks and be able to solve challenging problems. Therefore, the focus of programs should be on problem solving skills with the development of self esteem as a by-product. Spivack and Shure (1974) have developed a cognitive program for the development of problem solving skills in preschool and kindergarten children which enables them to cope better with their interpersonal problems that arise during their day, they will be able to cope better than before and will manifest this improvement in changes in overt behavioral adjustment. They feel that in order to achieve this level of overt functioning, developing children must first have certain language and cognitive skills needed to solve problems, and they must be taught to use these skills in real interpersonal difficulties. Their training program involves games and dialogues between adults and children which teach word concepts.
and develop cognitive skills.

Probably the best statement of the relationship of self esteem and academic achievement is that they are closely interrelated and influence each other directly. The relationship is also influenced by the individual's experiences of success and failure. A positive self concept and self esteem are necessary but not sufficient for academic success. Rogers (1961) points out the importance of unconditional acceptance of the person in order for feelings of worth and self esteem to develop. To enhance the child's self worth ton, it is necessary to convey to him that he is an acceptable person although certain aspects of his behavior may not be.

Measurement of Self Esteem

The majority of self measures for young children are self report inventories. Self esteem measurements involve the child's evaluation of himself in terms of how well he feels about himself. There are very few self esteem instruments as such. Most researchers are some type of self concept test to measure self esteem. The following is a list of some available instruments most of which have been used with the school aged child.

1. Children's Self Social Constructs Test (CSSCT): Preschool Form. Self Esteem Subtest - by B. Long and E. Henderson. This is a self report nonverbal, projective technique. Self esteem is assessed by having the child respond nonverbally by pointing to or pasting a circle representing himself next to other symbols in a picture presented to him.

2. The Osgood Semantic Differential - this instrument involves responding to a given stimulus through marking twenty-one sets of adjectives scales. On each scale, the child makes a check mark to indicate his position between the two objectives. This method is designed to reduce defensive responses ("make myself look good") and at the same time to avoid difficulties of scoring found in the projective devices.

3. The Self Esteem Inventory by Coopersmith - this contains 53 items, and the child makes a check mark in response to each. For example: "There are lots of things about like me unlike me myself I'd change if I could."

4. The QSort Technique this is method of quantifying the self attitude in which the child is presented with a set of statements printed one to a card. He is required to arrange the statement in a normalized distribution according to a relevant criteria, such as the extent to which the statement describes himself. The method hypothesizes the ability to measure in standardized form the self image by means of a sort of self and the ideal image by measure of an ideal self. The relationship between the two sorts yields an index of self esteem based upon the self concept.

Conditions to Facilitate the Development of Self Esteem

One of the best ways for a teacher to promote self esteem is by providing successful experience. Opportunities for problem solving will help to enhance the child's feelings of competence. Coopersmith
(1961) gives some common-sense (no empirical evidence) prescriptions to building self-esteem in the classroom; providing success experiences; individualized instruction; positive expectations of each child; providing definite; attainable and supervised goals; setting reasonable limits of acceptable behavior; treating each child with attention and respect. Self-concept can be raised by non-academic means and then directed towards academic skills. Activities that provide internal feedback (rather than relying on the teacher) are suggested—programmed materials, arts and crafts, dramatics.

Dorrell (1954) listed ways that a teacher could help children to gain self-esteem and improve their self concept. She lists seven suggestions to the teacher who wished to help improve children’s self concept and learnings:

1. Help each child feel wanted and liked. This aids in satisfying his need for status and approval.
2. Provide opportunities for self help through discussions or dramatizations so that children have a chance to practice and apply their knowledge to themselves.
3. Help pupils evaluate themselves. This gives them a chance to talk and think objectively about themselves, their work and their progress. It gives experience in emotional security.
4. The teacher’s role should be to clarify and guide rather than tell or dictate.

Purkey (1967) reviewed the findings of a number of researchers and made common-sense predictions of classroom procedures which should enhance self concept and self esteem. He found that one of the most important characteristics of a helper is his attitude toward the people he is trying to help. A personal concern with the people with whom he works as worthy and dignified human beings is necessary. When students feel that teachers value them, they are likely to value themselves.

There is correlation between positive relationships between a learner-centered and supportive group atmosphere and positive attitudes toward the self. Self concept correlates to the degree to which teachers are calm, accepting, supportive, and facilitative. There are negative correlations between self concept and domineering, threatening, grim, and sarcastic teacher behavior.

Purkey’s suggestions for teachers are to provide success experience, demonstrate faith in the student’s ability to achieve, and point out areas of accomplishment rather than focusing on mistakes.

Through a developing sense of self, (Kuethe, 1968) a child begins to believe he is capable of good work and certain skills. Teachers can help children improve their self concept by providing them with feedback about themselves; thus, leading them to correct answers for situations. No matter how long a child practices some desired activity, he will not improve unless he gets definite feedback. When children lose self or ego in a situation, they are highly involved and motivated to work for satisfactory conclusions. With such strong identifications any failure, is taken as personal failure. Thus, when teachers enough heavy involvement in a task, they have an obligation to insure that the child meet some success. Teachers should not encourage children...
to take a personal stake in everything they do. The developing self concept must be considered and protected.

Norma Randolph and William Howe (1966) in a program of Self-Enhancing Education found that students feel strong and worthy if they have the help of parents and teachers and that this in turn leads children to have higher achievement by getting them involved in solving their own problems. Unproductive achievement and conduct is the result of low esteem of oneself. This report, based on the work of 200 teachers and 6000 youngsters show that the most effective way of developing stronger motivation, higher achievement, and socially productive behavior is by improving the self-image a child has and by developing, increasing, and expanding self-esteem. This is done through twelve specific processes in which a child is guided to become more involved in his own education and development. These twelve self-enhancing processes are:

1. Problem solving - confronting children with their problems and giving them the responsibility for solving them.
2. Self-management to initiate innate power within.
3. Changing negative reflections to positive images through helping children to overcome the perceptions that children have of adults who see children as weak and unworthy.
4. Building bonds of trust through risking confrontations of feelings in order to make communications clear.
5. Setting limits and expectations that are stable and acceptable.
6. Freeing and channeling energy in productive ways.
7. Breaking patterns of unproductive and repetitive behavior.
8. Changing talking to reporting.
9. Developing physical competencies to enable children to overcome low self-esteem that results from their concerns over inadequacies.
11. Using self-evaluation with children to overcome their impression that evaluation is centered in adults.
12. Breaking curriculum barriers so that children can move at their own rate.

Learner Outcome: Self Esteem: To develop ability to express own preferences.

Conditions:

Learner Characteristics: All children aged two to seven

Situational Variables: Classroom which contains large variety of multisensory cognition centers.

Instructional Strategy I: Developmental
Allow children to choose where they wish to spend their time as long as they do not exceed the maximum number at each center.

Content: Provide a large variety of learning centers such as fruits, (science); counting beads and seriation materials (math); house play area; audition area (phonograph or cassette); etc.

Instructional Strategy II: Directive
Give children a choice which allows them to express a preference.
Examples, "Do you want orange juice or apple juice?" "Do you want to paint or play at the water table?" "Do you want a red crayon or green crayon?" "Do you want to work a puzzle or cut and paste?"

**IDEAL SELF**

**Ideal Self Outcomes**

1. Awareness of ideal self - "the me I'd like to be."
2. Ability to describe ideal self.
3. Ability to set goals for what child wishes to become.

**Relevancy of Ideal Self**

Ideal Self is the "me I'd like to be". It represents the self which the individual aspires to become. It is the self as one would like to see himself in his best moments. Ideal self involves the individual's highest aspirations and goals which he holds for himself. The concept of ideal self arose from the work of Freud and his theory of personality (id, ego, superego). The superego, according to Freud, is the last aspect of personality to develop. It represents the traditional values and standards of society which the child learns first from his parents. It involves the parental "do's" and "don'ts". Freud saw the superego as composed of the 1) conscience and the 2) ego ideal. The ideal self then involves what one considers to be good. So when one lives up to his ideals, then the conscience takes over to reprimand the self for being "bad".

Alfred Adler (1927) one-time associate of Freud, was influenced by Freud. The major points of Adler's individual psychology are:

1. The basic dynamic force behind human activity is striving from a feeling of inferiority towards superiority. Adler places particular emphasis on organ inferiority, a motivating force because of compensations; the striving to maintain the equilibrium.
2. Striving receives direction from the self-ideal.
3. The self-ideal or goal is largely unconscious and not understood by the individual.
4. The goal becomes the final cause and provides the key for understanding the individual.
5. All psychological processes are consistent with the goal (self image). Self-consistent personality structure is called "style of life" by Adler.
6. The apperceptive scheme, an individual's opinion of himself and the world, influences every psychological process.
7. The individual cannot be considered apart from his social situation; all life problems are social problems.

Adler saw the individual as striving for superiority or striving to
realize the ideal self'. He has much in common with the humanists such as Maslow and Rogers who call this process self-actualization. However, Maslow and Rogers see the individual as conscious of the ideal self which represents a goal to be attained.

Most of the research on ideal self involves the investigation of the discrepancy between real self and ideal self in adults. A discrepancy scores is found by measuring perceived self (real self) and ideal self and taking the difference between the two. There are a few studies with children and implications can be made about children from the adult studies. Some people such as Rogers believes that as the real and ideal selves become convergent, the person is much better adjusted and happier. Kayz and Zigler (1967) take a different view which will be explained below. In a study of male high school juniors, Harlon, Hofstaetten, and O'Connor (1954) found:

1. The correlation between the self-concept and the ideal self tends to be positive.
2. Self-Ideal congruence is positively related to total adjustment.
3. I.Q. and age of the subjects bore no significant relationship with self-ideal congruence or measures of adjustment.
4. Maladjustment does not necessarily require self-concept to be negatively related to the ideal self.

Bruce (1958) studied self-ideal discrepancies for sixth graders and found that children with large discrepancies were significantly more anxious on the children's Manifest Anxiety Scale and were rated by observers as being significantly less secure. Block and Thomas (1955) provided evidence that people with small discrepancies may be just as maladjusted as people with large discrepancies. They found that the people in the middle who have neither high nor low congruence between perceived self and ideal self are better adjusted. Martire (1966), using male college students, found that the discrepancy between the self-ideal and self concept was correlated with the measurement of need achievement had a significantly greater discrepancy between their self-ideal and self ratings.

Achenback and Zigler (1963) employed developmental theory and found that real-ideal-self discrepancy was positively related to the individual's level of maturity. They said that the higher the maturity level, the greater the individual’s capacity for incorporating social demands, mores, and values. Also, they cite Werner and Piaget, who have discovered a greater degree of cognitive differentiation at higher levels of development. The more mature individual should use more categories and make finer distinctions within each category than the less mature person. Kayz and Zigler, (1967) assessed real-self, ideal-self, and social-self perceptions of fifth, eighth, and eleventh grade children and found that self image disparity (real-ideal discrepancy) is a function of developmental level due to two factors which increase with maturity: 1) capacity for guilt and 2) ability for cognitive differentiation. Thus, self image disparity was found to be positively related to chronological age and intelligence. Kayz and Zigler refute the position that large real-ideal-self discrepancies indicate maladjustment.
They argue that discrepancies occur as a result of maturation and capacity for cognitive differentiation.

Measurement of Ideal Self

Most measurements of ideal self use the same test for self concept except that the person is asked to go through the same items indicating how he would like to be "ideally". For a discrepancy score, the difference is taken between the scores for the perceived self and the ideal self. Following are a few of the measurements which have been used to assess ideal self:

1. California Test of Personality - Q sort
2. Guthrie, Butler, Gorlow, and White (1954) devised an ideal self test to be used with retardates. It consists of a series of 50 pairs of colored slides with the same protagonist throughout. The subject is asked to choose the slide in which the protagonist was doing the best thing.
3. Katz and Zigler (1967) have devised a questionnaire of 20 statements some of which were taken from Coopersmith's (1959) scale of self esteem. Response alternatives were phrased "I would like this to be very true of me". Of course, the child must be able to read in order to take this type of paper and pencil test.
4. Preschool Self-Concept Picture Test (PSCPT) - (1966-68) by R. Woolner. This test was designed to be used with 4 to 5 year olds. A child is presented ten plates with paired pictures representing characteristics that preschool children recognize, such as clean-dirty. The child picks the person in each plate that he is and the one that he "would like to be."

Conditions to Facilitate the Development of the Ideal Self

The teacher plays a special role in the life of the young child. At first, a child's ideal self involves wanting to be like his parents. As he moves into the social world, he may aspire to be like his teachers, then famous people such as presidents or movie starts. As an individual matures, his ideal self becomes more abstract in the form of a list of desirable attributes rather than a single person. The teacher then is an important model for the child and he or she should be aware of the influence he has on the child's formation of an ideal self.

There is no specific program designed to foster development of an ideal self. However, the activities which have been suggested for the development of the self concept and self esteem will apply here also. The teacher may wish to stimulate discussions of people the children would like to become most like. Units on people in the community and various social roles may also be introduced for discussion. Children may want to investigate the role of community helpers such as postmen, doctors, nurses, teachers, etc. The Magic Circle is also a valuable program for self development.

Learner Outcome: Ideal Self: To develop awareness of "the me I'd like to be."

Conditions:
Learner Characteristics: All children aged two to seven.

Situational Variables: A classroom setting.

Instructional Strategy I: Developmental
Read the children stories about heroes, famous people, community helpers.

Instructional Strategy II: Directive
Have children cut and paste magazine pictures of community helpers, or persons they would like to be like. Lead them in discussions of the characteristics they would like to develop.

Content: Books and magazines.

SOCIAL SELF

Social Self Moral Outcomes

1. Ability to interact with others.
2. Social attitudes - friendliness to peers.
3. Interest in welfare of others.
4. Sense of justice, cooperation, tolerance, honesty, lack of prejudices.
5. Ability to see value of mistakes.
6. Ability to see basis for decisions in value judgments.
7. Ability to make value judgments.
8. Ability to delay gratification.

Relevancy of Outcomes for Social Self Moral

McCandless (1973) defines morality in two ways. Morality is the development, "formulation, an expression of intentions or conscience that are internal and that focus a person's outlook on life. The second definition is adherence to social norms and responsibilities. Morality also involves the direct representation of a person's personal construction of social values. McCandless lists four characteristic ways of behaving morally in a democratic society:

1. The individual conforms behaviorally within sensible limits.
2. The individual perceives authority as being rational and essentially well disposed toward all members within the society, including himself, and behaves toward authority according.
3. The individual is able to inhibit his impulses when necessary or desirable and to postpone immediate gratification for the sake of later, more important or greater satisfactions.
4. The individual is reciprocal in his orientation. He is considerate of others, respects their feelings, and wishes justice done for them as well as for himself.

There are three major philosophical positions concerning moral development. The first is that of original sin which views man as innately evil. It is through societal and religious restrictions that man's basic instincts are held in check. Freudian psychoanalysis employs the assumption of original sin. The superego must hold in check the destructive impulses and desires of the id. The second view of
man is the assumption of innate goodness often termed the "fallen angel" view. According to this view, man is born with a good character which is consequently corrupted by an evil society. Rousseau held this position as do many humanists. Piaget and many of the cognitive-developmentalists will move from this point of view. Given a proper environment, development will move from a lower to a higher more advanced state.

The third position is exemplified by the tabula rosa viewpoint. Man at birth is a blank slate - neither good nor bad. It is only through experience and learning that character is formed. The learning theorists adopt this neutral viewpoint.

Both the original sin and the tabula rosa viewpoints have stimulated training programs in moral development; original sin programs try to keep the person from committing immoral acts. Tabula rosa programs concentrate on the importance of learning for shaping moral development. The cognitive developmentalists do not propose teaching moral development. They see it as a process of maturation which occurs as a result of age related experiences and environmental interactions. Piaget and Kohlberg have done much work in this area and emphasize the developmental process rather than product. They have investigated the higher mental processes and thought structures that underlie moral judgments and moral behavior. They emphasize the importance of cognitive processes to moral development and both propose stages of moral development in which each stage is viewed as being integrated into the next and replaced by it. Also the individual must pass through all the preceding stages before he can move on to the next one.

Piaget (1932) sees the essence of morality in a concern for reciprocity and equality among individuals. Piaget sees a developmental shift in moral development from respect and submission to authority, to self-government and control. In order to study this shift, he investigated the attitudes of different aged children toward the origin, legitimacy and alterability of the rules in the game of marbles. He also used the technique of telling stories about persons who committed various transgressions and of asking children such questions as why the acts are wrong and which of two acts is worse. Piaget came up with two broad stages of moral development. The first stage has been called the stage of moral realism, morality of restraint, or heteronomous morality. In this stage the child feels an obligations to comply to rules because they are sacred and unalterable. He judges the rightness or wrongness of an act on the basis of the magnitude of its consequences, the extent to which it conforms exactly to established rules, and whether or not it elicits punishment (Hoffman, 1970). During this stage, the child believes in immanent justice.

Piaget's second stage of moral development is more advanced and has been termed the stage of autonomous morality or morality of cooperation or reciprocity. The child views rules as flexible according to mutual agreement and focuses on the intentions of an act when making judgments about right or wrong. The child also view punishment as being more related to the actual act rather than as being arbitrary.

Piaget points out that parents can help the child toward moral autonomy by treating him in a more reciprocal fashion rather than in an authoritative way. This also applies to teachers and anyone else dealing with young children. Piaget says:
In order to remove all traces of moral realism, one must place oneself on the child’s own level, and give him a feeling of equality by laying stress on one’s own obligations and one’s own failures in the sphere of clumsiness and of untidiness in general (putting away toys, personal cleanliness, etc.). In short, in all the multifarious obligations that are so secondary for moral theory but so all-important in daily life (perhaps nine-tenths of the commands given to children relate to these material questions), it is quite easy to draw attention to one’s own needs, one’s own difficulties even one’s own blunders, and to point out their consequences, thus creating an atmosphere of mutual help and understanding.

In this way the child will find himself in the presence, not of a system of commands requiring ritualistic and external obedience, but of a system of social relations such that everyone does his best to obey the same obligations and does so out mutual respect” (Piaget, 1932, p.133-134).

According to Hoffman (1970), the research into Piaget’s theory indicates certain age trends in Western countries. These trends include: relativism of perspectives (versus absolutism); objective view of punishment (versus immanent justice); intentions (versus consequences); retributive justice (versus expiative); and conformity to peer expectations (versus obedience to adult authority).

Kohlberg (1958) has extended Piaget’s cognitive-developmental approach to moral development. His research is based on case studies of boys from 10 to 16 years of age. He asked them questions concerning hypothetical dilemmas in which acts of obedience to laws, rules, or commands of authority conflict with the need or welfare of others. Kohlberg has proposed three levels of moral development with two stages per level. Kohlberg’s level of morality includes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Behavior</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level I. Premoral</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Stage 1. Punishment and (ages 4-6) obedience</td>
<td>Obeys rules in order to avoid punishment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orientation.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Stage 2. Naive instrumental (ages 6-8)</td>
<td>Conforms to obtain rewards to have favors</td>
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<tr>
<td>hedonism.</td>
<td>returned.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Level II. Morality of contentional role--conformity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stage 3. &quot;Good-boy&quot; morality of maintaining</td>
<td>Conforms to avoid disapproval, dislikes by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good relations, approval of others</td>
<td>others (ages 8-10).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ages 8-10)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Stage 4. Authority maintaining morality.</td>
<td>Conforms to avoid censure by legitimate</td>
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<tr>
<td>maintaining</td>
<td>authorities, with resultant guilt.</td>
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<tr>
<td>morality.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Level III. Morality of Self-accepted moral</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>principles</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stage 5. Morality of contract, of</td>
<td>Conforms to maintain the</td>
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individual rights and of democratically accepted law.

Stage 6. Morality of individual principles of conscience (adults.)

respects of the impartial spectator judging in terms of community welfare.

Conforms to avoid self-condemnation.


Kohlberg views moral development as a movement from one moral stage to the next as a result of cognitive development. Rest, Turiel, and Kohlberg (1969) have found that children tend to prefer moral statements at a level above their own level rather than below indicating an upward movement in moral development. A program based on these findings and Kohlberg's work has been devised to be used with young children. It involves presenting the children with certain moral delimas and stimulating discussion about them.

There has been a great deal of research in the area. Following are a few of the major findings. Hoffman (1963) found support for the following:

1. A moral orientation based on the fear of external detection and punishment is associated with the relatively frequent use of discipline techniques involving physical punishment and material deprivation, or power-assertive discipline.

2. A moral orientation characterized by independence of external sanctions and high guilt is associated with relatively frequent use of non-power-assertive discipline, sometimes called psychological, indirect, or love-oriented discipline.

McCandless (1973) reports that social class is related to moral development. Among other factors also related are these: 1. Maternal power assertion is negatively related to moral development; 2. maternal but not paternal, inductive techniques are positively related to advanced moral development; 3. affection and nurturance seem to accelerate moral development. Perhaps this is because these traits create a climate in which the child is likely to attend positively to the parent's modeling and tutelage; and 4. High levels of parental education (a favorable environment for cognitive development) accelerate moral development.

Induction is the type of discipline technique most conducive to moral development. Other-oriented induction involves explaining to the child the consequences of his act as it affects others such as, "When you call Johnny a dummy, you hurt his feelings." This type of reasoning helps lead the child out of his egocentric viewpoint.

There is evidence that identification is involved in moral development. Freud postulates two types of identification. Identificatio
with the aggressor occurs when the child assumes the characteristics of a punitive parent because he is fearful of that parent. The other type is called anaclitic identification based on the child's fearful-ness that he will lose parental love. He thus assumes the parent's characteristics so that he will continue to receive parental love. The child's admiration and striving to be like the parent is an important aspect of socialization.

Bandura (1967) has done much research in the area of imitation and moral development. He says that identification and imitation are the same because they both involve reproduction of specific behavior of a model. Bandura states that through imitation and observational learning, the child becomes able to control aggression and other impulses. Bandura, Hoss, and Hess (1963) employed nursery school children to view aggressive adult models. They found that the children who had observed the aggressive model punished exhibited less aggression than children who saw him rewarded. This finding was replicated by Bandura (1965). It appears that observing an aggressive model being rewarded has a dis-inhibiting effect on aggressive behavior, whereas witnessing the model being punished neutralizes the disinhibition and returns the aggression to baseline level.

Concerning resistance to temptation, Walters, and Parke (1964) put 6 year old boys in a situation where they were told not to play with some toys which were present. They were shown films in which a young boy was also prohibited from playing with toys by his mother. The child was either rewarded, punished, or nothing happened. Then the subjects were left alone with the forbidden toys. The found: 1. the subjects who observed the model punished deviated less quickly, less often, and for a shorter period of time than subjects in the other conditions; 2. the no-consequence condition resulted in as much deviation as the model-rewarded conditions. The conclusion of this study is that the effectiveness of a prohibition may be reduced by exposing the child to a model performing the prohibited act; the reduction is temporary if the model is subsequently punished.

Mischel (1965) investigated deferement of gratification in children. He found that delay responses tend to increase with age and can be increased by decreasing the delay interval or raising the probability that the delayed choice will be forthcoming. However, delay of gratification is not a moral development characteristic because it relates to self gain. It is though positively related to other moral behaviors such as resistance to temptation.

In summary, the Freudian and Piagetian approaches view moral development as a unitary process. The social learning theorists, however, see moral development as a result of discrimination training in which some responses become inhibited and others elicited in be presence of certain stimuli as a result of reinforcement contingencies. The best example of this is a study by Hartshorne and May (1928). They found that honesty in children depends on the particular situation in which a child finds himself. In other words, honesty is not a stable, consistent characteristic. They found that cautious children cheated less; cheating was more frequent in classrooms where peers did not disapprove of it; and middle class children cheated less than lower class children.
I* is possible that both approaches may be used to explain moral development. For example, the young child's development can be compared to rote learning of specific responses in specific situations. When cognitive medication becomes possible at about age 4 to 5, the child begins to generalize on the basis of conceptual similarities. Moral development is so complex that one theory would be inadequate to explain it.

Deviancy of Moral Development

The literature concerning problems children and juvenile delinquents is so vast that no attempt will be made to summarize it here. Deviancy of moral development or "immoral behavior is highly correlated with early social deprivation. One possible explanation for moral deviancy is the failure of the self to become totally differentiated. It appears that many deviant children who have been socially deprived fail to make an anaclitic identification (based on ID with the love object.)

Characteristics of the asocial or delinquent person includes:

1. A marked deficiency in emotional development. This is represented by shallowness of affect, an inability to feel love, or an affectionless personality. This type is unable to form lasting relationships with others. Contact with others is on a superficial level.

2. The individual is much less able to control his own impulses than are other people.

3. There is a lack of sense of guilt or lack of conscience.

4. The child has deficiencies in understanding causality and time. This may be evident in such simple skills as knowing the date or the time. More specifically the child lacks the ability to foresee the consequences of his actions and the ability to profit from his own experiences.

5. There seem to be deficiencies in perceive the world. It is difficult for the deviant child to assess his role in a social situation.

6. The deviant individual suffers from the absence of certain early experiences crucial to development.

These experiences are often expressed as developmental needs such as the need for love and the need for security.

Early emotional deprivation seems to be damaging to the formation of a love bond whether with the mother or with a mother substitute. The assumption here is that the child has missed the first basic love experience does not learn to love other people. The mother or mother substitute not only supplies love but also sensory stimulation in the form of feeding, cleaning, playing with, talking to, and cuddling the child. These activities provide the necessary stimulation for perceptual development. Also, early sensorimotor activities have an important role in the earliest stages of concept formation. Deficiency of sensory stimulation may lead to defects in the conception of causality and time. It may also lead to impairments in the child's verbal development and his power to reason.

During infancy the child learns to differentiate "me" from "not
When the child is deprived of experiences which enhance this development his sense of himself as an identity and his perception of the validity of other people’s existence are impaired.

The ego is formed during infancy and performs various ego functions such as cognition, perception, voluntary movement, reality-testing, and control. If the ego is impaired as a result of social deprivation, then there will be deficiencies in these ego functions and the individual will have poor ego controls, thus poor moral development.

**Measurement of Moral Development**

Assessment of moral development has mostly involved observational techniques and subjective reports. In the young child, the level of moral development may be ascertained by application of Kohlberg’s stages through introduction of dilemmas (see Kohlberg and Turiel, 1971). Other measures include the following:

1. **California Preschool Social Competence Scale (CPSCS) 1969**
   - Measures children’s interpersonal behavior and assumption of social responsibility and covers such things as sharing, helping others, and accepting limits.

2. **Detroit Adjustment Inventory (DAI): Data Form, 1940-1954**
   - Measures a child’s social skill development, emotional adjustment, and ethical adjustment.

3. **Dunnington Sociometric Status Test (1959)**
   - Measures a child’s sociometric or social acceptance in a group.

4. **Social Behavior Checklist by Ogilvie and Shapiro**
   - Assesses social competence in young children.

5. **Social Value Acquisition Battery by Scott (1969)**
   - Measures a child’s perception of cultural value expectations, his conformity with those expectations, and his internalization of three cultural values - self-reliance, cooperation, and compliance.

6. **Socialization Scale by Pomerato**
   - Measures social adjustment within the classroom concerning patterns of aggression, social maladjustment, educational maladjustment, and internal unhappiness.

7. **Starkweather Social Conformity Test**
   - A color preference test to measure social conformity.

8. **Stevenson Behavioral Unit Observational Procedure**
   - This observational technique measures social behaviors such as social participation, social control, response to control, initiation of aggression, friendliness, contact with adults, and group situation.

9. **Affective Situations Empathy Test, by Feshback and Feshback**
   - Measures empathy expressed by the young child.
10. Borke-Empathy Test—this semiprojective technique measures a child's degree of empathy.

11. Generosity Test by Rutherford and Mussen—measures the generosity of a child in a structured setting. Each child is placed in a situation where he can assign candy to his peers or keep it.


13. Mischel Technique—measures the child's ability to deal with gratification.

14. Mummery Scale of Ascendant Behavior—measures socially acceptable and unacceptable ascendant behavior; i.e., behavior by which an individual attempts to acquire or maintain mastery of a social situation.

15. Picture Story Measure of Kindness Concept by Baldwin and Baldwin—measures a child's judgment of kindness.

16. Resistance to Temptation Measure by Burton, Allinsmith, and Maccoby.

Conditions to Facilitate Moral Development

There have been very few structured programs to facilitate moral development in the young child. Moral development has mostly been trained through informal means such as punishment or value judgments passed from the teacher to the child. Whether they realize it or not, teachers are involved in moral education. When the teacher attempts to control such behaviors as cheating and aggression, they are making value judgments and passing these on to students.

Among the few structured programs is a filmstrip series by American Guidance Associates based on Kohlberg's stages in which children are presented with certain every day moral dilemmas and are asked to make value judgments. According to Kohlberg, this program is more beneficial when children from various levels of moral development are grouped together because moral development involves an upward advancement to a higher stage. Therefore, children who are at lower stages can benefit from reasoning of those at a more advanced level.

Another program not quite as good but which can be used to promote general social development is the DUSO program. DUSO, Developing Understanding of Self and Others, is a program of activities, with an accompanying kit of materials designed to help children to become more aware of the relationship between self, other people, and needs and goals. To develop a sensitivity to the causal, purposive, and consequential nature of behavior. To develop a positive self-image.

DUSO is structured for use by all abilities, pre-school through grade three. It is also to be used by the regular classroom teacher on a daily basis through one full year. Alternative plans may be used by the teacher also.
Many types of activities are used including role-playing, puppet play, group discussion, music, art and supplementary reading suggestions. Extensive use is made of listening, inquiry, experiential and discussion approaches to learning.

The program is organized into eight units or themes:

I. Understanding and Accepting Self
III. Understanding Feelings
III. Understanding Others
IV. Understanding Independence
V. Understanding Goals and Purposeful Behavior
VI. Understanding Mastery, Competence, and Resourcefulness
VII. Understanding Emotional Maturity
VIII. Understanding Choices and Consequences

DUSO can also be used by school counselors, as well as regular teachers. No special training is necessary by the teacher. There are no student tests included since self-evaluation by the students is part of the program, and not evaluation by others.

The kit is complete in a carrying case with a teacher's manual, two story books, records or cassettes, posters, puppet activity cards, colorful puppets and props, role playing cards, group discussion cards, and cassette player is optional.

Bloom (1964), Kagan and Moss (1962), and others have pointed out the importance of the primary years in the education of our children. Combs and Soper, 1963; Coopersmith, 1959; Davidson and Lang, 1960; Pink, 1962; and Walsh, 1956; as well as Wattenberg and Clifford, 1964; indicate that the feelings of personal adequacy and self-acceptance are one of the most important factors in a child’s academic success. In fact Wattenberg and Clifford (1964) state that: “In general, the measures of self-concept and the ratings of ego strength made at the beginning of kindergarten proved to be somewhat more predictive of reading achievement two years later than was the measures of mental ability.”

The daily activities include the following:

1. A story to be followed by discussion.
2. A problem situation to be followed by discussion.
3. A role playing activity.
4. A puppet activity.
5. Several supplementary activities to be used as desired.
6. Recommended supplemental reading.

This outline does not preclude the teacher's creative addition of content.

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

1. This program is well organized and sequenced. The development from self to world is well thought out.
2. Each lesson is well treated and specific as stated in the name of the program.
3. Specific activities are included that involve the children.
4. Specific plans for the teacher are included with other suggestions for additional materials.
5. The exact directions are given with clarity.
6. Objectives and rationale are given and structure is explained.
7. Units and daily lessons and activities are well planned.
8. Self-evaluation is the method of evaluation, since this is an affective program.

It is directive, but has additional suggestive options which allow for creativity. It has been extensively tested in 166 classes.

Several books which may be used to stimulate discussions concerning differences among people include:

- **Just One Me** - illustrating the value of being our unique selves. A discussion may result about how people are different.
- **Your Skin and Mine** - discusses the origin of skin color.
- **So Many Kinds of Love** - illustrates the concept of love.
- **What Mary Jo Shared** - portrays that family love of Negro and Caucasian children is the same.
- **Peter's Chair** - introduces the concept of sharing.
- **My Friend John** - shows that the bond of friendship can hold people together even though they may be different.

Excellent required reading: **The Role of the Primary Teacher in Character Education** by S. Rains and H. Morris, on reserve.

**Competencies Needed to Facilitate Individuation**

I. Cognitive Competencies:

A cognitive understanding of this module will enable a person to do the following:

A. Define these terms:

- body image
- self image
- self concept
- self esteem
- ideal self
- moral self
- moral realism
- moral dissonance
- moral justice
- client-centered psychotherapy
- the MAGIC Circle
- psychosocial conflict

- id
- ego
- superego
- ego ideal
- real self-ideal-
- self discrepancy
- mirror image
- empathy
- egocentrism
- heteronomy
- identification
- imitation
- induction

B. Describe the contributions of these individuals to self development:
C. Do the following:

1. List 3 elements necessary to the formation of body awareness beginning in early infancy (Benton, 1959).
2. Explain the importance of the development of body image to self concept formation.
3. List 2 means of assessing body images.
4. Explain Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonancy as it relates to self image or self concept.
5. Describe how the self concept is formed during the first few years of life (include important variables such as maternal interaction).
6. Describe the formation of the concepts of "good me" and "bad me" according to Sullivan.
7. Describe the following conflicts postulated by Erikson: Trust versus mistrust; autonomy versus shame and doubt; initiative versus guilt.
8. Discuss the relevancy of self concept to academic achievement.
9. Discuss 3 problems with measurement of self concept or self development.
10. List 3 measurements of self concept and describe one of them.
11. Katz and Zigler (1963) found that self image disparity (real-ideal discrepancy) is a function of developmental level due to 2 factors. List these 2 factors.
12. Discuss the difference between self as process and self as product.
13. Explain the humanist's concept of self-actualization (also called self realization). Is this similar or dissimilar to the cognitive developmental approach to self development.
15. Summarize and discuss the important points from the readings.
16. Describe the relationship between self esteem and academic achievement.
17. Discuss the relationship between cognitive and moral development.
18. Describe a child's moral development who is at Kohlberg's stage 3.
19. Describe the basic difference between the cognitive-developmental and the social learning theorist view of moral development.

II. Skill Competencies:

1. Design a lesson plan to facilitate each individuation learner outcome. Implement one of these in the lab school.
2. Administer at least two self development instruments such as the SCAEL or the Brown Test.
3. Design a classroom environment (physical) to enhance the development of individuation (account for body image, self image, self concept, self esteem, ideal self, and social self moral).
4. Design an instrument to measure one of the above areas of individuation.

5. Write a brief paper about yourself including the following topics.
   - The me that I see.
   - The me I think others see.
   - The real me.
   - The me I like the best.
   - The me I'd like to become.

6. Be able to design an individuation program for the classroom which includes the six areas of self development.

III. Required Readings:

Schools, Sex Differences, and the Disadvantaged Male by Boyd McCandless.

A Perceptual View of the Adequate Personality by A. Combs.

"Good Me" or "Bad Me" - The Sullivan Approach to Personality by Elkind.


The Role of the Primary Teacher in Character Education.

Aiding and Directing Emotional Growth: The Development of Self-Confidence by Nancy Phalen.

Recommended Readings:

The Fully Functioning Self by E. Kelly.

Toward Becoming a Fully Functioning Person by C. Rogers.

Some Basic Propositions of A Growth and Self-Actualization Psychology by A. Maslow.


The Antecedents of Self Esteem by Coopersmith.

On Becoming a Person by C. Rogers.


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58

Lessons Plans

Learner Outcome: Social Self Moral - To develop the ability to interact with others.

Conditions:

Learner Characteristics: All children aged two to seven.

Situational Variables: Classroom setting.

Instructional Strategy I: Developmental
Provide a variety of games for the children to play together such as color lotto or concentrations.

Content: Color lotto, concentration, and other games.

Instructional Strategy II: Directive
Have children stand and choose partners. Play a movement record or lively music and have children express their feelings with a partner.