

COMPARISON OF SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT BETWEEN HOME AND TRADITIONALLY  
SCHOoled STUDENTS

By

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By

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Traditional schools provide for regular classroom contact with children of the same age, and it is assumed that this regular contact with other children aids appropriate social adjustment. By their very nature, home schools do not provide for regular formal classroom contact with children other than siblings. Because of this obvious difference, parents, educators, legislators, and courts have questioned whether children schooled at home are as socially well adjusted as their agemates in traditional programs. Investigation of this possible difference was the focus of this study.

This study compared the social adjustment of 70 children educated at home with that of 70 children educated in a traditional school setting. Three correlates of social adjustment were identified through a review of the

literature: self-concept, behavior, and assertiveness.

Each was assessed in children of both populations.

The results of this study imply that children between the ages of 8 and 10 have similar beliefs about themselves regardless of how they are schooled. All age groups in both research populations had self-concept scores higher than the national average as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

The results of this study further indicate that children from both schooling environments participating in this study achieved scores on the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale revealing slightly passive understanding of social situations.

According to the results of this study, children between the ages of 8 and 10 who had been educated entirely in a home school had significantly fewer problem behaviors, as measured by the Direct Observation Form of the Child Behavior Checklist, than children of the same age from traditional schools. Children of this age in this study, who had been educated entirely in traditional schools, revealed problem behaviors above the normal range for national populations of the same age.

It can be concluded from the results of this study that appropriate social skills can develop apart from formal contact with children other than siblings. This supports the belief held by home school proponents.

CHAPTER I  
INTRODUCTION

Although home-centered schooling appears to some as a new and revolutionary phenomenon (Pollard, 1987; Staver, 1987), home-centered education has existed since the beginning of humanity's existence (Beckham, 1985; Moore, 1984; Nolte, 1982; Taylor, 1986). Formal education in the United States for the masses did not exist until the turn of the twentieth century. Anything a child needed to learn, whether it was language, a vocation, survival skills, or the "social graces," had to come from his or her parents (Beckham, 1985; Nolte, 1982; Rothstein, 1986). Many of America's most notable personalities, such as John Quincy Adams, William Penn, Abraham Lincoln, Thomas Edison, Andrew Carnegie, and Franklin D. Roosevelt, were the products of a home-centered education (Moore, 1984; Taylor, 1986).

Home and parent-centered education, so common historically, began to take a back seat to formal public instruction in the late 1800s as states implemented laws to protect children from being exploited in the labor force (Cremin, 1970, 1977; Nolte, 1982; Spring, 1982,

1986). During the days of the Industrial Revolution (1880-1924), as millions of immigrant and American families moved into urban society to take advantage of new jobs, formal schools became essential agencies to prepare youngsters to become productive citizens of their community. Schools became the source of basic education and the primary center for social adjustment (Cremin, 1951, 1977; Rothstein, 1986; Spring, 1986; Tyack, 1967). By 1918 all states had adopted some form of compulsory attendance laws that placed the state in primary control of the socialization process (Ovard, 1978). With the exception of deep rural and isolated territories, the home school nearly disappeared as parents placed their trust in public institutions to prepare their children for life in the modern world (Arons, 1981).

Roger Sipher (1978) described conditions in the public educational system which existed after World War II that set the stage for a renewed interest in home schooling. As the post war "baby boomers" swamped the public school system, more teachers were needed to fill the additional classrooms created by the sudden increase in student population. Sipher claimed that in the rush to fill these needed teaching positions, many of the teachers lacked adequate training to instruct this new generation. Poor teacher preparation, lowered quality

of instruction, and deteriorating social control led the National Commission on Excellence in Education to issue its report titled, A Nation at Risk, in April of 1983. Erickson, Bryan, and Walker (1972) described conditions in some schools that made quality education impossible. Kenneth Fish (1970) disclosed that conditions within some schools were so bad that they had to be closed. Similar concerns have continued to be expressed into the 1980s and 1990s (Frady & Dunphy, 1985; Help! Teacher can't teach, 1980; Kirst, 1984; Tomorrow, 1982; Slater & Slater, 1990). A lack of ability on the part of some teachers, over-crowded conditions in the classroom, and lack of civil control have led to interpersonal problems between increasing numbers of students and a drop in academic quality (Moore, 1985b).

As the state and federal governments struggled to reform the educational system during the 1960s and 1970s, many parents also started to reassess their view of formal education (Lines, 1987). Fearing a lack of moral control and a reduction of quality in public education, many parents began to search for alternative sources of schooling for their children. Some of the more affluent families found hope in the multitude of private religious institutions that had sprung up since 1950 (Gustavsen, 1981; Sipher, 1978; Whitehead & Bird, 1984). Other families merely chose to break with the

system and educate their children themselves (Hansen, 1988; Naisbitt, 1982; Tobak, 1983; Whitehead & Bird, 1984).

A fear of legal reprisal for violating state compulsory attendance laws has made it impossible to obtain accurate figures on the number of parents who are choosing home-centered education. Current estimates range from a low of 10,000 to well over one million (Lines, 1987, 1991; McCurdy, 1985; Moore, 1982; Naisbitt, 1982; Tobak, 1983; Whitehead & Bird, 1984). However, there is little doubt that the movement toward home schooling is growing (Common & MacMullen, 1987; Lines, 1987, 1991; Naisbitt, 1982). Raymond Moore (1985b), a major proponent of the home school movement, stated that home schooling is the "fastest growing educational movement in America." It has been estimated that the numbers of home schoolers is growing at the rate of 100,000 new students per year (Gothard, 1983). John Naisbitt (1982) predicted that the numbers of parents choosing to educate their children at home will continue to increase well into the 21st century.

The growing number of parents who are willing to risk a fine and/or imprisonment in order to provide what they believe is a quality and responsible schooling experience has generated numerous questions that must be addressed (Gustavsen, 1981; Johnson, 1991; Ray & Wartes,

1991; Taylor, 1986). For example, at the turn of the century, adequate socialization meant that each child had the ability to become a productive citizen of his or her community (Clausen, 1978; Cremin, 1951; Kaestle, 1983). In order for the child to become a productive member, he or she had to be able to read and write English, understand the common laws of the land, maintain a vocation, and live in harmony with other members of the community (Cremin, 1970; Nolte, 1982; Ovard, 1978; Rothstein, 1986). It was the belief that adequate socialization could only be guaranteed through formal education that prompted implementation of compulsory attendance laws (Beckham, 1985; Cremin, 1988; Franzosa, 1984; McCaul, 1989). If adequate socialization can be achieved only through formal education, the question of the effect of home schooling on the process of socialization should be raised.

Attempts to answer this question have included consideration of the academic achievement of home schooled children and the adequacy of their preparation for higher education and employment. The results of numerous studies have indicated that home schooled children received scores on nationally standardized achievement tests that were equal to or higher than children in traditional educational programs (Devins & Zirkel, 1986; Gustavsen, 1981; Home Education, 1986;

Moore, 1982; Ray & Wartes, 1991). Other researchers also suggested that home schooled children were adequately prepared for higher education and employment (Lines, 1987; Montgomery, 1989; Moore, 1982, 1984, 1985a, 1985b; Taylor, 1986; Williams, Arnoldsen & Reynolds, 1984). However, one question has continued to surface throughout the literature; that was, are home schooled children as well adjusted socially as their agemates in traditional educational programs (Adams, 1984; Devins & Zirkel, 1986; Franzosa, 1984; Johnson, 1991; Kendall, 1982; Moore, 1982, 1984, 1985b; Pollard, 1987; Smith, 1986)?

#### Need For The Study

This study was designed to address the question of how home schooled children compared in social adjustment to their agemates attending traditional public educational programs. Leading proponents of the home school movement believed that children educated at home were as socially well adjusted as children attending traditional schools, if not more so (Moore & Moore, 1981). Replicable research, however, has not yet been conducted among home-schoolers to support this belief.

Parents who consider educating their children at home are frequently fearful of the impact upon their children's social lives (Johnson, 1991; Moore & Moore, 1975; Williams et al., 1984). Taylor (1986) described a



study of 441 families in the state of Washington in which most of the people who heard about home schooling for the first time questioned its social impact before they asked about academics. McCurdy (1985) suggested that many parents were concerned about how their children's social development might affect their becoming good and productive citizens. Some children have also expressed concerns over the social implications of home schooling (Golowoch, 1991; "More parents," 1991; Slater & Slater, 1990). For example, Pollard (1987), in an interview with one home school family from Middletown, Ohio, disclosed that the children often expressed feelings of social isolation.

A prevalent societal belief is that adequate social adjustment can only take place in an environment of group interaction (Crockenberg & Bryant, 1978; "Educators say," 1989; Johnson, 1981). Ladd (1979) and LeCroy (1983) suggested that the consequences of a lack of peer contact may be severe, and include phenomena such as dropping out of school, juvenile delinquency, and mental health problems. The West Virginia Supreme Court echoed this concern when it ruled against home school parents, stating in their opinion that the children were being separated from organized society and would therefore become ". . . incapable of coping with life outside of their own families" (State v. Riddle, 1981).

Decisions concerning schooling and social adjustment have often been made solely upon feelings and assumptions and not upon empirical research; therefore, laws affecting home schooling vary considerably from state to state (Tobak & Zirkel, 1983). Taylor (1986) suggested that the prevalence of opposing views indicated "the need for substantial evidence upon which to base decisions of social implication" (p. 10). The results of this study can provide empirical data upon which parents, school systems, courts, and legislatures can base their decisions about the impact of home schooling on social adjustment.

Partly because of their concerns about social adjustment, and partly because of financial considerations, it is estimated that between 50% and 75% of the families who begin home-centered education for their children will eventually enroll them in either public or private religious schools (Lines, 1987; Williams et al., 1984). If it could be shown that some children in the home-school movement were not as socially well adjusted as their agemates, as some suggested (Franzosa, 1984; Johnson, 1981; Ladd, 1979), it would be necessary for school guidance and counseling personnel to be prepared to remediate the problems that could occur when these children began to interact on a daily basis with their traditionally schooled peers.

Myrick (1987) stated that guidance and counseling programs "are designed to enhance personal, social, vocational, and academic growth" (p. 2). He further suggested that through special counseling and guidance interventions children found deficient in social skills can "catch up before their lack of preparation creates problems" (p. 14). It is the basic premise of school guidance to provide for the well being of all learners (Aubrey, 1982; Bernard & Fulmer, 1977; Capuzzi & Gross, 1989; Lee & Pallone, 1966; Myrick, 1987; Ryan, 1978; Shertzer & Stone, 1966). Ryan (1978) described school guidance as being "made up of a number of related elements: (1) individual analysis; (2) information dissemination; (3) counseling; (4) placement; and (5) followup" (p. 10-11). Ryan further stated:

In any setting the guidance program supports the mission of pupil-student services by assisting each individual to become a fully functioning person, capable of maintaining healthy social relationships, performing as a responsible citizen of the community, being a part of the larger society, and contributing to that society. . . . Guidance services are concerned with the total person and are directed to optimizing the potential of the individual in light of factors in the social situation and environmental opportunities. (Ryan, 1978, p.11)

Because a large population of home-educated children will eventually be enrolled in traditional schools (Lines, 1987; Myers, 1990; Williams et al., 1984), it will be necessary for the schools and the rest

of society to be adequately prepared. Thus, this study was needed to provide empirical data to school counselors, parents, teachers, courts, and legislatures upon which they can base decisions about home schooling and social adjustment.

#### Purpose of the Study

This study was designed to compare the social adjustment of children aged 8 through 10 from two different educational backgrounds: home school and traditional schools. Formal education was made compulsory during the late 1800s and early 1900s to provide for the common welfare of America (Beckham, 1985; Cremin, 1951, 1970, 1977, 1980; Cubberly, 1934; Kaestle, 1983; Nolte, 1982; Seybolt, 1971; Spring, 1986). The primary concern was to guarantee that children would be adequately socialized to become productive citizens by providing for common basic skills such as reading, writing, and arithmetic (Nolte, 1982; Rothstein, 1986; Sipher, 1978).

Since 1909, the schooling process also has included an increased involvement by school guidance and counseling personnel for the purpose of developing the whole person for his or her role in society (Aubrey, 1982; Bernard & Fulmer, 1977; Capuzzi & Gross, 1989; Muro & Dinkmeyer, 1977). Until the 1950s, it was widely accepted by parents that their children were receiving,

through the formal schools, the quality of social training and guidance necessary to be good Americans (Sipher, 1978). Since that time, as parents have begun to question the role of the state in educating and socializing their children, many parents have sought alternative sources of the schooling experience (Dylan, 1990; Nolte, 1982). One such alternative chosen by parents is the home school ("Home schooling," 1990; Williams et al., 1984). Although it has been shown that home schooled children achieve academically at a level equal to or greater than their agemates in traditional programs (Lines, 1987; Moore, 1982, 1984, 1985a, 1985b; Ray & Wartes, 1991; Taylor, 1986), the effect of home schooling on the social skills of children has not been determined.

#### Statement of the Problem

The primary question raised by parents, educators, school counselors, judges, and this researcher was whether children who are educated in a home school away from the interactions provided by formal education as socially well adjusted as their agemates in traditional programs (Franzosa, 1984; Ray & Wartes, 1991; Tobak & Zirkel, 1983; Williams et al., 1984). Although some researchers have been able to show that children educated at home have a high self-concept and academic achievement at levels equal to or higher than their

agemates in traditional schools (Lines, 1987, 1991; Moore, 1982, 1984, 1985a, 1985b; Taylor, 1986), the effect of home schooling on social adjustment is largely unknown.

#### Definitions

For the purpose of this study, the following terms are defined.

A home school is any home or parent-centered learning situation in which children are educated at home rather than in a conventional school setting. Parents or guardians assume full responsibility for the educational program of their children (Mattingly, 1990; Moore, 1984).

Social adjustment refers to the combination of a knowledge of appropriate assertive social responses, high self-concept, and the ability to behave in socially acceptable ways (McCandless, 1967).

Traditional education (or conventional school programs) refers to any program, either public or private, which is responsible for educating children and is regulated or licensed by a state government.

#### Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 includes an introduction to the problem, need for the study, purpose of the study, statement of the problem, and definition of the specialized terms used. Chapter 2

presents a review of related literature pertaining to schooling experience and social adjustment. Chapter 3 is a description of the methodology employed in this study, including a description of the population, the sample used for this study, procedures used, and research hypotheses. Chapter 4 is a description of the data generated by the research methods delineated in Chapter 3. Chapter 5 is composed of a discussion of the data, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER II  
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter the researcher presents a review of the professional literature regarding schooling and social adjustment of children. A discussion of social development and adjustment is presented first. Literature on schooling options is then reviewed, including an examination of traditional and home schools as they affect a child's social adjustment. Finally, literature supporting the use of the Children's Assertive Behavior Scales (CABS), Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (PHSCS), and Direct Observation Form (DOF) of the Child Behavior Checklist in socialization research is examined.

Social Adjustment

Social Development in Children

It has been said that a person who is deemed socially well adjusted "has acquired the beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors that are thought to be appropriate for members of his or her culture" (Shaffer, 1979, p. 7). However, one who is socially maladjusted is "unable to affect the behaviour and feelings of others in the way he intends and society accepts"



(Trower, Bryant, Argyle, & Margillier, 1978, p.2). The process by which one develops these socially appropriate behaviors is difficult to define due to the numerous components deemed as constructs (Gresham & Elliott, 1984; Jordan-Davis & Butler, 1985; Rathjen & Foreyt, 1980). For this reason there are dozens of theories of social development which attempt to explain this complex process (Craig, 1983; McCandless, 1967; Mussen, Conger, & Kagan, 1974; Schell, 1975; Shaffer, 1979). Turiel (1983) stated:

The study of social development requires two inter-related analyses: the nature of realms of social interaction and the explanation of processes of acquisition or development. Social scientists have extensively considered development and categories of social interaction, culture, and society. However, each of the concerns has been dealt with by separate social scientific disciplines. The most extensive and explicit investigations of individual social development, as would be expected, come from the discipline of psychology. (Turiel, 1983, p. 1)

In an attempt to explain social development, Shaffer (1979) and Hoffman (1970) discussed their belief that modern theories have evolved from three basic philosophical and historical perspectives. The first was espoused by Thomas Hobbes (1904) during the seventeenth century and coincides with the religious doctrine of original sin. The basic premise of this doctrine is that the individual from the moment of birth begins a selfish search for satisfaction of urges and self gratification. A person's social behavior, according to

this philosophy, is determined by his or her selfish needs (Shaffer, 1979).

The second philosophical perspective was also introduced during the seventeenth century by British philosopher John Locke (Kessen, 1965; Muro & Dinkmeyer, 1977; Shaffer, 1979). Locke's philosophy of *tabula rasa* describes the child as being neither bad nor good but rather a blank slate upon which the environment and experience can write his or her personality. Children who learn to control inappropriate childhood impulses are considered to be well adjusted. In order to be well adjusted socially, children need to be trained in self-denial by their parents from "their very cradles" (Locke, as quoted in Shaffer, 1979, p. 12).

The third philosophical perspective suggested by Shaffer (1979) and Hoffman (1970) viewed the child as an active participant in his or her social development and was labeled the doctrine of innate purity. This doctrine, represented by eighteenth century philosophers Immanuel Kant and Jean Jacques Rousseau, states that children are inherently good, possessing an inborn moral sense that often can be misdirected by societal demands and experiences (Kessen, 1965). Children are capable of shaping their own personalities and can develop "in a healthy direction if not unduly hampered by the demands and restrictions of society" (Shaffer, 1979, p.13).

Four psychological theories emerged in the literature that appear to follow these philosophical perspectives. According to Shaffer (1979), Freud's psychosexual and Erikson's psychosocial theories of development are related to the doctrine of original sin. Bandura and Walter's learning theories of social development looked more like Locke's philosophy of tabula rasa. The doctrine of innate purity is best represented by Piaget and Kohlberg's theories of cognitive development. Each of these theories of social development will be briefly described in the pages that follow.

#### Psychosexual Theory of Social Development

The psychosexual theory of development was suggested, in some of the literature, as an example of Hobbes' doctrine of original sin (Muro & Dinkmeyer, 1977; Shaffer, 1979). The basic premise of Freud's (1947) psychoanalytic theory, is "that human beings were 'seething cauldrons' who must constantly seek to gratify a number of innate sexual and aggressive instincts" (Shaffer, 1979, p. 13). From this perspective, it becomes the responsibility of parents and society to divert the child's socially undesirable behaviors from his or her natural selfish tendencies to more socially acceptable ones (George & Cristiani, 1986; Klein, 1975; McConnell, 1974; Shaffer, 1979). Freud (1964) believed

that appropriate social adjustment is accomplished as children learn to satisfy their basic drives in ways acceptable to the adults around them.

Freud (1933) suggested that each individual's personality and social awareness is shaped as he or she strives to satisfy these drives in several psychosexual stages. The first three stages, oral, anal, and phallic, all occur before puberty. During these stages, children focus their pleasure and drives on different body areas known as erogenous zones (Craig, 1983; George & Cristiani, 1986; Mussen et al., 1974). The other two stages, the latency period and genital stage, occur as children enter the social world of school and continue through adolescence (Craig, 1983). If children are frustrated or receive too much gratification in their attempts to achieve satisfaction during these stages, they may develop fixations which may lead to socially unacceptable behaviors (Craig, 1983; George & Cristiani, 1986; Shaffer, 1979).

Appropriate social adjustment is attained when the individual achieves a balance among the three struggling components of the personality, the id, ego, and the superego (Mussen et al., 1974; Shaffer, 1979). Children are born with a storehouse of instinctual energy known as the id (Mussen et al., 1974). As they interact with adults, they learn more about themselves and their place

in the world in which they live. This knowledge helps form the level of skills, wishes, fears, language, and sense of self known as the ego (George & Cristiani, 1986). As their primary drives and urges come into conflict with the adult world, they are forced to develop a sense of conscience and a knowledge of acceptable versus unacceptable behaviors known as the superego (Mussen et al., 1974; Shaffer, 1979). It is the superego that acts as the "moral arbiter" in the social development of children (Hall, 1954). As children develop the ability to balance the id, ego, and superego, and thereby delay gratification of impulses, they are capable of learning the skills necessary for social adjustment (Shaffer, 1979).

It was the emphasis upon adaptation and learning to cope that led some theorists to believe that social development may not be as negative as first espoused by Freud. Several theorists also began the move toward a more positive perspective. One such theorist was Erik Erikson.

#### Psychosocial Theory of Social Development

Erikson (1963, 1972) disagreed with Freud's belief that children are passive bottles of energy that have to be diverted and controlled. Although Erikson accepted the basic belief that people are driven by urges and instincts, he chose to stress the ego rather than the id

as the primary force in social development (Craig, 1983; George & Cristiani, 1986). Erikson also believed that parents are only two of the many social agents by which children will be influenced. Maier (1969) presented Erikson's position by stating

Culture adds the human aspect of living. Man lives by instinctual forces, and culture insists upon the "proper" use of these . . . forces. It is the cultural environment . . . which determines the nature of each individual's experience. The child and his parents are never alone; through the parent's conscience, generations are looking upon a child's actions, helping him to integrate his relationships with their approval. . . . A culture, class, or ethnic group's basic ways of organizing experience are transmitted to the child . . . and tie the child forever to his original milieu. (Maier, 1969, p. 28)

Because Erikson stressed the sociocultural influences on personality, his approach is better termed psychosocial rather than psychosexual development (Shaffer, 1979). According to Erikson's theory, a person develops into a socially adjusted individual through the resolution of a series of crises involving interactions with socializing agents (Erikson, 1963, 1968, 1972). McCandless (1967) described this process when he stated:

The process of social control and adaptability starts with the child's interactions with his parents and family, and continues with his playmates, relatives, and teachers. These socializing agents must provide a pattern of reward, acceptance, permissiveness, and punishment that enables the child to gain law- and amenity-abiding adulthood yet remain or become relatively secure, calm, happy, appropriately masculine or feminine, and vocationally self-sustaining. (McCandless, 1967, p. 418)

According to Erikson (1963, 1972) this process of human socialization takes place in eight distinct stages. Appropriate social adjustment requires the successful resolution of each of eight crises which occur at certain points in the life cycle (Craig, 1983; McCandless, 1967; Shaffer, 1979). Although the resolution of these conflicts is cumulative (each stage of development affecting the way a person handles the next), the adjustments a person makes at each stage can be altered or reversed at a later level (Craig, 1983). In order to illustrate this point, Craig (1983) described children who were denied affection in infancy, growing to normal adulthood once they received extra attention at other stages in their development.

The first four stages described by Erikson traced children's development from birth through the age of eleven and, therefore, had the greatest relevance to this study (Craig, 1983; McCandless, 1967; Shaffer, 1979). Stage one is called trust versus mistrust and covers a period from birth to approximately the end of the first year. It is during this stage that children learn about their environment. Their environment either provides warmth and the fulfillment of basic needs which generates a sense of trust, or it is perceived as being cold and unfulfilling and generates a sense of mistrust (Maier, 1969).

The primary socializing agents during this stage are the children's mothers. If they provide tender caresses, soothing vocalizations, as well as the basic necessities of life, children develop the basis for trusting interpersonal relations later in life (Shaffer, 1979). If children perceive neglect or inconsistent care, they learn to mistrust their environment and see the world as a dangerous, unpredictable place in which to live (Craig, 1983).

The second stage extends from approximately the first year of life until age three (Shaffer, 1979). According to Erikson's (1963) theory, this stage is characterized by the conflict between autonomy and shame or doubt. During this period of time, young children develop mobility and begin to explore their worlds. They are naturally curious and often find themselves at odds with parental authority (Craig, 1983; Shaffer, 1979). Children begin to learn bodily control and are either praised or punished based upon their performance. Parents begin to restrict their children's assertiveness for the purpose of creating social responsibility and self-control (Shaffer, 1979).

The resolution of the crisis between children's desires to become autonomous and their desires to regress to the more dependent first stage depends upon parental reaction to their rapidly emerging assertive



behaviors. Overreaction in the form of extreme punitive measures or over restriction could cause children to doubt their ability to act independently or cause them to feel great shame when they fail to accomplish expected tasks (Craig, 1983; McCandless, 1967; Shaffer, 1979). Children who are successful in resolving this crisis through the assistance of firm yet patient parents learn independence and assertive skills necessary for appropriate social interactions (Erikson, 1963; Maier, 1969).

Initiative versus guilt is the crisis that has to be resolved according to Erikson's third stage of social development (Erikson, 1963). This stage begins sometime during the third year and continues until approximately age 5 or 6 (McCandless, 1967). During this time children begin to assume responsibility for their own care and hygiene as well as their belongings (Shaffer, 1979). This is also the time of healthy imagination and curiosity. Children begin to learn to cooperate with others and to initiate play (McCandless, 1967).

If parents stimulate healthy curiosity and applaud efforts that are appropriate while they carefully guide the young minds away from dangerous or inappropriate activities, children gain a sense of initiative for the pursuit of socially acceptable goals (Shaffer, 1979). If, on the other hand, parents criticize, severely

punish or otherwise stand in the way of their children's initiative, the children learn to repress their drives and develop a sense of guilt for their own inactions (Craig, 1983; Maier, 1969; McCandless, 1967).

The fourth of Erikson's stages of development begins around the sixth year and continues until around age 12 (Erikson, 1963, 1972). This period is characterized by a crisis between industry and inferiority (Craig, 1983; Maier, 1969). It is also characterized by the usual entrance of children into formal education. Children begin to turn away from the primary focus of the family and to seek an identity among school-age peers. This is the time of intense social comparison for those children who become part of the formal educational system (Shaffer, 1979).

Shaffer (1979) suggested that the reason children turn toward peer groups is a recognition that they are still children and lack the skills necessary to compete with typical adults. This feeling of inferiority is what generates the crisis. Children become concerned that they might not become sufficiently competent in their own eyes nor the eyes of others. If children manage to develop the social and technical skills necessary to compete effectively in the social world around them, they develop a sense of industriousness that prepares them for the crises to come. If, however, they

do not become proficient within their own eyes, they develop a sense of inferiority which makes it difficult for them to progress into adulthood (Maier, 1969).

The primary socializing agents during this period are the children's social contacts other than their parents. The influence of peers, teachers, and television heroes become the focus of attention and the standard by which children compare and measure their progress toward competence (Craig, 1983).

The next four stages presented by Erikson cover the period of time from adolescence to the end of life (Erikson, 1963, 1972; Maier, 1969). The success of an individual progressing through the last four stages depends largely upon how successful he or she has been in becoming socially well adjusted during the initial four stages (McCandless, 1967).

Although Erikson's psychosocial theory of development is more positive than Freud's psychosexual theory, it still relies upon the development of coping skills and adapting to the environment around a person. The social learning theories of Bandura and Walters (1967) however, rely upon the ability of children to learn appropriate social behaviors rather than merely reacting to the circumstances surrounding them.

Social Learning Theory of Social Development

Shaffer (1979) suggested that the learning theories of social development evolved from Locke's philosophy of tabula rasa. According to learning theorists, all behavior, whether good or bad, has to be learned. One of the earliest learning theorists, John B. Watson, stated:

Give me a dozen healthy infants, well formed, and my own specified world to bring them up in and I'll guarantee to take any one at random and train him to become any type of specialist I might select -- doctor, lawyer, artist, merchant, chief, and yes, even beggar-man and thief, regardless of his talents, penchants, tendencies, abilities, vocations, and race of his ancestors. There is no such thing as an inheritance of capacity, talent, temperament, mental constitution, and behavioral characteristics. (as quoted in Shaffer, 1979, p. 14)

Few contemporary social learning theorists would agree with the extreme stance presented by Watson. Others, such as Albert Bandura and his associates, have maintained that children, although born naive and unknowing, are capable of some degree of self-determination (Shaffer, 1979). Bandura (1977) suggested that the child and the environment are in a constant state of reciprocal interaction. The child is capable of affecting the environment in which he or she lives, and the environment in turn affects the child.

Social learning theory, as described by Bandura (1977), suggests that all social behaviors are learned as individuals imitate modeled behaviors. The model may

be anything that conveys observable information (Hergenhahn, 1984). According to Bandura and Walters (1967), humans learn from observation. Social learning is, therefore, a cognitive and perceptual process called "observational learning" (Bandura, 1971a, p.17). Social learning is affected by attending to the consequences of their own or other people's behaviors. Depending upon how behaviors are treated by others, whether applauded or punished, humans learn which actions benefit them most (Bandura, 1977).

Bandura (1977) described four processes which he believed influenced what people would attend to, what they would retain, and how learning would produce social behavior. The first is the attentional process which includes aspects of the environment that helps determine what will demand a person's attention. Since children are constantly exposed to numerous social models, Bandura (1971a) suggested that these models had to have certain characteristics before children would pay attention to the exhibited social behavior. Some of those characteristics are a willingness to reward, an ability to nurture, competence, and a position of social power. If the child perceives that the modeled behavior is positively rewarded, he or she is more likely to pay attention and imitate it than if the behavior receives no reward or is treated negatively (Craig, 1983; Mussen

et al., 1974; Schell, 1975). Bandura and his associates also suggested that children pay more attention to models they consider sources of warmth, prestige, or power (Bandura, 1971a, 1971b, 1977; Bandura & Mischel, 1965; Bandura & Walters, 1967). Other factors which determine what will hold children's attention include self-esteem, their similarity to the model, and an intrinsic interest in the modeled activity (Craig, 1983; Shaffer, 1979; Staub, 1979).

Bandura (1971a) called the second step in learning social behavior the retention process. Observers must be able to commit modeled behaviors to memory if they are to be able to reproduce them later on their own. Two methods of retention are used by the observer according to Bandura (1971a, 1977). One method requires storing the observed behavior in the form of visual images which the observer can replay, substituting themselves in place of the model. Other observations are stored as verbal codes which serve as cues the observer can call upon as social situations require reproduction of the action (Shaffer, 1979). These verbal codes also enable the observer to store complex information that would otherwise be difficult to recall (Bandura, 1977; Coates & Hartup, 1969).

After the observer has committed the modeled behaviors to some form of symbolic memory, it is necessary to

translate these symbols into consistent actions (Shaffer, 1979). Bandura (1971a, 1977) referred to this third step as the motoric reproduction process. In order for social behavior to be consistent, the individual must have the physical ability to execute all of the component responses (Shaffer, 1979). Some behaviors require little or no practice for perfect emulation of the model. Many behaviors, however, require regular practice with success measured in small steps and frequent adjustments. Bandura (1971b) described this when he stated, "In most everyday learning, people usually achieve only rough approximations of new patterns of behavior by modeling and refining them through self-corrective adjustments on the basis of informative feedback from performance" (p. 8).

In order for socially acceptable behavior to continue, the observer must receive some form of positive reinforcement through Bandura's (1977) fourth step which he referred to as the motivational process. Reinforcement can be given directly or vicariously through the observation of rewards given to other social models. Likewise, without some form of reinforcement, the learned social behavior will eventually disappear (McCandless, 1967; Schell, 1975). Although reinforcement is necessary for a response to be performed consistently, Bandura (1969) explained that a response did not

have to be performed to be learned. It can be stored away for use much later in the future or rehearsed mentally as often as the observer chooses.

Social training requires that the modeling of behaviors and their consequences be directed toward helping a child learn to express aggression, dependency and other social responses in appropriate ways through these four processes (Bandura & Walters, 1967). Social adjustment also requires that the individual learn both adequate generalization and sharp discrimination, since learned patterns of response often must be applied to situations other than the original learning experience. McCandless (1967) stated that it is this generalization of appropriate behaviors that is necessary for a child to be socially well adjusted. Adequate social adjustment also requires that a child learn to control his or her own behaviors by delaying personal gratification or ceasing socially unacceptable activities. Bandura (1977) described the social learning process as being self-regulating once a child has accepted the social behavior as his or her own through internalization. He explained:

The anticipation of self-reproach for conduct that violates one's standards provides a source of motivation to keep behavior in line with standards in the face of opposing inducements. There is no more devastating punishment than self-contempt.  
(Bandura, 1977, p. 154)



The social-learning theory has been suggested as having implications for understanding the development of peer dependency in pre-adolescents and adolescents (Brophy, 1977; Doise & Palmonari, 1984; Muus, 1976). As Bandura (1971a) believed, children will learn anything which they choose to observe. Muus (1976), who examined numerous studies before coming to his conclusion, suggested that adolescents pay close attention to their agemates due to their similarities and seeming sense of competence. Bronfenbrenner (1970) discovered that the more time children spend with others of their same age, the more peer dependent they become. Bandura and Walters (1967) suggested that this peer dependency, with its modeled social behaviors, is consistently rewarded through peer acceptance and therefore is self-reinforcing. This cyclical social learning pattern was described by Shaffer (1979) when he stated:

The environment surely affects the child; but the child's response is thought to affect the environment. The implication is that children are actively involved in shaping the very environments that influence their development. (Shaffer, 1979, p. 85)

Social learning theory provides an explanation that permits children the opportunity to learn from their own or others experience, whether or not the experience is pleasant. The theory tends to place the burden for social learning on others rather than on the child. Adjustment takes place as a child learns to adjust his

or her understanding or desires to avoid unpleasant consequences or create positive reward. The next theory to be discussed, however, places more of the responsibility for social adjustment on the natural processes of human development.

#### Cognitive-Development Theory of Social Development

The cognitive-developmental theories of Jean Piaget and Lawrence Kohlberg most resemble the doctrine of innate purity as presented by the 18th century philosophers Immanuel Kant and Jean Jacques Rousseau (Muro & Dinkmeyer, 1977; Shaffer, 1979; Watson & Lindgren, 1973). The cognitive-developmental theory stresses the ability of children to adapt to their social environments as they develop cognitive skills. Instead of mirroring experiences or learning to restrict behaviors in order to gain the favor of parents as described in the theories previously presented, children create experiences and by doing so make changes themselves (Craig, 1983; Langer, 1969). As they develop the necessary cognitive skills, children learn how to interpret interpersonal relations and react according to their understandings (Kohlberg, 1969). For this reason, cognitive-developmental theorists conclude that intellectual and social development occur together (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969; Shaffer, 1979).

Jean Piaget, through years of observation and experimentation, concluded that intellectual and social development progress through four distinct stages. These stages are sensorimotor, which lasts from birth up to age 2; preoperational, from ages 2 to 7; concrete-operational, lasting from ages 7 to 11; and formal-operational, covering ages 12 and above (Craig, 1983; Mussen et al., 1974; Piaget & Inhelder, 1969; Shaffer, 1979). As children progress through these stages, they either assimilate or accommodate information, perceptions, or experiences, depending on how they fit into their structures of understanding (Craig, 1983; Shaffer, 1979).

The first of Piaget's developmental stages is the sensorimotor stage, which begins with birth and continues to approximately age 2 (Beard, 1969; Boyle, 1969; Piaget, 1952). Although this stage is divided into six substages, they are all characterized by sensual learning. In other words, children begin to explore their surroundings through their five senses. As they mature, they learn that they can manipulate objects to reproduce sensual stimulation or satisfy basic desires. For example, through the process of trial and error, a child who learns that squeezing a rubber duck produces a quack, can continue to squeeze it each time he or she wants to hear the quack (Shaffer, 1979). By the end of the

sensorimotor stage, children have learned to think out basic solutions to problems without engaging in trial-and-error. Piaget (1952) illustrated the ability of children to anticipate the outcome of their actions with his son Laurent:

Laurent is seated before a table and I place a bread crust in front of him, out of reach. Also, to the right of the child I place a stick about 25 cm. long. At first Laurent tries to grasp the bread . . . and then he gives up . . . . Laurent again looks at the bread, without moving, looks very briefly at the stick, then suddenly grasps it and directs it toward the bread . . . he draws the bread to him. (Piaget, 1952, p.335)

At the end of the sensorimotor stage the child learns to internalize the problem solving process. The child progresses from being a reflexive individual, to being a thinking organism capable of interacting with his or her environment (Beard, 1969; Boyle, 1969; Pulasaki; 1971; Shaffer, 1979). The ability of the child to use mental symbols for problem solving becomes an important element of thought as he or she enters the second of Piaget's developmental stages (Shaffer, 1979).

Piaget called his second stage the preoperational phase, which he further divided into two sub-stages. The first is the preconceptual stage, which lasts from about 2 to 4 years of age; and the second is the intuitive stage, which lasts from age 4 until approximately age 7 (Muro & Dinkmeyer, 1977; Piaget, 1952; Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). During the preconceptual stage

children's language develops rapidly, further enhancing their intellectual development (Muro & Dinkmeyer, 1977). Their understandings, however, are marked by flawed concepts. Thoughts of children during this period are egocentric, considering everything in relationship to themselves (Shaffer, 1979). This egocentrism makes it difficult for children to accept other points of view (Harter, 1983).

In the intuitive sub-stage, children learn to think in terms of classes, numbers and relationships. They can respond using appropriate terminology, but can not provide reasons for their responses (Muro & Dinkmeyer, 1977). It is called intuitive because the child's comprehension of objects and events is centered on their single most salient feature (Shaffer, 1979). Piaget (1952) demonstrated that children lack the ability to view events or objects separate from its physical appearance in his well-known conservation experiments (Beard, 1969; Craig, 1983; Shaffer, 1979). Children's thoughts are concrete and are based upon experiences in the here and now. They lack the ability to mentally reverse the process (Craig, 1983).

During the preoperational stage, children have not yet developed the social ability to understand some of the complexities of relationships. A child may be able to recognize that Mommy and Daddy are husband and wife,

but may not understand that Mommy can also be someone's aunt (Longstreth, 1974). Children recognize that they are either boys or girls, but can be fooled whether others are male or female based upon their clothing. This lack of understanding of relationships and gender identification must be clarified within the next stage before social reason and role identification can be accomplished (Boyle, 1969; Chandler, 1982; Harter, 1983; Shaffer, 1979).

The third stage, which spans from approximately age seven to age eleven, is called the concrete-operational stage (Piaget, 1952). During this stage children learn to think in relational terms developing logic, mental representations, and an ability to think in numerical concepts (Shaffer, 1979). All of these cognitive abilities are higher levels of reason and are necessary, for children to develop adequate social relationships (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). Children learn that people are not objects but individuals with feelings and reactions as valid as their own.

Because of the ability of children to develop reasonable and logical conclusions, Piaget and Inhelder (1969) stated that

the child of seven and over is more socialized than the self of early childhood . . . . It is at the stage of concrete operations that new interpersonal relations of a cooperative nature are established, and there is no reason why these should be limited to cognitive exchanges. (pp. 117-118)

Social exchanges prior to this stage are pre-cooperative. Piaget and Inhelder (1969) explained that they are "at once social from the point of view of the subject and centered upon the child and his own activity from the point of view of the observer" (p. 118).

This period of time, also referred to as middle childhood by some authorities (Clarke-Stewart & Koch, 1983; Craig, 1983; Mussen et al., 1974), is the period in which children learn to reason and carry out logical operations. They learn to manipulate objects in a series as well as in reversible order. With these abilities they begin to develop the complex reasoning necessary for interpersonal relationships (Clark-Stewart & Koch, 1983). They start developing the ability to think in different dimensions, being able to coordinate the multitude of roles, attitudes, and values of others. They become capable of mutual cooperation in groups of three or more people (Clark-Stewart & Koch, 1983).

The concrete-operational stage of development was described by Piaget as being the period in which children begin to recognize that individuals within a society need to live by a set of rules (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). Rules are seen by children as rigid moral absolutes (Piaget, 1932). Anyone who chooses to break one of the rules would be classed as a "cheat" by his or her playmates (Shaffer, 1979). It is not until children

reach the age of 12, which begins the formal-operational stage, that they learn that rules are arbitrary agreements that can be challenged and changed through mutual agreement (Shaffer, 1979).

The formal-operational stage, which Piaget (1952) stated starts at age 12 and continues through adulthood, is characterized by the individual's ability to use all of the cognitive abilities gained during the previous three stages. The individual learns to think abstractly and use hypothetical situations to test beliefs or actions (Shaffer, 1979). Although some researchers have indicated that not all adolescents or adults will attain the level of formal operations (Bruner, Oliver, & Greenfield, 1966; Goodnow & Bethon, 1966; Inhelder, 1966; Jackson, 1965), others support Piaget's belief that all adults progress from sensorimotor through preconceptual to concrete-operations and finally formal-operations in their social development (Brainerd, 1976; Flavell, 1977; Tulkin & Konner, 1973).

Lawrence Kohlberg (1969) expanded Piaget's theory in order to create an understanding of social phenomena such as attachment and dependency, sex-role development, altruism, and the growth of morality. Although differing in some areas, Kohlberg felt that his work supported the concepts of morality that had been suggested by Piaget (Kohlberg, 1963). He proposed that children's



social and moral development progressed through three levels, each containing six stages (Muro & Dinkmeyer, 1977). Kohlberg (1976) gave a brief description of the meaning of the three levels when he wrote:

One way of understanding the three levels is to think of them as three different types of relationships between the self and society's rules and expectations. From this point of view, Level I is a preconventional person, for whom rules and social expectations are something external to the self; Level II is a conventional person, in whom the self is identified with or has internalized the rules and expectations of others, especially those of authorities; and Level III is a postconventional person, who has differentiated his self from the rules and expectations of others and defines his values in terms of self-chosen principles. (Italics in the original. p. 33)

Kohlberg (1976) suggested that a different socio-moral perspective forms the foundation at each level of moral judgement. At Level I it is the concrete individual's perspective, at Level II it is the perspective of a member of society, and at Level III it is the perspective of an individual prior to entering as an active addition to society (Staub, 1979). For example, at Level I, a child thinks only about his or her interests and those of others he or she cares about. A Level II child shares viewpoints that focus on the needs of the group to which he or she belongs. The Level III individual's commitment to moral principles precedes his or her acceptance of society's perspective (Staub, 1979). The Level III person "holds the standards on

which a good or just society must be based" (Kohlberg, 1976, p. 36).

The characteristics that mark each social stage depend upon the interplay between two important factors which are, the child's level of cognitive development, and the kinds of social experiences the child encounters (Colby & Kohlberg, 1984; Kohlberg, 1969; Shaffer, 1979). Explaining his emphasis on cognitive development, Kohlberg (1969) stated:

On the logical side, our approach claims that social development is cognitively based because any description of the shape or pattern of social responses necessarily entails some cognitive dimensions. Description of the organization of the child's social responses entails a description of the way in which he perceives, or conceives, the social world and the way in which he conceives himself.

On the empirical side the cognitive-developmental approach derives from the fact that most marked . . . changes in the psychological development of the child are cognitive, in the mental age or IQ sense. The influence of intelligence on children's social attitudes and behavior is such that it has a greater number of social-behavior correlates than any other aspect of personality. (pp. 372-373)

The kinds of social experiences Kohlberg (1969) believed must accompany cognitive development in order for a child to achieve social adjustment are those that require the taking of roles. Staub (1979) suggested that the following list represents the kinds of experiences Kohlberg believed were necessary for children to adjust socially:

1. Frequent interaction with others in varied situations and occupying different roles in these situations in relation to others.
2. Participation in varied social groups. A member of a group may consider the effects of a decision on himself, as well as on other members of the group.
3. Leadership in a group. Leadership provides additional and different opportunities for role taking. The leader has to consider the point of view of each member and the effect of a decision or action on them, in addition to viewing the event from his (sic) own perspective.
4. Membership in groups having potentially conflicting aims. Membership in such groups may make it necessary for the individual to examine the implications of the conflicting consequences of action on different people, or on different ideals or goals. (Staub, 1979, pp. 43-44)

Both Piaget and Kohlberg emphasized that social adjustment can not take place before a child has developed the cognitive ability to understand how his or her actions affect the actions and reactions of others. Kohlberg took the theory further when he stressed the impact of social interactions upon the overall development of social understanding. The height of social adjustment occurs when a child has acquired the cognitive ability to understand and this understanding is put to the test in actual social situations. The period of highest social development occurs with the added social influence of formal education and between the ages of 7 and 11 (Kohlberg, 1969; Piaget, 1932).

### Summary of Social Development

[ Each of the theories presented suggested that social adjustment occurs under the influence of others. ]

Freud's psychosexual theory suggested that children learn to behave in a socially acceptable manner in order to satisfy their basic drives. The greatest influence, therefore, comes from parents who have the responsibility of harnessing the energy of the id and assisting in the development of an healthy superego. As the child matures, the rest of society also begins to exert pressure on the child to conform to the accepted behavioral standards. Failure to conform creates socially mal-adapted children.

Erikson was less negative when he espoused his psychosocial theory of development. Social adjustment occurs, according to this theory, as a child resolves a series of social crises. Movement into a higher stage of development depends upon healthy resolutions of the crises presented in the previous stages. The influences presented by Erikson begin with the mother and later progress to teachers and peers. If a child senses positive resolution to each crisis, he or she develops acceptable social attitudes such as warmth, trust, and independence, which are necessary to cope with the next series of crises. If the child senses negative

influence or a non-resolution of the current crisis, he or she will learn to be cold, untrusting, and dependent.

Both psychosexual and psychosocial theories suggested that the greatest influence on social development comes from a child's parents. This belief has great implications for parents of home school children who believe that parents are the best source of social instruction throughout a child's development (Gustavsen, 1981). Other theorists, however, shifted the greatest level of influence from parents to other segments of society.

The social learning theorists place less emphasis upon a child's inner struggles and more stress upon the ability of children to learn from their environment. Social adjustment occurs when children learn what is acceptable to those around them. If children see certain behaviors being rewarded, and if they desire the same reward, they are more likely to imitate the rewarded behavior. The influence therefore comes from parents, peers, and others children consider worth observing. The older a child becomes, the more influential his or her peers become. Home school parents often cite this peer influence as a major reason for choosing to educate their children at home rather than in formal institutions (Whitehead & Bird, 1984).

The cognitive-development theories of Piaget and Kohlberg support the need for social interaction for children to develop appropriate social skills. It was their belief, however, that social adjustment could not take place until children had developed the cognitive abilities necessary to understand those social interactions and the impact of their actions on others. Children become socially well adjusted after they develop the cognitive ability to judge the actions of others rationally and choose to act in socially accepted ways based upon positive experiences they or others may create. The primary influence in this theory is the environment, which consists of opportunities, sex roles, modeled behaviors, and social interactions. The greatest period of social development comes during the concrete-operational stage beginning at approximately age seven and continuing until around age eleven. Many home school parents have stated they avoid formal education programs during this period because their children are too vulnerable to negative social influences and peer dependency (Monfils, 1991; Moore & Moore, 1975; Slater & Slater, 1990).

In order for children to become socially well adjusted, they must learn to control their impulses, learn appropriate behaviors from others, or develop an appropriate level of social understandings. How this

learning occurs is explained in various ways by different theorists (Craig, 1983; George & Cristiani, 1986; Mussen et al., 1974; McCandless, 1967; Shaffer, 1977; Staub, 1979). These theories also suggested that childhood social adjustment is correlated with several other phenomena such as age, sex, attitude towards self and others, and perceived attitude of others toward the child. Each of these will be discussed in the next section.

#### Correlates of Childhood Social Adjustment

##### Age and Social Adjustment

One of the factors that affects social adjustment according to the theories discussed above is age. Shantz (1975) reviewed data produced by researchers who studied the social development of children and came to the following conclusions. Children under the age of 5 are egocentric. Although they are capable of recognizing that other people have perspectives that differ from their own, they are unable to specify what that perspective is. They can identify some basic emotions as displayed by other children, but cannot empathize. When they are called upon to describe other children, they tend to use descriptive terms that are highly egocentric. For this reason their social skills are minimal and based upon personal needs and wants (Shaffer, 1979; Shantz, 1975).

In the period between ages 5 and 7, social cognition becomes more sophisticated, but continues to be based primarily upon the needs and wants of the individual. Children are aware that others have thoughts that do not match their own, although they still can not accurately infer what those thoughts are (DeVries, 1970; Flavell, 1968; Rubin, 1973). They have progressed to the point that they are able to recognize the emotions of others, but are unable to empathize (Bronfenbrenner, Harding, & Gallwey, 1958; Feshbach & Roe, 1968; Mood, Johnson, & Shantz, 1974). Most children in this age group are capable of communicating their emotions through facial cues, but are not always accurate in their interpretation of the cues of others (Burns & Cavey, 1957; Feshbach & Roe, 1968; Izard, 1971). They are also capable of determining whether the actions of others are intentional or accidental (Irwin & Ambron, 1973; Shantz & Voydanoff, 1973). The egocentricity of the previous age group has also begun to abate, being replaced by a more concrete description of others, for example describing them by race, clothing, sex, or job (Shaffer, 1979; Shantz, 1975).

The middle childhood years of 7 to 11 presents the greatest advances in social development (Barenboim, 1977; Clark-Stewart & Koch, 1983; Craig, 1983; Mussen et al., 1974; Shantz, 1975). In discussing his review of



research on children Shaffer (1979) reported his conclusions about this age group when he wrote:

The 7- to 11-year-old can infer the emotions of others who are in situations that are not at all familiar to him or her. The child's impressions of others now contain attributes that are much more subtle or precise in their meaning, such as "shy," "considerate," "helpful," "affectionate." When observing social interactions, 7- to 11-year-olds attend less to the overt responses of others than to the underlying motives that may have prompted these actions. (p. 123)

In the middle childhood period children learn to reason and carry out logical operations. It is a period of self-concept development in which the child forms a sense of belongingness and acceptance (Clark-Stewart & Koch, 1983; Flapan, 1968; Livesly & Bromley, 1973; Scarlett, Press, & Crockett, 1971). It is also the period of sex role identity in which children begin to associate primarily with same sex peers (Chandler, 1972; Feffer & Gourevitch, 1960; Flavell, Botkin, Fry, Wright, & Jarvis, 1968; Mussen et al., 1974). For most children, this period marks the time in which they must learn how to deal with some of the complexities and subtleties of friendships and justice, social rules and manners, sex-role conventions, obedience to authority, and moral law (Capuzzi & Gross, 1989; Craig, 1983).

During middle childhood, children's thinking abilities become more sophisticated due to their ability to monitor their own thinking, memory, knowledge, goals, and actions (Craig, 1983; Flavell, 1979; Mischel, 1983).

It is during this period of life, and largely due to their more well developed ability to think, that most children enter the social world of formal school (Craig, 1983; Higgins & Parsons, 1983; Inkeles, 1974; Suzman, 1974). Social ability and adjustment become crucial areas of concern due to increased interaction with peers in formal school programs (Bauer, 1991; Hartup, 1977, 1979; Hoier & Foster, 1985; Mussen et al., 1974; Strain, Cooke, & Apolloni, 1976). Much of this interaction during middle childhood involves emerging sex roles and the development of friendships. The emerging sex roles and sexual identity have led some researchers to suggest that males and females experience social development differently.

#### Sex Differences and Social Adjustment

As children enter their middle childhood period their interpersonal relationships are characterized by segregation into same-sex friendships and play groups (Chandler, 1972; Craig, 1983; Feffer & Gourevitch, 1960; Flavell et al., 1968; Mussen et al., 1974; Schell, 1975). Whether this same-sex preference is developmental in nature, as suggested by some (Hops & Finch, 1985; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Shantz, 1975), or determined by cultural and social forces, as suggested by others (Higgins & Parsons, 1983; Mussen et al., 1974), it is

still an observable phenomena (Asher & Hymel, 1981; Hops, 1983; McConnell & Odom, 1986).

Although children in middle childhood appear to group together according to sex, research conclusions on the possible effects of sex differences on social adjustment are inconclusive. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) reported in their findings that differences that do exist may be modifiable. Both boys and girls who received training in deficit skills areas improved, thus wiping out any significant sex difference in those areas (Conner, Schackman, & Serbin, 1978; Craig, 1983).

Most of the literature reflected a belief that society has established the roles that males and females fill. Kohlberg (1966) theorized that by the time a child was 5 or 6 he or she had developed the sex-typed virtues necessary to compete in society. Kagan (1964) described the social sex-role stereotype when he wrote:

In sum, females are supposed to inhibit aggression and open display of sexual urges, to be passive with men, to be nurturant to others, to cultivate attractiveness, and to maintain an affective, socially poised, and friendly posture with others. Males are urged to be aggressive in face of attack, independent in problem situations, sexually aggressive, in control of regressive urges, and suppressive of strong emotions, especially anxiety. (p. 143)

Although there has been an emphasis during the 1970s and 1980s to limit sex-role stereotyping (Chafel, 1988; Craig, 1983; Turiel, 1978; Romatowski & Trepanier-Street, 1987) the stereotype described by Kagan (1964)

remains strong today (Chafel, 1988; Goffman, 1979; Hops & Finch, 1985; Michelson, Foster, & Ritchey, 1981).

Hymel and Franke (1985) suggested that gender-related differences deserve critical consideration when conducting research, because they observed different patterns of interrelations for boys and girls. Others, however, reported that the pattern of relationships are similar for both boys and girls (Asher, Hymel, & Renshaw, 1984; Craig, 1983; Harter, 1982). Some researchers reported that girls display higher levels of social anxiety than boys (Block, 1983; Buss & Brock, 1963; Hymel & Franke, 1985), whereas others suggested that social anxiety is higher for boys than for girls (Ollendick, 1981; Trent, 1963). Boys have been observed to be more aggressive than girls (Kagan & Moss, 1962; Mischel, 1983; Mussen et al., 1974), but the aggressiveness has often been attributed to social situations rather than to an innate sex-difference (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1962; Feshbach, 1970; Zahn-Waxler, Iannotti, & Chapman, 1982).

The inconsistency in reported sex-differences may be due to the fact that much of the research on social adjustment has been conducted using only male subjects (Coie & Kupersmidt, 1983; Dodge, Schlundt, Schocken, & Delugach, 1983; Milich & Landau, 1984; Olweus, 1979) and can be considered to be inconclusive regarding

sex-differences (LaGreca & Stark, 1986; Michelson et al., 1981). Research conducted using both sexes has typically not yielded significant sex differences (Campbell, Gluck, Lamperski, Romano, & Schultz, 1979; Cullinan, Epstein, & Kauffman, 1984; Gibbs, Arnold, & Burkhardt, 1984; Pellegrini, 1985; Selman, 1975; Serafica, 1982; Shantz, 1983; Walker, 1984).

The only significant sex-differences were found in children's concepts of friendship, where girls are more likely to differentiate between best friendships and regular friendships (Berndt, 1983; Gamer, 1977; Rose & Serafica, 1979; Serafica, 1982). Girls also tend to have more exclusive friendships consisting of one or two other girls (Berndt, 1983; Berndt & Hoyle, 1981; Eder & Hallinan, 1978; Savin-Williams, 1980; Waldrop & Halver-son, 1975). Boys develop friends with other boys their own age more frequently and with less depth than girls (Berndt, 1983; Douvan & Adelson, 1966). Boys are also quicker to accept outsiders of their own sex into their activities (Feshbach, 1969; Feshbach & Sones, 1971). Girls, however, are more likely to share equally with all classmates whereas boys are prone to share less (Berndt, 1983).

Berndt (1983) among others, suggested that this difference in sharing may be due to a feeling of competition among boys (Ahlgren & Johnson, 1979; Foot,

Chapman, & Smith, 1977; Newcomb, Brady, & Hartup, 1979; Oskamp & Perlman, 1966; Straub & Noerenberg, 1981). Competitive behaviors among boys, however, has been credited by some researchers to societal pressures for males to be more aggressive than females rather than a sex-difference (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1962; Feshbach, 1970; Zahn-Waxler et al., 1982). Aggression among both sexes has been considered socially inappropriate (Bandura et al., 1962).

#### Assertiveness and Social Adjustment

Social skills training programs have attempted to turn aggressive behavior in both girls and boys into more socially accepted assertive behaviors (Hops, 1983; Ladd, 1979; LeCroy, 1983; Michelson et al., 1983). Assertiveness has been suggested by some researchers as an example of prosocial behavior and proper social adjustment (Bower, Amatea, & Anderson, 1976; Conger & Keane, 1981; Michelson et al., 1983; Payne, Halpin, Ellett, & Dale, 1974; Tolor, Kelly, & Stebbins, 1976) because it allows for the expression of feelings in socially appropriate manners (Alberti & Emmons, 1982; Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966).

Several studies concluded that individuals who are considered assertive display less social anxiety than those who are seen as passive (Asher, 1982; Horvath, 1984; Kazdin, 1975; Wampler & Amira, 1980). It has been

suggested by some researchers that the less anxiety a person feels the more competent he or she is in social situations (Norton-Ford & Norton-Ford, 1979; Paterson, Dickson, Layne, & Anderson, 1984; Rotheram, 1987; Waksman & Messmer, 1979). Passive children are seen as more withdrawn and eliciting fewer positive social responses than assertive children (Greenwood, Walker, Todd, & Hops, 1977, 1979; Hartup, Glazer, & Charlesworth, 1967; Michelson et al., 1983; Rubin, 1985).

A lack of social assertiveness in children has also been linked to feelings of inadequacy, incompetence, and depression (Michelson et al., 1983; Michelson & Mannarino, 1986). Some researchers have demonstrated that non-assertive children often withdraw from social situations due to a higher level of anxiety. Due to this phenomenon, they eventually suffer from varying degrees of childhood, and later adult, psychopathology (Cowen, Pederson, Babigian, Izzo, & Trost, 1973; Kagan & Moss, 1962; Kohn, 1977; Michelson et al., 1983).

Assertiveness within children has been suggested by some researchers to be a positive social attribute because it allows children to develop higher levels of competence and confidence (Norton-Ford & Norton-Ford, 1979; Payne et al., 1974; Rotheram, 1987; Waksman & Messmer, 1979; Wojnilower & Gross, 1984, 1988). Children who are perceived as being assertive rather than

passive or aggressive, are chosen more frequently as friends or are rated as more popular in sociometric studies (Asher, 1982; Horvath, 1984; Paterson et al., 1984; Waldrop & Halverson, 1975; Wojnilower & Gross, 1984, 1988). Assertive children also have been shown to have more positive self-concepts which often affects interpersonal relationships (Craig, 1983; Crandall, 1988; Horvath, 1984; McCandless, 1967; Mussen et al., 1974; Rotheram, 1987; Tolor et al., 1976; Waksman, 1984).

#### Self-concept and Social Adjustment

A positive self-esteem or self-concept plays an important role in the social behaviors of middle-childhood children, because it describes their perceptions of themselves and their relationship to others (Cooper-smith, 1967; Elliot, 1984; Piers & Harris, 1969; Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976; Wells & Marwell, 1976). Children with low self-esteem have been observed to withdraw from social situations whereas those with higher self-esteem become active within the social environment surrounding them (Coopersmith, 1967; DeMan & Devisse, 1987; Gergen, 1971; Rosenberg, 1965).

McIntire and Drummond (1977) discovered that children with a low self-concept

tend to get emotional when frustrated, are easily perturbed, tend to give up early, and are changeable in attitude and interests. In addition to the emotional aspects, some tend to be evasive of



responsibilities, obstructive, and wrapped up in themselves. (McIntire & Drummond, 1977, p. 296)

Some of the tendencies enumerated by McIntire and Drummond have been cited as reasons for low popularity, higher levels of social anxiety, and exclusion by others (Craig, 1983; LaGreca & Stark, 1986; Michelson et al., 1983; Stein & Friedrich, 1975; Staub, 1979). The more children sense failure in social situations, the lower their self-esteem becomes. The lower their self-esteem becomes, the less success they experience in social settings (Glidewell, Kantor, Smith, & Stringer, 1976; Sobol & Earn, 1985). As Craig (1983) stated, "Personal successes or failures in different social situations can lead children to see themselves as leaders, loners, or criminals, as well-adjusted or maladjusted" (p. 341).

Children with high self-concepts tend to become active in both formal and informal social situations (Coopersmith, 1967; Rosenberg, 1965). Coopersmith (1967) also reported that children with high self-concepts are "happier and more effective in meeting environmental demands than are persons with low self-esteem" (p. 19). Galluzzi and Zucker (1977) discovered that a high self-concept is a high predictor of appropriate personality adjustment.

McCandless (1967), described the relationship between the self-concept and social adjustment when he wrote:

The maladjusted, self rejecting person, if he also rejects others, is likely to be rejected by them in turn, with resulting exacerbation of his maladjustment. If in counseling, the self-concept can be improved and if this improvement results in increased acceptance of and by other people, then a spiraling effect of "cure" or personal improvement will result. (McCandless, 1967, p. 283)

He further described self-accepting children as being less cynical about life in general, viewing the world as a friendlier place than those who have lower self-concepts. Therefore, he stated, "self acceptance . . . seems associated with accepting other people" (p. 283). Pellegrini (1985) explained that the way one reasons about or accepts other people is a major determinant of his or her social behavior and adjustment.

Children's self-concepts have also been considered an important measure of social adjustment because they remain considerably constant over time and are usually resistant to modification (Brownfain, 1952; Coopersmith, 1967; Mirels & McPeck, 1977; Marotz, 1983; Piers, 1985; Piers & Harris, 1969). Although the self-concept has been reported to remain fairly constant over a person's life span (Ketcham & Snyder, 1977; Taylor, 1986; Wylie, 1974b), some researchers have found an indication that there is a period of lowered self-concept between the first and fifth grades in school (Gerken, Allen, & Snider, 1980; Taylor, 1986). Wylie (1961, 1974a), however, in his research on self-concept concluded that the

majority of studies show no significant relationship between age and self-concept.

A few researchers have suggested that the self-concept may be a significant variable affecting social interactions among children from families with different socio-economic status. It has also been suggested that a child's socioeconomic status might directly affect his or her social adjustment (Levine, Mendez-Caratini, & Snyder, 1982; Ruble 1983; Schwarzer, Jerusalem, & Lange, 1981).

#### Socioeconomic Status and Social Adjustment

Taylor (1986) noted that research on the effect of socioeconomic status on children's social adjustment has yielded conflicting conclusions. Some research indicates that there may be a direct relationship between how people view their social status and how they perceive themselves socially. In other words, children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds have lower self-concepts than those of middle or upper socioeconomic status (Oigbokie, 1983; Richman, Clarke, & Brown, 1984; Scott-Jones & Clark, 1986; Wylie, 1974b).

McPherson and Rust (1987) in an analysis of 79 second grade students, discovered that children from a high socioeconomic status background were considered by their peers to be more popular. They further stated

that unpopularity correlated significantly with reading ability, self-concept, and social status.

Other researchers concluded that there is an inverse relationship between socioeconomic status and how children perceive themselves. In these studies, children from lower income and social environments had higher measured self-concepts than their age-mates in the higher economic strata (Smith, Zingale, & Coleman, 1978; Soares & Soares, 1970).

Nevertheless, a majority of the studies revealed no significant differences in self-perception across socioeconomic levels (Atolagbe, 1975; Coopersmith, 1967; Healey, 1969; Healey & Deblassie, 1974; Rosenberg, 1965; Wylie, 1974a). The results reported in some studies indicate that the differences which do exist may be due to adult perceptions and interactions rather than to an actual phenomena (McKenzie, 1986; Miller, 1986; Parks & Smeriglo, 1986; Quay & Jarrett, 1986). The fact that the results of relevant studies on the effects of socioeconomic status upon a person's social adjustment are inconclusive makes it important to control for this variable in any research conducted involving social adjustment (Scott-Jones & Clark, 1986).

Most of the research which was reviewed focused the impact of a child's status on peer acceptance in the formal school setting. One of the original thrusts of

formal schooling was to cut across socioeconomic boundaries and socialize all children for the good of the nation (Cremin, 1951, 1977; King, 1986; Nolte, 1982; Rothstein, 1986; Spring, 1982, 1986; Tyack, 1967). Schooling experience, therefore, has become the primary source of social adjustment in America.

#### Schooling Experience and Social Adjustment

Vallance (1973) stated that with an increasing population schools became "an active socializing agent to guarantee stability in the face of the growing diversity of the populace" (p. 12). To socialize the populace, it becomes important for children to learn a standardized set of socially appropriate norms. It has been said ". . . schooling helps pupils to learn what the norms are, to accept those norms, and to act according to them" (Dreeben, 1968, p. 46). Until children reach the traditional age for entrance into school, the rules needed for adequate social adjustment are modeled by their parents (Chandras, 1991; Craig, 1983; Mussen et al., 1974). Schools, therefore, become an extension of a child's family, occupying almost half of his or her waking hours (Craig, 1983; Mussen et al., 1974; Schell, 1975). Mussen and his associates (1974) expressed:

As one of the principal socializing agents of our society, the school should be in a uniquely favorable position to supplement, and sometimes to compensate for, parental training. By teaching the child academic skills, . . . and by giving him supervised practice in social relationships both

with adults and a wider range of peers, the school should make him better able to deal comfortably with the ever-widening range of challenges and opportunities, as well as problems, that lie ahead of him on the road toward psychological maturity. (Mussen et al., 1974, p. 488)

Some researchers have expressed a belief that formal schooling provides the best opportunity for adequate social adjustment because it forces group interaction (Crockenberg & Bryant, 1978; Franzosa, 1984; Hartup, 1977, 1979; Johnson, 1981; Ladd, 1979; LeCroy, 1983; Murphy, 1991; Mussen et al., 1974; Strain, Cooke, & Apolloni, 1976). The basis for their conclusions was the belief that the formal group interaction required in schools provided for the development of individual, interpersonal, and social adequacies through regular peer contact (Adams, Shea, & Kacerguis, 1978; "Educators say," 1989; Greenberger & Sorensen, 1974; Murphy, 1991). Morris (1961) stated it clearly:

Since the basic epistemology of scientific logic depends so much on the sharing of findings, all learning founded on that logic must become thoroughly social in character. Progressivist schools, therefore, are places where boys and girls work together more than they work alone. (p. 363)

Researchers into the effects of a lack of peer contact have demonstrated that poor social interactions often lead to mental illness, alienation, juvenile delinquency, and other problems for society (Hartup, 1977; Ladd, 1979; LeCroy, 1983; Roff & Sells, 1968). Partly because of a need to guarantee adequate social

skills development and thus avoid problems for society, all states passed compulsory attendance laws by 1918 (Cremin, 1951, 1977; Ovard, 1978; Rothstein, 1986; Spring, 1986; Tyack, 1967). Since that time, the average number of years a child experiences schooling has gradually increased from a low of eight in 1918 to over fourteen years by 1980 (Cremin, 1988; McCurdy, 1985; Moore, 1984).

A proliferation of literature focusing on school based social skills programs offers further evidence that many researchers, parents, and educators view formal schooling as the best location for adequate social adjustment (Borstein et al., 1977; Bower et al., 1976; Crandall, 1988; Glidewell et al., 1976; Gray & Tindell, 1978; Gresham & Elliott, 1984; LeCroy, 1983; Michelson & Mannarino, 1986; Michelson et al., 1981; Murphy, 1991). Much of this literature emphasized the role of peers as models of social behavior (Adams, Shea, & Kacerguis, 1978; Gray & Tindell, 1978; Hallinan, 1976; Hamburg & Varenhorst, 1972; Murphy, 1991; Myrick, 1987; Schmuck, 1978; Strain et al., 1976).

Other researchers have expressed a deepening belief that formal educational systems are failing to provide adequate social adjustment for children (Holt, 1982; Illich, 1971; Moore, 1984; Moore & Moore, 1986; Rothstein, 1986; Rubin, 1985; Slater & Slater, 1990; Waller,

1961, 1962; Wynne, 1979). Although most agreed that positive peer relationships enhance social development, they also believed that the very nature of formal schooling prohibits, rather than promotes, peer interaction due to the need to keep order within the classroom (Coleman, 1979; Holt, 1982; Johnson, 1981; Kozol, 1967; Monfils, 1991; Rothstein, 1986; Silberman, 1970; Waller, 1961).

Many researchers have also questioned the actual value of peer interactions in the process of developing socially appropriate behaviors (Bronfenbrenner, 1970; Gorder, 1985; Moore, 1982, 1987; Moore & Moore, 1986; Slater & Slater, 1990; Smith, 1986). They stated that constant peer interaction often generates peer dependency that restricts the development of a positive self-concept and creates aggressive rather than assertive attitudes. John Holt (1981) expressed his results when he wrote:

When I point out to people that the social life of most schools and classrooms is mean-spirited, status-oriented, competitive, and snobbish, I am always astonished by their response. Not one person of the hundreds with whom I've discussed this has yet said to me that the social life at school is kindly, generous, supporting, democratic, friendly, loving, or good for children. (p. 49, italics in original)

Additionally, some researchers found evidence that formal schooling promotes an unrealistic view of society (Johnson, 1985). Wynne (1979) stated a concern that



children, forced into loose relationships with other children of like backgrounds and abilities, form little commitment to the diverse society as a whole. Norton (1970) expressed a concern that schooling reinforces dependency rather than independence. Lamm (1976) believed that this unrealistic view of society creates a conflict within schooling itself when he stated:

Socialization is, on the one hand, essentially a technique for adapting young people to existing social conditions. On the other hand, social conditions may demand innovative rather than conformist behavior. But the school, guided by the idea of socialization, cannot at the same time promote the adaptation of its pupils to existing society and their willingness to accept or effect social change . . . the school cannot maintain a system of instruction that simultaneously promotes both creativity and conformity, both open- and close-mindedness. (Lamm, 1976, p. 117)

Many parents have voiced a conviction that the burden of socializing their children belongs to them and not the formal educational systems (Gorder, 1985; Home education, 1986; Kink, 1983; "Parents like to include", 1990; Slater & Slater, 1990; Smith, 1986; Wilson, 1988). To them, the needed peer involvement and social interaction can be provided through positive activities such as church, scouting, YMCA, and appropriate adult role models (Holt, 1981, 1983a, 1983b; Kendall, 1982; Lines, 1987; Olson, 1990; Wilson, 1988). Due to their concerns that formal schooling is failing to provide adequate and appropriate social training as well as a belief that public education in general is deteriorating, some

parents look for other alternatives for their children's schooling experience (Gustavsen, 1981; Naisbitt, 1982; Seuffert, 1990; Sipher, 1978; Tobak & Zirkel, 1983; Whitehead & Bird, 1984). Currently there are two major sources of schooling experience, the traditional formal school and home schools. In the next section, each of these alternatives will be discussed in the context of social adjustment.

#### Comparative Literature on Schooling Alternatives

##### The Public School Movement

Society has consistently demanded that its citizens display appropriate social behaviors (Pratte, 1973). Teaching appropriate behavior and guiding children toward developing positive social skills was originally considered part of the religious duty of all parents (Cremin, 1951, 1970; Cubberly, 1934; Demos, 1970).

The Massachusetts Bay Colony was so concerned that parents might not live up to this responsibility that they passed a statute in 1647 known as the "Old Deluder Satan Law." This law required that every township of fifty families appoint one person to teach all the children within that township (Cremin, 1970; Spring, 1986; Tyack, 1967). It further required that once the township grew to over 100 families, "they shall set up a grammar school, the master thereof being able to instruct youth so far as they may be fitted for the

university" (Tyack, 1967, p. 16). This law, which permitted parents to delegate some of the responsibility for educating and socializing their children to the government, became the forerunner of current day compulsory attendance laws (Katz, 1976, 1977).

As the population of the Colonies grew, concerns over social development also grew, and more of the social functions of the family were shared with religious organizations, formal schools, and other community agencies (Cremin, 1980). Cremin (1980) suggested that the shared responsibility for the social development of children coincided with other social changes in the early national period of America. For example, the size of the average family was declining rapidly as the tendency for households to include two or more nuclear families or additional kin decreased. Because family size was decreasing, more of the work was shifting from the home to the shop, factory, and market. It was this shift that Cremin stated

dramatically altered the character of apprenticeships and the educative role of parents vis-a-vis those of other adults. The shift occurred first in the cities and the factory towns of the East, but it augured changes that became increasingly widespread during the later years of the century. (Cremin, 1980, pp. 371-72)

The household changed from being the center of all social development to one that shared that responsibility with others.

People began to see formal schools as a viable alternative to the family for socializing children. Parents demonstrated little concern over allowing other mothers to teach their children how to read, write and behave in what came to be called "Dame schools" (Spring, 1986).

Many families also viewed schools as a convenient way in which large settlements of immigrants could be introduced into the American culture (Cremin, 1951). The need to guarantee that the immigrants developed the same social manners as the rest of society became so great that several colonies suggested the use of formal schools to force immigrants and Americans together. One such proposal came from Benjamin Franklin who proposed the establishment of charity schools (Cremin, 1970). Charity schools were religious institutions established to educate poor German children in the provinces. Requests for money to support these charity schools reached London in 1753 where William Smith proclaimed:

By a common education of English and German youth at the same schools, acquaintances and connections will be formed, and deeply impressed upon them in their cheerful and open moments. The English language and a conformity of manners will be acquired. (Cremin, 1970, p. 261)

Although these early charity schools failed, they helped establish the concept that social adjustment could best be accomplished through group interaction. It is this belief that is the basis for using formal education as a

means to develop appropriate social skills in the American system, a goal seen as necessary and acceptable to most communities (Cremin, 1970; Tyack, 1974).

Several prominent people of the late eighteenth century stressed the need for government control of education in order to protect American society by providing uniform socialization. One of the first to argue for the superiority of the formal school over the family was Benjamin Rush. Writing in the late 1700s, Rush claimed that formal schools had to assume the roles held by what he saw as a collapsing family. He stated, "Society owes a great deal of its order and happiness to the deficiencies of parental government being supplied by those habits of obedience and subordination which are contracted at schools" (Rush, 1965, p. 16). To some, formal education would have to maintain the balance between order and freedom by producing virtuous, well-behaved citizens (Kaestle, 1983; Spring, 1986).

After the American Revolution, several factors contributed to the rise of formal education as a government function, rather than one reserved for the family. Cremin (1951) listed three important demands that led to the creation of the common schools during the mid 1800s. The first was the demands of a republican government which "argued that if there was to be universal exercise of the rights of suffrage and citizenship, all of

society would have to be educated to this task" (Cremin, 1951, p. 29). The new American government formed by the Constitution did not provide for a national education system. It was obvious however, that some form of systematic and organized education was on the minds of the founding fathers when James Madison asserted

A popular Government, without popular information, or the means of acquiring it, is but a Prologue to a Farce or a Tragedy; or perhaps both. Knowledge will forever govern ignorance: And a people who mean to be their own governors, must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives. (In Cremin, 1951, p. 30)

The second factor cited by Cremin (1951) was the demand for equality. Thousands of families had migrated to industrialized urban areas. As labor groups formed, they were "fearful of the political and social consequences of the new industry and commerce, and mindful of the gaps between principle and reality in the democratic ethic" (p. 33). Therefore, they waged a campaign for an educated citizenry that would guarantee that all children could be socially equal.

Newly enfranchised workers recognized that the only way to guarantee that the United States did not break apart into rigid social classes would be for all children to be educated together in equal environments, a task impossible as long as individual families controlled the educational process. Cremin (1951) quotes Robert Dale Owen, an early labor leader who stated

I believe in a National System of Equal, Republican, Protective, Practical Education, the sole regenerator of a profligate age, and the only redeemer of our suffering country from the equal curses of chilling poverty and corrupting riches, of gnawing want and destroying debauchery, of blind ignorance and of unprincipled intrigue. (Cremin, 1951, p. 33)

Labor groups believed so strongly in the need for free public education to socialize their children that they pressed their state legislatures to appropriate funds to implement "Free, Equal, and Republican" schools (Cremin, 1951, p. 33). This pressure became a deciding factor in the creation and institution of the American free public school systems (Tyack, 1967).

Cremin (1951) listed the demand for American Nationality as the third factor which led to the formation of common schools. He described the 1830s as being filled with concern that the American republic might be weakened by the incompatibility of non-English speaking people. The common school, just as the charity schools of the eighteenth century, had the task of "inculcation of those values vital to adequate participation in the American community" (p. 45). The demands and concerns for a strong American society were so great that few of the electorate resisted the belief that public schools should provide universal socialization for good citizenship. The governments of each state took a stance that they could no longer leave this responsibility in the hands of families, religious

organizations, or local communities (Cremin, 1951; 1977).

Public schooling remained a voluntary and incidental process, however, until the twentieth century (Spring, 1986). Attendance varied enormously from day to day and from season to season (Tyack, 1974). The family continued to control the educational process by selecting how often and which of their children would attend school. In spite of parental control, formal education continued to provide an attractive alternative to home education, so that by the late nineteenth century, the typical young American could expect to receive five years of formal education (Cremin, 1951, 1970; Spring, 1986; Tyack, 1974).

Public education became a training process in consonance with an idealized family. It was a form of preventive socialization in which children could be trained for a more complex society. Immigrants and the newly urbanized American family were convinced that the good of all society could only be guaranteed by regular social interaction provided in public schools (Spring, 1982; Tyack, 1967).

Tyack (1974) stated that American families in making schools available, in sending their children to those schools without governmental compulsion, and in underwriting the schools with their own money, were



demonstrating their faith in the ability of formal schools to teach the social skills necessary for survival. Quoting reformers of the late nineteenth century, Tyack further clarified the drive for compulsory attendance laws that would remove the control of education and socialization from the family. Many advocates of compulsory schooling referred to stories of neglected children who learned their social skills from the streets. These advocates cited disobedience to parents, obscenity, lewdness, thievery, and even murder as examples of what they claimed was a break down of family discipline. Some parents were deemed as unfit guardians of their children. The only remedy would be "stringent legislation, thoroughly carried out by an efficient police" (Tyack, 1974, p. 68) that would force these children into school.

Many attempts were made during the last of the nineteenth century to make public education compulsory. Ironically a primary source of the drive for mandatory schooling came from parents who deemed formal education an important part of their children's socialization. So many parents demanded that their children be accepted in schools that thousands were turned away in San Francisco, New York and Philadelphia (Tyack, 1974). Historian Elwood Cubberley (1934) declared that "each year

the child is coming to belong more and more to the state, and less and less to the parent" (p. 34).

Gradually school accommodations began to catch up with demand and states began to view compulsory attendance as an achievable goal (Tyack, 1974). By 1918 all states had passed some form of compulsory attendance laws that placed the state in full control of the socialization process (Cremin, 1977, 1988; Ovard, 1978). To assist children in their social development, public schools have often made use of trained counselors. In 1907 Jesse B. Davis, a principal of the Grand Rapids, Michigan, High School required that a weekly period in English composition be devoted to "vocational and moral guidance" (Mathewson, 1962, p. 72). Since that time formal guidance and counseling programs have grown and been integrated into the social adjustment process of nearly every public school (Aubrey, 1982; Bernard & Fulmer, 1977; Lee & Pallone, 1966; Myrick, 1987; Shertzer & Stone, 1966; Traxler, 1957). School counselors assisted children in making vocational and academic decisions. Through the years school counselors have gained increasing understanding and experience in human development (Muro & Dinkmeyer, 1977; Myrick, 1987; Simonis, 1973).

With the incorporation of school counselors into the academic process, it was believed that all facets of

a child's social development could be adequately addressed through formal public schooling (Ryan, 1978). As their roles expanded, school counselors were relied upon to intervene in crisis situations, help individuals remediate social weaknesses, and assist in social development through preventative developmental counseling (Bernard & Fulmer, 1977; Muro & Dinkmeyer, 1977; Myrick, 1987; Simonis, 1973). Ryan (1978) defined the role of school counseling:

In any setting the guidance program supports the mission of pupil-student services by assisting each individual to become a fully functioning person, capable of maintaining healthy social relationships, performing as a responsible citizen of the community, being a part of the larger society, and contributing to that society. (p. 11)

Formal public schooling was able to provide more services and at a greater efficiency than could the family (Cremin, 1977, 1988).

The prevalent view that formal education was superior to the home as a source of social development was demonstrated by the rapid increase in the school enrollment from a low of 10 percent of the child population in the late nineteenth century, to over 91 percent by the 1950s (Moore, 1985b). Since the 1950s, however, public school attendance has been on the decline due to parental concerns over a lack of moral control, peer influence, and lowered academic quality (Lines, 1982;

Moore, 1985b; Naisbitt, 1982; Ornstein, 1989; "Parents like," 1990).

Roger Sipher (1978) described conditions in the public schools during the 1950s that created the concerns that were expressed by many parents. He described over crowded classrooms filled with post war "baby boomers." Many school systems were not ready for the increase in the student population and resorted to the use of poorly trained teachers, cramped classrooms, and outdated materials.

In 1983, the National Commission on Excellence in Education issued its report entitled A Nation at Risk in which they described the state of mediocrity of American schools. Kenneth Fish (1970) described conditions similar to a war zone that required that some schools be closed. Erickson et al. (1972) disclosed that the social conditions in the schools they observed were so bad that quality education was impossible. Others have expressed similar concerns well into the 1990s (Algozine, 1991; Frady & Dunphy, 1985; Help! Teacher can't teach, 1980; Kirst, 1984; Tomorrow, 1982).

A deepening concern that formal schools were not accomplishing the task of helping their children achieve social adjustment led many parents to seek other alternatives. One alternative was to educate their children themselves.

### The Home School Movement

Some parents express a concern that they, not organized institutions, are better suited to teach their children the moral, social and character attributes necessary for a successful life (Gustavsen, 1981; "Parents like," 1990; Slater & Slater, 1990). These parents choose to break with modern tradition and educate their children at home (Naisbitt, 1982; Tobak, 1983; Whitehead & Bird, 1984).

Home schooling, or home centered education as it is sometimes described (Whitehead & Bird, 1984), had its origin in the earliest stages of human existence when Moses delivered the Law of God to the Israelites commanding them to

teach them diligently unto your children, and talk of them when you sit in your houses, and when you walk by the way, and when you lie down, and when you rise up at dawn. (Deuteronomy, 6:7)

In the Biblical tradition, the basis and model for learning and social skills development was left in the hands of the parents (Ephesians, 6:4). The Ordinances delivered by Moses, and commanded to be taught by the parents, included all of the information needed for human survival (Gustavsen, 1981).

The primary source of knowledge during the early American Colonial period continued to be the family (Cremin, 1970; Spring, 1986). As political upheaval threatened domestic tranquility in Europe, it forced

many to flee to the American continent in search of a new beginning. As they came, early colonial families brought with them the traditions and directives that had been established in Europe. Among those were Royal Injunctions that dated back to Henry VIII charging parsons to

admonish the fathers and mothers, masters and governors of youth, being under their care, to teach, or cause to be taught, their children and servants, even from their infancy, their Pater Noster, the Articles of our Faith, and the Ten Commandments, in their mother tongue: and the same so taught, shall cause the said youth to repeat and understand. (In Cremin, 1970, p. 120)

King Henry's Injunction further directed fathers and mothers to

bestow their children and servants, even from their childhood, either to learning, or to some other honest exercise, occupation or husbandry: exhorting, counseling, and by all the ways and means they may, . . . lest any time afterward they be driven, for lack of some mystery or occupation to live by, to fall to begging, stealing, or some other unthriftiness . . . where if they had been well educated and brought up in some good literature, occupation, or mystery, they should, being rulers of their own family, have profited, as well themselves as divers other persons, to the great commodity and ornament of the commonwealth. (In Cremin, 1970, p. 120-121)

Although Colonial America was vastly different from their European heritage, many families continued to maintain their Protestant religious beliefs and thereby ensure social stability (Spring, 1986). The family became the focal point of everything that was deemed important for social development and survival. It was a

business, a school, a vocational institution, a church, and a welfare center supplying the needs of their own and other families (Demos, 1970).

As more people fled the political upheavals in Europe and came to the New World they were faced with a greater responsibility to provide for the social development of their children at home than before they left the metropolitan areas of the Old World. There was less access to churches, colleges and other institutions that might have shared the task (Cremin, 1970). In spite of this emphasis, a concern that parents might not fulfill their divinely appointed responsibility led the Massachusetts Bay Colony to implement a law in 1642 empowering the selectmen of each town

to take account from time to time of all parents and masters, and of their children, concerning their calling and employment of their children, especially of their ability to read and understand the principles of religion and the capital laws of this country. (In Tyack, 1967, pp. 14-15)

The Royal Injunctions of Henry VIII were slowly being placed into the hands of the Colonial governments (Cremin, 1970).

The context of the Massachusetts law of 1642 suggested that education by parents was not only for the preservation of religious beliefs, but also the preservation of social order and continuation of the skills and trades necessary for the survival of the community (Spring, 1986). The family was the earliest source of

information for youth concerning the real world and how individuals ought to behave. It provided the examples children needed in order to learn the skills and jobs necessary for society's survival (Cremin, 1977). As Cremin (1977) stated, "the pedagogy of household education was the pedagogy of apprenticeship, that is, a relentless round of imitation, explanation, and trial and error" (p. 12).

Until the late 1800s, parents were entrusted with complete control of what and how their children learned (Gordon, 1983; Katz, 1977; Moore, 1985a; Nolte, 1982; Whitehead & Bird, 1984). This early form of socializing children at home rather than in a formal educational setting, although not always adhered to by some families, assured that a child was able to read and write, understand the local laws of the land, behave in socially accepted ways, and become skilled at a vocation or trade (Cremin, 1970). It was so successful that John Adams observed in 1765 that "a native of America, especially of New England, who cannot read and write is a rare a phenomenon as a Comet" (Butterfield, 1961).

As the population of the Colonies grew, more of the educative functions of the family were shared with religious organizations, formal schools and other community agencies (Cremin, 1980). In the more scarcely populated areas of the frontier, however, parents



continued the socialization process much as it had been introduced (Cremin 1951, 1970; Spring, 1986).

Several factors marked the decline of home centered education and an increase in the demand for free public schools in America. As was presented in the previous discussion of the formal school movement in this chapter, the American family was beginning to shrink in number, making it easier for parents to combine training efforts with other parents or institutions (Cremin, 1980). Cremin (1980) also stated that the family was more mobile than ever before, illustrated by the fact that by 1850, roughly a fifth of the original population were residing in states other than where they had been born. This mobility, the changing size of the family, and the shift of work from the home to the community gave rise to new institutions to protect and guarantee social order in America. Cremin (1980) stated:

Paralleling the contrapuntal influences acting upon the household itself was the proliferation of new institutions to assume functions formerly carried on by the household, . . . with a heightened concern for finding institutional means for maintaining social order. But what was significant about these institutions was the extent to which they were explicitly seen, on the one hand, surrogates for families . . . and, on the other hand, as complements to families in the building and maintenance of the virtuous society. (p. 373)

Parents viewed social survival in the early American period as a cooperative effort of many families. For that reason, they felt little concern over

entrusting the social development of their children to neighbors or the local minister and his wife (Butts & Cremin, 1953; Cubberly, 1934; Spring, 1986).

American families were also afraid of losing control of their culture to the large numbers of immigrants that were establishing settlements throughout the territories (Cremin, 1951; Tyack, 1974). It was generally believed that combined formal schooling would be the best method to socialize the immigrants into the American culture (Butts & Cremin, 1954; Cremin, 1951, 1970; Spring, 1986; Tyack, 1974).

Home education among the immigrants was considered by some a subversive activity that had to be counteracted by the free public school. This became especially clear in the ever present need to promote Protestant Christianity among the many Catholic newcomers. George Cheever, a conservative nativist, illustrated this belief when he said,

If the Bible be read in them (free public schools), its daily lessons cannot but be attended by the Divine blessing, and in many instances may beget such a reverence for the Word of God, and instil such a knowledge of its teachings, that the infidelity of their home education shall be effectually counteracted. (In Cremin, 1951, p. 47)

Many Americans in the late eighteenth century were concerned that the family was collapsing and would no longer be able to provide adequate social example (Kaestle, 1983; Rush, 1965; Spring, 1986). In order to

guarantee universal social skills for the good of all society, more parents consented to send their children to formal organized schools rather than educate them at home (Cremin, 1951, 1970; Spring 1982; Tyack, 1967). Tyack (1974) stated that American families in making schools available, in sending their children to those schools without government compulsion, and in underwriting the schools with their own money, demonstrated their faith in the ability of formal schools to teach the social skills necessary for living.

As the industrial revolution grew and spread throughout America, states began to implement laws aimed at protecting children from becoming forced labor. Because most parents in the urban areas no longer worked at home, it was also more expedient for them to rely upon formal schooling to teach their children the necessary social skills (Cremin, 1970, 1977; Nolte, 1982; Spring 1982, 1986). By 1918, the free public school became the primary source of social instruction (Cremin, 1951; Ovard, 1978; Rothstein, 1986; Tyack, 1967). With the exception of deep rural and isolated territories, the home school nearly disappeared (Arons, 1981).

Interest in home schooling began to revive during the early twentieth century. In the period after World War II when school populations surged with "baby boomers," the quality of academic education came under

close scrutiny (Sipher, 1978). Parents were concerned that in the interest of keeping order and maintaining attendance, their children were no longer being adequately taught (Holt, 1969; Seuffert, 1990; Slater & Slater, 1990). Holt (1969) expressed this concern when he claimed,

It is no more possible to have open, friendly, and mutually helpful relationships between most teachers and students than it is between prison guards and prison convicts--and for exactly the same reasons. If, on the other hand, compulsory attendance were abolished, the relationship would be entirely different, for the teacher would not be a jailer, therefore not an enemy. (p. 74)

Concerns over adequate education and social conditions within public schools were expressed well into the 1980s. In its 1983 report, A Nation at Risk, the National Commission on Excellence in Education painted a dim picture of what was happening in American classrooms. Many reports of declining test scores (Kniker, 1984; Naisbitt, 1982), inability of teachers to competently perform (A Nation at Risk, 1983; Help! Teacher can't teach, 1980), and deteriorating moral and social controls (Erickson et al., 1972; Fish, 1970; Frady & Dunphy, 1985; Slater & Slater, 1990) led some parents to distrust organized education and look seriously at home schooling (Moore, 1985b).

Led by educators, such as the late John Holt and Raymond Moore, the home school movement is estimated to be growing at the rate of 100,000 new students per year

(Gothard, 1983). Some have suggested that home schooling will continue to grow well into the twenty-first century (Common & MacMullen, 1987; Moore, 1985b; Naisbitt, 1982; Olson, 1990). The actual number of children schooled at home is not possible to obtain due to fears many parents have of legal reprisal for violating state compulsory attendance laws. Current estimates, however, range upward to over one million children (Lines, 1987, 1991; McCurdy, 1985; Monfils, 1991; Naisbitt, 1982; Tobak & Zirkel, 1983; Whitehead & Bird, 1984).

Home schools have had to face numerous legal challenges (Arons, 1986; Staver, 1987; Whitehead & Bird, 1984). The first case of importance was Pierce v. Society of Sisters (1925). In deciding this case, the Supreme Court established the right of parents to decide where their children would be educated, declaring that children were not the property of the State. The second major case cited by home school proponents as asserting parental rights was Farrington v. Toksuhi (1927). By rendering this decision, the Court affirmed the right of parents to control what their children were taught, as long as it was not harmful to society as a whole (Staver, 1987; Whitehead & Bird, 1984).

Probably the most important case, however, was Wisconsin v. Yoder (1972). The Court decided in favor of parental rights to avoid compulsory school attendance

based upon free exercise of religion. Members of the Old Order Amish faith had been convicted of violating Wisconsin's compulsory attendance law which required school attendance until age sixteen. The Amish members believed that requiring their children to attend school beyond the eighth grade was a threat to their religion (Arons, 1986). By deciding in favor of the Amish parents, the Court provided a future defense for home schools through the use of the First Amendment of the Constitution when it stated:

A State's interest in universal education, however highly we rank it, is not totally free from a balancing process when it impinges on fundamental rights and interests, such as those specifically protected by the Free Exercise Clause of the First Amendment, and the traditional interest of parents with respect to the religious upbringing of their children. (Wisconsin v. Yoder, 1972)

Legal battles have not only focused upon parental rights to educate their children at home, but also on whether such education provides for adequate social development. In 1929 the New Hampshire Supreme Court decided against a home school family in State v. Hoyt. Quoting from an earlier case involving the need to teach appropriate citizenship (Fogg v. Board of Education, 1912), the New Hampshire Court stated:

The association with those of all classes of society, at an early age and upon a common level, is not unreasonably urged as a preparation for discharging the duties of a citizen. The object of our school laws is not only to protect the state from the consequences of ignorance, but also to

guard against the dangers of "incompetent citizenship." (Cited in Staver, 1987, p. 98)

One of the primary concerns expressed in the Hoyt decision was that a home school lacked the socialization element of traditional educational programs (Staver, 1987).

Acting on the belief that children could not receive adequate social instruction apart from group interactions, two New Jersey cases ruled against home school parents (Knox v. O'Brian, 1950; Stephens v. Bongart, 1937). The court in the Stephens case stated:

Education must impart to the child the way to live. This brings me to the belief that . . . it is almost impossible for a child to be adequately taught in his home. I cannot conceive how a child can receive in the home instruction and experiences in group activity and in social outlook in any manner or form comparable to that provided in the public school. (Cited in Staver, 1987, p. 51)

This belief that adequate social development can only take place within organized formal school programs (Crokenberg & Bryant, 1978; Johnson, 1981) has led some to suggest that an absence of peer interaction can create severe consequences, such as juvenile delinquency or mental health problems (Ladd, 1979; LeCroy, 1983; McCaul, 1989). Adding further support to this belief, the West Virginia Supreme Court ruled against home schooling when it declared that the children were being separated from organized society and would become

"incapable of coping with life outside of their own families" (State v. Riddle, 1981).

Although peer relationships have been shown to be a vital part of the life of all children (Bandura, 1977; Craig, 1983; Erikson, 1972; Kohlberg, 1969; Mussen et al., 1974; Piaget, 1952), recent studies have taken a critical view of peer pressure for its negative effects on the individual (Bronfenbrenner, 1970; Elmes & Gemmill, 1990; Frady & Dunphy, 1985; Holt, 1982; Moore, 1982, 1984; Whitehead & Bird, 1984). The possibility that peer influence can have an impact aversive to that desired by parents, formed part of the reasoning behind the Supreme Court's decision in Wisconsin v. Yoder (1972). In that decision the Court stated:

Formal high school education beyond the eighth grade . . . places Amish children in an environment hostile to Amish beliefs . . . with pressure to conform to the styles, manners, and ways of the peer group. (Cited in Whitehead & Bird, 1984, p. 87)

In more recent court cases, judges have decided to follow the precedent established in State v. Massa (1967) and reject socialization as an argument against home schooling. One of the most significant cases reported by home school proponents was Perchemlides v. Frizzle (1978). In reporting their decision the court explained:

The question here is, of course, not whether the socialization provided in the school is beneficial to a child, but rather, who should make that



decision for any particular child. Under our system, the parents must be allowed to decide whether public school education, including its socialization aspects, is desirable or undesirable for their children. (Perchemlides v. Frizzle, 1978, at 137)

Most home school parents strongly believe that the peer relationships found in traditional educational programs are more negative than they are positive (Adams, 1984; Arons, 1981; Common & MacMullen, 1987; Divoky, 1983; Holt, 1981, 1982, 1983a; Monfils, 1991; Moore & Moore, 1986; Slater & Slater, 1990). Positive social interactions are provided for their children through church, YMCA, scouting, and home school support groups (Golowoch, 1991; Gordon, 1983; Gustavsen, 1981; Holt, 1981, 1983b; Kendall, 1982; Lines, 1987, 1991). These parents believe that, through parental instruction and modeling of prosocial behavior, their children develop more socially appropriate skills than their agemates in traditional schools (Maarse-Delahooke, 1986; Moore, 1987; Nagel, 1979; Richoux, 1987; Schemmer, 1985; Seligman & Zabarsky, 1979; Williams et al., 1984).

Although the home school alternative is growing by approximately 100,000 new students each year (Gothard, 1983), it has been estimated that between fifty and seventy-five percent of the families who begin home schooling will eventually enroll their children in either public or private religious institutions (Lines, 1987; Williams et al., 1984). In spite of their

concerns for higher quality academics, more religious freedom, and more control over their children's social development, financial considerations force many parents to abandon home schooling. Some parents discontinue home schooling as part of their original plan to enroll their children in traditional education after age 8 or 9 (Moore & Moore, 1975). Still others merely burnout from the pressures of legal hassles, society, and the everyday routine of teaching (Moore & Moore, 1988). Whether home school parents are accurate in their beliefs or not, they will have a profound effect upon schooling as thousands of their children enter the traditional school systems (Lines, 1987).

#### Summary of School Alternatives and Social Adjustment

Formal education has been supported in history, research, and in legal decisions as being a valid source of social adjustment for children. To some, the formal group peer interaction found in schools is the yard stick by which social adjustment is measured. Problems within public schools have forced many to move their children to other sources of social instruction.

Home schooling is one of those alternatives. Home schools, however, have raised numerous questions that must be answered. Courts have given parents the privilege to educate their children at home in many states. Some research has shown that the academic achievement of

home school children is equal to that of their agemates in the more traditional school programs. Two questions that remain unanswered in the literature are: Are children educated at home as socially adjusted as their agemates from traditional education programs? And, if home schooled children are not as socially adjusted as their agemates, what do counselors need to know in order to assist those children who will eventually enter their schools?

In order to answer these questions, it will be necessary to assess the social adjustment of children from home schools. Once the social adjustment of home schooled children has been determined, it must be compared to that of children from traditional schools who society accepts as being socially adjusted.

#### Assessment of Social Adjustment

Social adjustment, however, is complex and difficult to measure (Jordan-Davis & Butler, 1985; Gresham & Elliott, 1984; Rathjen & Foreyt, 1980). Assessment of social skills has included at least six different methods including behavior ratings by others, observations, role play, self-reporting, interviews, and sociometrics (Asher & Hymel, 1981; Foster & Ritchey, 1979; Green & Forehand, 1980; Gresham & Elliott, 1984; Hops, 1983).

Gresham and Elliott (1984) suggested that in order to assess social skills, it is necessary to define

social skills, and then provide a framework for classifying social skill difficulties. They suggested three different definitions for social skills. The first, peer acceptance, relies upon the use of peer sociometrics or peer nominations. If children or adolescents are accepted by their peers, they are considered socially skilled. This definition and approach has been used in several research studies (Asher & Hymel, 1981; Ladd, 1979).

The second definition suggested by Gresham and Elliott (1984) is behavioral in nature. Social skills are situation specific, and reinforcement or extinction is determined by each individual's behavior. Appropriate behaviors bring reward and reinforcement, whereas inappropriate behaviors bring punishment and extinction. This definition uses naturalistic observations and role plays to assess whether children possess social skills (Strain, 1977; Strain et al., 1976).

Social validity is the label given to Gresham and Elliott's (1984) third definition. They suggested that this definition of social behavior predicts important social outcomes such as "(a) peer acceptance or popularity, (b) significant others' judgments of behavior, or (c) other social behaviors known to correlate consistently with peer acceptance or significant others' judgments" (pp. 292-293). This

approach makes use of behavior ratings, sociometric scales, and observation (Green, Forehand, Beck, & Vosk, 1980; Gresham, 1982, 1983).

Gresham and Elliott (1984) also provided classifications for social skill difficulties which assist in assessing the existence of appropriate social behavior. They claimed that social skill problems can be placed into four general areas. The first is a skill deficit, in which the child simply does not know the skill necessary to act appropriately. The second is performance deficit, where the child knows the appropriate skill but is unable to perform at acceptable levels. The other two problem areas involve the child's level of self-control and relies upon the amount of emotional involvement. Either a child is hindered from learning an appropriate social skill due to a lack of control caused by anxiety, or they have the knowledge of the skill but are unable to perform because of anxiety or some other emotional block.

For a child to be socially well adjusted, therefore, he or she must meet several conditions. First, he or she must possess a knowledge of the skill to be performed (Bandura, 1971b, 1977; Gresham, 1981; Michelson et al., 1983; Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966). Second, he or she must feel comfortable enough to both learn and perform the skill acceptably (Gresham, 1981; Greenwood

et al., 1977; McIntire & Drummond, 1977; Norton-Ford & Norton-Ford, 1979). And thirdly, he or she must be able to perform the skill appropriately at levels deemed acceptable by others (Asher & Hymel, 1981; Hartup et al., 1967; Richarz, 1980). The next section will describe evidence of these conditions and methods of assessing each.

### Evidence of Social Adjustment

#### Assertiveness

One of the first conditions mentioned above as necessary for social adjustment is a knowledge of appropriate social response. Assertiveness has been identified by some researchers as being an example of social knowledge (Bower et al., 1976; Michelson et al., 1983; Payne et al., 1974; Tolor et al., 1976). Because it allows for expression of feelings in appropriate manners, it is a desirable social skill (Alberti & Emmons, 1982; Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966). In sociometric studies, children who were classified by their peers as being assertive rather than passive or aggressive, were chosen more frequently as friends or rated as being more popular (Asher, 1982; Horvath, 1984; Paterson et al., 1984; Waldrop & Halverson, 1975; Wojnilower & Gross, 1984, 1988).

Individuals who are determined to possess a knowledge of assertive responses and are able to use

assertive skills are less anxious in social situations than those who are seen to be passive (Asher, 1982; Horvath, 1984; Kazdin, 1975). Assertiveness also has been linked to feelings of adequacy and competence, allowing an individual to move forward in gaining more knowledge and control of his or her environment (Michelson et al., 1983; Michelson & Mannarino, 1986). These feelings of adequacy and competence assist a person in developing a sense of social comfort which allows for social adjustment.

#### Self-Concept

Positive self-concepts have been shown to be another affirmative sign of comfort with self and others (Coopersmith, 1967; DeMan & Devisse, 1987; McCandless, 1967; Rosenberg, 1965; Taylor, 1986). Children with high self-concepts tend to be more involved in both formal and informal social situations (Coopersmith, 1967; Darby & Schlenker, 1986; Rosenberg, 1965). High self-concepts also have been shown to predict feelings of happiness (Coopersmith, 1967), appropriate personality adjustment (Galluzzi & Zucker, 1977), and acceptance of others (Pellegrini, 1985).

Researchers have also shown that children with lower self-concepts often

tend to get emotional when frustrated, are easily perturbed, tend to give up early, and are changeable in attitude and interests. In addition to the emotional aspects, some tend to be evasive of

responsibilities, obstructive, and wrapped up in themselves. (McIntire & Drummond, 1977, p. 296)

These tendencies have been cited as reasons for low popularity and higher levels of social anxiety (Craig, 1983; LaGreca & Stark, 1986; Michelson et al., 1983). The more social anxiety a person has, the less success he or she has in social situations. A sense of failure in social situations has the effect of lowering the self-concept even further (Craig, 1983; Glidewell et al., 1976; Sobol & Earn, 1985).

McCandless (1967) described the relationship between the self-concept and social adjustment when he wrote:

The maladjusted, self-rejecting person, if he also rejects others, is likely to be rejected by them in turn, with resulting exacerbation of his maladjustment. (p. 283)

He further concluded that "self acceptance . . . seems associated with accepting other people" (p. 283).

Self-concepts play an important role in the social behaviors of children, because they describe their perceptions of themselves and their relationship to others (Coopersmith, 1967; Piers & Harris, 1969; Shavelson et al., 1976; Wells & Marwell, 1976). Depending upon whether the self-concept is low or high, children either withdraw from or become more involved in social activities (Coopersmith, 1967; DeMan & Devisse, 1987; Gergen, 1971; Rosenberg, 1985).



## Behavior

Withdrawal or involvement in social activities are observable behaviors. Probably the most valid measure of actual social adjustment is observed behavior (Gresham & Elliott, 1984; Keller, 1986; Richarz, 1980; Rose-Krasnor, 1985). Children have a tendency to display their true feelings and attitudes through their actions (Craig, 1983; Hutt & Hutt, 1970; Mussen et al., 1974; Richarz, 1980).

Observations of childhood behaviors have contributed much to the understanding of a child's physical and emotional development (Hutt & Hutt, 1970). Research based upon childhood behavior has assisted professionals working with children to make decisions concerning parenting, education, psychological treatment, and parental custody (Gardner, 1979, 1982; Kohlberg, 1969, 1976; Krumboltz & Krumboltz, 1972; Piaget, 1932, 1952; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980).

Prosocial behavior is described as the performance of acquired skills considered appropriate by normal society (Bandura, 1969, 1977). It is also portrayed as the use of assertive rather than aggressive responses (Bornstein et al., 1977; Dodge, 1985).

In order to determine if a child is socially well adjusted, it was necessary to assess each of the conditions discussed above. The level of social knowledge

and self-concept can be most accurately assessed by collecting that information directly from the individual. Whether a child's behaviors are socially acceptable will be best determined by direct observation and comparison with a standard considered valid.

#### Assessment Instruments

##### Children's Assertive Behavior Scale

Self-reports have been accepted and used as valuable sources of information concerning individuals (Deluty, 1979; Michelson & Wood, 1982; Purkey, 1970; Taylor, 1986). Although considered a weak method of obtaining data by some researchers (Elliott & Gresham, 1987; Gresham & Elliott, 1984), self-report measures have been shown to be both an efficient and reliable method of obtaining personal information (Greenwood et al., 1979; Ledingham, Younger, Schwartzman, & Bergeron, 1982; Michelson & Wood, 1982; Ollendick, 1981; Ollendick et al., 1987; Prout, 1986).

A child's ability to recognize assertive, aggressive and passive responses is one piece of information that can be determined through the use of self-report measures (Deluty, 1979; Ledingham et al., 1982; Michelson et al., 1983; Michelson & Wood, 1982; Ollendick, 1984). A child who can display a knowledge of socially appropriate assertive responses satisfies one of the criteria for adequate social adjustment (Bower et al.,

1976; Michelson et al., 1983; Payne et al., 1975; Tolor et al., 1976).

Several attempts have been made to develop self-report measures of assertiveness that could be effectively used with children. The first involved the modification of adult assertiveness scales, such as the Rathus Assertiveness Scale (1973). Although this instrument was simplified for use with either elementary or middle school aged children (D'Amico, 1976; Vaal & McCullogh, 1975), reliability and validity were not established (Wood, Michelson, & Flynn, 1978).

Another instrument, the Children's Action Tendency Scale (CATS) by Deluty (1979), was designed to measure aggression, assertion, and submissiveness in situation-specific interpersonal conflicts. Because the CATS relied upon conflicts, it was not deemed effective in measuring assertive traits in children (Michelson et al., 1983). Michelson et al. (1983) also reported that it was limited in that it lacked external validation, such as comparisons with behavioral observations, and was based upon a limited number of interpersonal situations.

In 1979 Reardon and his associates developed an instrument to measure assertiveness in male children. The Self-Report Assertiveness Test for Boys (SRAT-B) (Reardon, Hersen, Bellack, & Foley, 1979) asked boys to

choose between responses that were either forms of negative or positive assertion. Each child was required to pick the response which would best match his choice in a real-life experience (Michelson et al., 1983). Michelson et al. (1983) reported that Reardon was unable to provide evidence of external validity for the SRAT-B. The instrument was also limited in that it only assessed assertiveness among one gender (LaGreca & Stark, 1984; Michelson et al., 1981).

In 1978 Wood, Michelson and Flynn developed the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale (CABS). The CABS was designed to measure reported assertive and nonassertive behaviors in both male and female children. It is a 27 item multiple-choice questionnaire requiring children to respond to both positive and negative interpersonal situations (Scanlon & Ollendick, 1986). Once scored, the instrument provides scores for assertive, passive, and aggressive responses.

The 27 items of the CABS provide for responses along a continuum of passive-assertive-aggressive possibilities. Each item has five possible answers in random order which include very passive, passive, assertive, aggressive, and very aggressive (Michelson et al., 1983). The separate passive and aggressive scores generated along with the total assertive score, provides information as to "whether the child is deficient in

assertive responses due to passive or aggressive social behaviors" (Michelson et al., 1983, p. 30).

Wood et al. (1978) administered the CABS to 149 Florida fourth grade students. The scores these children received were then compared to both behavioral observations and teachers' ratings of social skills. Michelson and Wood (1982) reported that the CABS correlated .38 with behavioral observations. They further stated that teachers' ratings showed significant, though variable, correlations. The test-retest reliability in this study was reported to be .87 (Michelson & Wood, 1982).

Michelson, Andrasik, Vucelic, and Coleman (1981) also investigated the psychometric properties of the CABS using 90 fourth, fifth, and sixth grade Pennsylvania school children. In their study they compared the children's responses on the CABS with peer, parent, and teacher ratings of popularity, social competence, and overall social skills. They reported significant correlations between these measures, but did not give specific details. Their test-retest reliability was .66. Neither Wood et al. (1978) nor Michelson et al. (1981) found significant correlations between the CABS and potential moderator variables such as intelligence, social desirability, and sex (Michelson & Wood, 1982). Scanlon and Ollendick (1986) compared the CABS to two

other self-report measures of assertiveness in children. Based upon their analysis, they concluded that the CABS is accurate in discriminating aggressive from assertive response styles, and is a reliable instrument for collecting data. They also warned that their results were found to differ from the normative data reported by Michelson and Wood (1982) in that status and sex had a significant effect in their study. For this reason they suggested interpreting the results in light of the local norms.

The CABS was originally normed on Florida children (Wood et al., 1978) and has been demonstrated to be a reliable and valid measure of assertive behavior (Michelson & Wood, 1982; Michelson et al., 1981, 1983; Scanlon & Ollendick, 1986). It is a brief self-report measure that requires a minimum of instructions which can be administered to children within the age group proposed in this study. For these reasons, the CABS was selected as the instrument to measure assertive behavior in this study (see Appendix A).

Just as assertive responses have been shown to be a sign of social knowledge and comfort, a positive self-concept is also indicative of social comfort. The self-concept is also further evidence of appropriate social adjustment that can be measured by self-reports (Taylor, 1986).

Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

Wylie (1974a) discovered that four self-concept scales for children are most prevalent in research literature. These four are the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (Piers & Harris, 1969), the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (Coopersmith, 1967), Lipsitt's Self-Concept Scale for Children (Lipsitt, 1958), and the Bill Test for Children (author and date not given). Data reviewed by Wylie (1974a) led to the conclusion that these four instruments appear to be highly comparable and reliable measures of children's self-concepts. More studies, however, have examined and used the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (PHSCS) than the other three instruments (Taylor, 1986).

Taylor (1986) conducted an exhaustive search for a self-concept instrument that would contain language that was less objectionable to the home school population used in his research. His search also included an in-depth analysis of the PHSCS as it compared to other measures of self-concept. Based upon his search, Taylor (1986) chose the PHSCS as the best instrument to assess self-concept in his study on home schooling and self-concept.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (1969) was used to assess self-concept among the populations being compared in this research. It was chosen

based upon several facts: the norms were established using middle childhood aged children (Piers, 1985; Piers & Harris, 1969), it has been used extensively in research with middle childhood children (Wylie, 1961, 1974a, 1974b), and it has been previously used in research with a home school population (Taylor, 1986). Based upon an extensive evaluation of research, the PHSCS has also been described as "one of the best instruments available for assessing children's self-regard" (Smith & Rogers, 1977, p. 554).

The PHSCS is an eighty item forced choice questionnaire. Each declarative statement is answered with either yes, if the item is a true statement about him or herself, or no, if it is not. The use of a large number of response items was supported by Wells and Marwell (1976) when they stated that it "may permit a more thorough sampling from the domain of possible descriptions, producing a more heterogenous and representative instrument and resulting in increased validity and generality" (p. 82).

The instrument was normed using 1,183 public school children in grades four through twelve (Piers & Harris, 1969). Although normed on children beginning in the fourth grade, Piers and Harris (1964) stated that it has been administered successfully to students in grade



three. Piers (1985) reported that there were no consistent gender or grade differences.

Although Taylor (1986) attempted to find an instrument that would be a valid measure of self-concept among home schoolers, some of the respondents stated an objection to several statements that made reference to school or classmates. Some home school parents expressed the belief that because the instrument was normed on a public school population, it would not adequately reflect a home schooler's self-concept. Taylor's results, however, indicated that the references to school and classmates had little, if any, effect upon his study (Taylor, 1986).

In a study using third graders, the PHSCS was shown to have a test-retest reliability of .86 (Parish & Taylor, 1978). In a study over a seven-month period, Smith and Rogers (1977) reported a test-retest reliability of .62. Robinson and Shaver (1976) observed that the reliability ranged between .78 to .93. Piers (1985) suggested that the median test-retest reliability coefficient was .73. Wylie (1974a) concluded that the reliability of the PHSCS is satisfactory for use in research.

The validity of the PHSCS has also been measured. Robinson and Shaver (1976) discovered that a positive score on the PHSCS correlates well with peer acceptance

over a four year period. They were able to compute a predictive validity coefficient of .61. Shavelson et al. (1976) supported the conclusion that the instrument also possesses good construct validity. Taylor reported several studies that provided convergent validities as high as .71 with such instruments as the California Test of Personality and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (Taylor, 1986). A positive correlation with the Lipsitt Self-Concept Scale at a level of .68 has also been reported (Piers & Harris, 1969; Robinson & Shaver, 1976). Based upon the extensive review of self-concept literature, Wylie (1974a) determined that the PHSCS is a valid measure of self-concept and worthy of use in research (Taylor, 1986).

Once a child's knowledge of assertive responses and self-concept has been assessed, it will be necessary to determine if they can put the knowledge and self-concept together in appropriate social behaviors.

#### Direct Observation Form

It has been stated that a child's behavior is the most valid measure of whether they are socially well adjusted (Gresham & Elliott, 1984; Keller, 1986; Rose-Krasnor, 1985). Although observed behavior is perhaps the most valid assessment of adjustment, the collection and interpretation of data from behavioral observations presents numerous problems (Alessi, 1980).

Keller (1980) suggested:

While the current and potential utility of observation in our assessment process is tremendous, there are a number of problems and concerns with its use that must be addressed. Direct measures of children in school and home settings must meet basic psychometric standards in the same manner as our already existing standardized indirect measures. (p. 25)

Keller (1980) also listed sources of error that can influence both the reliability and validity of observation instruments. One of the sources of error that must be considered is reactivity. Keller defined this as "the influence of the observer's presence upon the behaviors of those being observed" (p. 26). He further suggested several methods to reduce reactivity in behavioral observations. These include providing instructions to those being observed as to the beneficial purposes of the observation, decreasing the conspicuousness of the procedures, and minimizing the interactions between observer and observed.

Another error source is the observer (Keller, 1980; Repp, Nieminen, Olinger, & Brusca, 1988). The most significant problem involving the observer is observer drift which is defined as a gradual shift from the original response criteria by the observer (Hersen & Barlow, 1976; Lipinski & Nelson, 1974; Repp et al., 1988). Keller (1980) suggested that in order to control for observer drift, it is necessary to use multiple

observers and continuously check accuracy and inter-observer reliability.

To determine the reliability of data collected from observations, the data from two or more observers who observe the same behaviors at the same time must be compared (Alessi, 1980; Keller, 1980). Repp et al. (1988) cited research that indicates that observer accuracy increases when observers are made aware that they will be monitored and their data compared to other observers. This increased accuracy improves the reliability of the observations.

Validity is another issue considered a potential source of error by Keller (1980). Keller suggested that discriminant validity is demonstrated through clear differences between problem and non-problem children. He also stated that construct validity of behavioral observations has been demonstrated through the fact that the observed behaviors are sensitive to interventions.

A review of observational research indicates that there is a paucity of standardized measures of observation that control for the sources of error mentioned above (Sweetman, 1987). Most of the reviewed research required the collection of data on specific target behaviors that had been identified by the researcher and recorded by trained observers (Koorland, Monda, & Vail, 1988; Repp et al., 1988). Standardized instruments most

frequently used in research are behavior rating scales which require responses from a parent or teacher concerning a child's behavior (Edelbrock, 1983; Elliott & Gresham, 1987; Quay, 1983). Another form includes adaptive behavior scales which are used primarily to assess and record behaviors in special populations such as the mentally retarded, physically handicapped, or socially deviant (Harrison, 1987; Mealor & Richmond, 1980; Sparrow & Cicchetti, 1987). The purpose of this study was to compare the social adjustment of 8- to 10-year old children from two apparently normal backgrounds. Those are traditional and home school populations. In order to assess appropriate social behavior, it was necessary to choose an instrument that would provide an opportunity to collect information about social behavior using identical methods for both groups. Most of the behavior rating scales were eliminated due to the need for teacher ratings, classroom behavior observations, or because the norming population was inappropriate. A measure requiring responses from a teacher or observation of classroom behavior would not be an adequate assessment for children from a home school. Some of the rating scales which were reviewed were the Behavior Rating Profile, (1983); Walker Problem Behavior Identification Checklist, (1976); Burks'

Behavior Rating Scales, (1977); and the Child Behavior Checklist, (1983).

The instrument that provided the best opportunity for obtaining data from social behaviors observed within both research groups was the Direct Observation Form (DOF) of the Child Behavior Checklist developed by Achenbach and Edelbrock (1983). The DOF was designed to "fill the need for a simple and efficient observational assessment system that does not require special data-collection equipment, clinically sophisticated observers, or lengthy observer training" (Reed & Edelbrock, 1983, p. 522).

The DOF is made up of 96 behavior problem items and includes a measure of on-task behavior. A child is observed for 10 minutes. While observing the child, the observer writes a narrative description of the behaviors (Reed & Edelbrock, 1983). This procedure assists the observer in maintaining attention on the target child (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1983). Each item on the DOF is rated on a 0 to 3 point scale where 0 indicates that the behavior was not observed and 3 signifies that the behavior was observed for at least 3 minutes. A sum of 96 items provides a total problem behavior score (Reed & Edelbrock, 1983).

Reed and Edelbrock (1983) reported interobserver agreement reliability coefficients of .83 on the on-task

section and a .92 on the behavior problem section of the DOF. Evidence of validity has also been provided in the form of comparisons between scores obtained on the DOF and teacher-reported school performance, adaptive functioning, and total behavior problems (McConaughy, 1985). Reed and Edelbrock (1983) also reported a significant negative correlation of  $-.66$  ( $p < .01$ ) when the instrument was used to compare normal and disturbed boys. They cited this significant relationship as evidence of discriminant validity. Their research led Reed & Edelbrock to conclude:

The DOF appears to provide valid and reliable indices of children's on-task and problem behavior, and it has advantages over previously developed systems in that it is workable in applied settings and requires no special observational coding equipment and only minimal observer training. (Reed & Edelbrock, 1983, p. 528)

#### Summary

The process of social adjustment is difficult to define due to the numerous components deemed as contributing constructs. Four theories of social development were presented in this review, each of which stressed the importance of other people in developing a child's social ability.

According to these theories, the greatest period of social development occurs during the middle-childhood ages of 7 to 11 years. It is also during this period that most children enter the social world of formal

schooling. Factors during this age which seem to correlate with social adjustment include gender, assertive behavior, self-concept, socioeconomic status, and schooling experience.

Existing research into the influence of gender differences and socioeconomic status on social adjustment during middle-childhood has produced inconclusive results. A majority of the researchers suggested no significant influence.

Assertiveness was suggested as an example of pro-social behavior among middle-childhood children. Assertive children were shown to be less passive, more self-confident, and were chosen more frequently as friends by peers. Assertive children also displayed higher self-concepts, which had been identified as another example of social adjustment. Children with high self-concepts had less social anxiety and were more active in social situations.

The greatest influence upon social adjustment is schooling experience. Schools are seen as the best location for children to learn a standardized set of socially appropriate norms. Two schooling alternatives have been identified: traditional classrooms and home schools.

Group interaction in public schools has been used as the standard for social adjustment. Advocates of



home schools, on the other hand, believe that social adjustment is best provided by parental instruction and social interaction within the community. Although some concerns were raised, a review of the literature supported the belief that children in traditional schools are socially well adjusted. The literature, however, did not provide conclusive support for social adjustment in home schools.

The literature does raise the possibility that up to 75% of home school children will eventually be enrolled in traditional schools. With so many home school children entering formal schooling for the first time suggests several important questions that have not yet been answered. One of those questions is, are home school children as socially adjusted as their agemates in the traditional education system?

Several criteria emerged as significant correlates to social adjustment: a knowledge of appropriate social skills, a comfort level high enough to both learn and perform the skill acceptably, and the ability to perform the skill at levels deemed acceptable to others. These three factors may be operationalized and evaluated using measures of assertiveness, self-concept, and behavior.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

This study was designed to determine if children educated in a home school setting differ significantly in social adjustment from children educated in traditional schools. A review of relevant literature concerning social development suggested that the primary source of appropriate social adjustment was within the formal group interactions provided by traditional schools (Beckham, 1985; Franzosa, 1984; McCaul, 1989). Home schools, by their nature, do not provide for formal group interactions (Mayberry, 1989; Seligman & Zabarsky, 1979; Smith, 1986; Williams et al., 1984). The effect of home schooling on the social adjustment of children had not yet been determined.

The research methodology and procedures used in the collection and analyses of data concerning social adjustment are described in this chapter. The chapter is organized into twelve sections: research design, research questions, population, sampling procedures, research procedures, observer training and observation procedures, instrumentation, hypotheses, data analyses, delimitations, limitations, and summary.

### Research Design

Social adjustment has been defined in this study as a combination of assertiveness, positive self-concept, and appropriate social behavior. Because the experimental manipulation of these concepts could be potentially harmful to children, a quasi-experimental block design was used in this study. A population was identified, divided into two subgroups and a sample drawn from each subgroup and blocked according to age and gender. The differences among the samples were described through an examination of the relevant measures of self concept, assertiveness, and behavior selected for this study.

### Research Questions

Three correlates of social adjustment were identified through a review of relevant social development literature. Those correlates are assertiveness, self-concept, and behavior. Children who possess knowledge of assertive responses, who hold positive self-concepts, and are observed displaying appropriate social behavior, are considered socially well adjusted (Bandura, 1977; Bornstein et al., 1977; Dodge, 1985). A deficit in any one of these areas has been suggested as an indication of social maladjustment (Olweus, 1987; Parens, 1987; Piers, 1964; Rose-Krasnor, 1985). In order to determine if home-schooled children are as socially well adjusted

as are their agemates in traditional schools, an attempt was made to answer the following three questions:

1. Would the level of assertiveness possessed by home-schooled children differ from that of their agemates in traditional school programs?

2. Would the level of self-concept possessed by home-schooled children differ from that of their agemates in traditional school programs?

3. Would the social behavior of home-schooled children differ from that of other children in traditional school programs?

The methods and procedures used in addressing these questions are discussed in this chapter. Characteristics of the student population are discussed in the next section.

#### Population

The largest population for this study consisted of students between the ages of 8 and 10 residing and being educated within Orange, Lake, and Seminole counties in central Florida. A review of literature suggested that the period of greatest social development is between the ages of 7 and 11 (Barenboim, 1977; Shantz, 1975). In order to assess social adjustment within this age range, and allow for possible developmental differences (i.e., reading level differences, cognitive development

difference, etc.) the age group for this study was narrowed to the 8- to 10-year range.

Orange, Lake, and Seminole Counties were chosen because the availability of a large number of both traditionally and home-schooled children. These counties are also demographically similar to other regions of the United States (Mayberry, 1989; Monfils, 1991; Richoux, 1987; Schemmer, 1985; Taylor, 1986). The counties consist of urban, suburban, and rural communities. With a federal highway serving as a major artery through the counties, residents have the opportunity to share in a broad variety of social and cultural activities and events.

The Florida Department of Education, Office of Management Information Services (1989) indicated that the general population of these counties continues to grow and consist of students from throughout the United States. The students in these counties are predominantly from white lower-middle to upper-middle income families (Florida Department of Education, Office of Management Information Services, 1989; Lake County Board of Public Instruction, 1989; Orange County School Board, 1989; Seminole County School Board, 1990). This population was divided into two distinct subgroups: students from the traditional educational system and students who had been educated entirely at home.

### Traditional School Population

The largest segment of the student population studied herein is found in the public school system. The latest enrollment figures available for public schools were for the school year ending June 1990. The student population in kindergarten through sixth grade for that year was 28,000,000. Of that number, 5,000,000 students were in grades that contained the age group used in this study (United States Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1990). According to the Florida Department of Education, 200,000 of those public school children attend school in Florida (The Florida Department of Education, Office of Management Information Services, August, 1990). According to the Lake, Orange, and Seminole County school boards, 42,296 children were enrolled in their schools within grades that included the research age group of this study.

Because of compulsory attendance laws, the public school population of this study included students from every social and economic level as well as race and gender. The Florida public school population was made up of 51.6 percent male and 48.4 percent female students. Sixty-four percent of the children were white. Approximately 68 percent were from upper-lower to upper income families. Less than 3 percent of the children

were from non-English speaking households (Florida Department of Education, Management Information Services, 1989).

#### Home School Population

Although considerable data are available concerning public school children, information concerning the home school population is vague. This may be due, in part, to the fact that many home school parents continue to fear legal reprisal for violating state compulsory attendance laws. Estimates of the number of children who are part of the national home school movement varies from 10,000 to a high of one million (Lines, 1987, 1991; McCurdy, 1985; Moore, 1982; Naisbitt, 1982; Tobak, 1983; Whitehead & Bird, 1984).

Although statistics are lacking on the national level, the Florida Department of Education, Office of Management Information Services provided limited information on the estimated number of home school children in Florida. The state of Florida has permitted home schooling as an alternative to compulsory public school attendance since 1985 (Chapter 232.02, Florida Statutes). The primary provisions of the Florida law are that parents of home schools register with the local superintendent, maintain records of instructional materials used, and allow for an annual evaluation of the student's academic progress.

The Florida Department of Education reported 2,894 children were registered in home schools as their primary source of education during the school year ending June 1988 (Florida Department of Education, Office of Management Information Services, October, 1988). By June 1989 that number had more than doubled to over 6,000 (Florida Department of Education, August, 1989). Of that home school population, 75 students reside in Lake County (Lake County Board of Public Instruction, 1989), 322 in Orange County (Orange County School Board, 1989), and 144 in Seminole County (Seminole County School Board, 1990).

Each county has organized home-school support groups. These organizations are made up of home-school parents who meet monthly to share instructional information and provide guidance. These home-school support groups are patterned after similar support groups throughout the United States (Moore & Moore, 1988). Although not all home schools make use of these support groups, a majority of home-school families rely upon the monthly meetings to help their children meet other home-school children (Lines, 1987; Monfils, 1991; Smith, 1986; Wilson, 1988). While the parents meet to share common concerns and curriculum, their children are encouraged to play and get acquainted with each other. Often group activities are planned that involve both



parents and children (Moore & Moore, 1988). Moore and Moore (1988) expressed their firm belief in the value of support groups when they stated, "If you don't have a support group, start one!" (p. 221).

Home-school researchers have discovered that most of the national home school population is composed of students representative of the age group found in the lower four grades of traditional education programs (Maarse-Delahooke, 1986; Moore, 1979; Shirkey, 1987). Other researchers have found that home schoolers are primarily from white lower-middle to upper-middle income families with strong fundamental religious beliefs (Gustavsen, 1981; Lines, 1991; Taylor, 1986; Williams et al., 1984). Demographic information about the home school population used in this study was gathered through a demographic questionnaire (See Appendix F).

In order to answer the questions postulated by the researcher, an accessible population was defined for each of the student target populations described above. The procedures used in choosing the study participants is outlined in the next section.

#### Selection of Participants

Due to the concerns parents of home school children have concerning anonymity, the accessible population for this study consisted of volunteers from members of the student population described above who were contacted by

the following procedures. As of June, 1989, the Florida Department of Education, Management Information Services reported that 541 home school students had been registered in Lake, Orange, and Seminole counties. A large number of home and traditionally schooled students in these counties allowed the selection of participants from each population from equivalent environments.

A telephone contact was made with the leadership of the Florida Parent Educators Association, which represents homes schools, requesting their assistance in identifying home-school support groups in each of the three counties. A telephone contact was made with each of these support groups requesting an opportunity to describe the research project and to ask for volunteers at one of their scheduled meetings. A list of all volunteers whose children were between the ages of 8 and 10 was compiled. The parents of each of these children were given a copy of the demographic questionnaire (See Appendix F) and Letter of Informed Consent (See Appendix E). Each of these forms were completed and returned to the researcher at the close of the meeting or at their earliest convenience.

In order to reach those children who were not part of the organized home school support groups, the superintendent of schools in each county was contacted requesting access to the list of home schools registered

in their respective counties. In the case of Orange and Seminole Counties permission was denied and a list was obtained through the Florida Department of Education, Management and Information Services office. Lake County permitted this researcher to obtain the list by reviewing their files maintained in the board office. A letter was sent to the parents of these children at the address indicated by the parents when they registered their home school. This letter described the nature of the research and requested volunteers (See Appendix B). Respondents to this letter were sent a packet of materials that included the demographic questionnaire and the Informed Letter of Consent. The home school parents were requested to complete the demographic questionnaire, sign the Letter of Informed Consent, and return them to the researcher if they agreed to include their child or children in the study.

A letter was also sent to the public school superintendents of each county requesting the names and addresses of parents whose children are in the 8- to 10-year-old age group attending public school (See Appendix C). As in the case of this researcher's inquiry concerning Home School students, the request was politely denied. In order to obtain the necessary number of traditionally schooled children, several professors of education at the University of Central

Florida, Rollins College, and Stetson University offered the names of classroom teachers in the three county area. In addition, a letter was sent to local churches, and parent-teacher groups requesting traditionally schooled volunteers within the specified age group (See Appendix J). Letters were sent to the parents of students identified by the classroom teachers requesting volunteer research subjects (See Appendix D). This letter included the demographic questionnaire and Informed Letter of Consent. Parents who responded to the requests sent to churches and parent-teacher groups were also sent a letter further describing the study and including the demographic questionnaire and Letter of Informed Consent. The parents were asked to complete the demographic questionnaire, sign the Letter of Informed Consent, and return them to the researcher if they were willing to include their child or children in the study.

Volunteers who responded were screened by the researcher using the demographic questionnaire to assure they were within the ages of 8 and 10 and had been educated only in their current setting. The first 35 male and the first 35 female home school children who met the criteria were assigned a research number and invited to participate in the full research project (See Appendix G). Every respondent over the initial 70 who

met the criteria were assigned a research number and his\her name placed on an alternate research subject list. This list was used in the event any of the original subjects became ineligible for the observation segment due to sickness, moving, change in schooling status, withdrawal from the project, or for any other reason. Three subjects (two male and one female) eventually were drawn from this alternate list in order to maintain the balance between male and female participants during the observation segment. Each of these subjects was sent a packet consisting of the paper and pencil portion of the research project. They were asked to complete the packet according to the instructions supplied and return it to the researcher within the time specified.

The same procedure was used in the selection of the traditionally schooled children. The first 35 male and 35 female children who met the criteria listed above, and were of the same age, race, and gender as one of the home schooled children previously selected, were assigned research numbers and invited to participate in the full research project. Each additional respondent from a traditional school was assigned a research number and his\her name placed on an alternate subjects list. Six subjects (two girls and four boys) were drawn from this list as needed to replace original participants in

the observation segment who became ineligible due to illness, moving, change in schooling status, or withdrawal from the project. Each of these subjects also received the packet containing the paper and pencil portion of the research project. They were asked to complete the materials and return them to the researcher.

The participants from traditional schools were stratified to coincide with the home school participants according to gender and age. The final research group, therefore, consisted of two subgroups of 70 children from each schooling experience. There was an equal number of males and females in each subgroup. Each subgroup contained children between the ages of 8 and 10. All volunteers completed the same paper and pencil procedures as discussed in the next section. In addition to the paper and pencil portion of the study, the students also participated in an observation segment that is described later in this chapter.

#### Research Procedures

##### Paper and Pencil Assessments

All but the first 140 selected subjects (70 from home school and 70 from public school) were mailed a packet consisting of step-by-step instructions for completing the included instruments (See Appendix H), 1 copy of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

(PHSCS), 1 copy of the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale (CABS), 1 answer sheet for the CABS, and one self addressed and stamped return envelope. These instruments were completed by all research subjects. A request was made that the completed materials be returned within 10 days.

In the event that the materials were not returned within 10 days, the nature and reason for the delay was determined by a telephone call or followup letter. The respective subject was encouraged to complete the assessments and return them. Duplicate materials were provided as necessary. If the materials were still not returned within an additional five days, that subject was removed from the project.

The same instruments were completed by the 70 home schooled and 70 traditional schooled participants who participated in the observation procedures. These students completed the paper and pencil portion upon their arrival for the video taped observation period described later in this chapter. The researcher read the instructions for completing the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale. Once the students completed the instruments, their answer sheets were collected in mass.

Each child's responses to the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale (CABS) and the Piers-Harris Children's

Self-Concept Scale (PHSCS) were totaled following the instructions for scoring each instrument. The total assertive score on the CABS was used to represent that child's assertiveness. Each child's total positive score on the PHSCS was used to represent his or her level of self-concept.

#### Free Play and Group Behavior Procedures

In order to provide a location in which each of the research subjects could be observed equally, arrangements were made to use a room similar in size to a large traditional classroom at a local church in Mount Dora, Florida. The room included a space large enough to comfortably hold 10 children, 11 chairs, a video camera on a tripod, and a free play area. The room was arranged with the 11 chairs in a row against a wall. Various toys (games that more than one can play, puppets, puzzles, and dolls) were placed in the free play area. The video camera was located so that its operator could video tape all activity taking place in the room. Posters, slogans or other material that were on the walls were removed or covered to avoid distractions.

The subjects were divided into groups of at least 6 students each from the same schooling population, keeping the age difference in each group within a one year range of one another. Attention was also given to keeping an equal number of male and female subjects in



each group (i.e. at least 3 boys and 3 girls). The parents of each respective group were requested to bring their children to the designated room at a time that allowed at least one and one half hours for becoming acquainted, answering questions, completion of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and Children's Assertive Behavior Scale, desensitizing the children to the video camera and operator, and completion of the observation procedure.

In order to assist in the identification of subjects on the video tape, each child was photographed. Each photograph was inscribed with the subject's research number. No reference was made as to the subject's schooling environment. The children were introduced to the researcher, video camera operator, and each other. Once the entire group had arrived, the group was brought to the observation room. The subjects were given 30 minutes to get acquainted without interference from the researcher.

Following the initial 30 minutes, they were shown the video camera and a brief video tape (not more than 5 minutes) was made and viewed by the operator, researcher and the group. This preliminary tape served two purposes. The first was to test the equipment. The second purpose was to desensitize the children to the observation process and therefore reduce reactivity.

Following a primary viewing of the tape, the children were instructed by the researcher that for the next 20 minutes they could continue to play in the room. They were shown the toys and games that had been placed in the room. Once the instructions had been completed, the activity within the room was video taped. The operator included all children in the tape during the 20 minute segment. At the end of the first 20 minute segment, the group was asked by the researcher to sit in one of the chairs arranged along the wall.

In order to guarantee that the instructions for the "group interaction activity" (See Appendix I) were identical for all groups, it was directed by the researcher. The instructions included the statement that everyone could participate in the activity or they could choose to be an observer and not participate. Once the instructions had been given and all subjects had verbally responded to the researcher's satisfaction that they understood the task at hand, the researcher stepped out of view of the subjects, and the activity began. The entire procedure was video taped with the assurance that all children had been recorded.

The procedures described above continued until all groups of children had been video taped in both the free play and group interaction activity described previously. A separate tape was made of each group. Two copies

of each tape were made and made available with the appropriate subject's photographs to two different trained observers for rating. Each observer followed the instructions and training provided for the Direct Observation Form (DOF) of the Child Behavior Checklist in completing a rating form for each child on the tape. A request was made that the DOFs be returned to the researcher within 10 days. The average total rating score recorded by the two observers was used as each child's behavior score.

#### Observer Training and Observation Procedures

To complete the direct observation segment of the proposed research, it was necessary to train a minimum of 35 observers. Observers were volunteers who were either graduate students in Counselor Education at Stetson University or the University of Central Florida, or individuals with an advanced degree in Counseling. Each observer was asked to commit to at least 5 hours during the research project. Each observer had access to a VHS video tape player and a watch displaying seconds. Each volunteer was responsible for observing the videotaped behavior of 10 different children during two separate periods of activity. Six of the observers were chosen as alternates in case any of the other observers were unable to complete the project. Three of

the original observers asked to be replaced prior to the project beginning.

A sample video tape was made with 10 volunteer children between the ages of 8 and 10 who were not included in the research project. In order to assure that each child could be readily identified on the video tape, he\she was photographed individually. Four copies were made of both the tape and the photographs.

At a time and location convenient to the volunteer observers, the researcher described the nature of the research project and trained the observers in the use of the Direct Observation Form. Training consisted of distribution of samples of the instrument, a detailed description of the instrument, instruction in rating child behaviors using the DOF, and trial observation sessions using the sample video tape discussed above. In order to train all of the observers, five training sessions were necessary.

After a brief description of the research project and observation procedures, each group was given a photograph of one child on the sample video tape. The observers were told that they were going to watch a video tape of 10 children involved in free play. As they watched the video tape, they were to observe the sample child's behavior and make narrative comments on the DOF as instructed. They were also given the

opportunity to score their observations according to the instructions given earlier.

A copy of the same video tape was played for each group of observers for a period of 10 minutes while the group completed the observation procedures. At the end of the 10 minute period, they were allowed an additional 10 minutes to score the protocol. Members of the group compared their rating scores and discrepancies were discussed. The researcher pointed out specific behaviors which represented questions on the DOF. This process was repeated using another target child and an additional 10 minute segment of the tape until at least 28 of the observers began to achieve consistent results. The trial observations continued until it was possible to pair observers who were able to maintain at least an inter-rater reliability coefficient of .90. The original observers who left the project were replaced with alternates who were able to meet the same level of inter-rater reliability.

Each group was given an opportunity to discuss concerns, problems, and to answer all questions. The observers were provided with 20 DOFs and the researcher's address and telephone number. They were informed that the researcher would be available to answer questions during all phases of the research process.

Each observation team consisted of 2 observers who had achieved an inter-rater reliability coefficient of .90 during training. Each team of observers received and viewed the same copy of a research video tape and numbered photographs of the children on the tape. In order to maintain consistency and limit problems of observer drift, the video tapes were viewed at locations central to the observers over several Saturdays. The researcher was present to time the observations, assure that appropriate breaks were taken, and answer technical questions (i.e. setting up of equipment, scoring of the DOFs, etc.).

Each observation team selected one of the children on the tape to be their first target child. They observed that child for the first 10 minutes and followed the instructions for completing the DOF. They then fast forwarded the tape to the group interaction activity and completed a second DOF for the same child. They continued this process for each of the other children on the video tape. Each observer was instructed to take at least a 10 minute break between observations and to not observe more than 3 children at any one setting in order to reduce the chances of observer drift. All DOFs were completed and returned to the researcher at the end of the observation period. The average total

behavior score on the DOFs for each child represented his\her social behavior.

In the next section of this chapter the researcher describes the instruments used to assess assertiveness, self-concept, and behaviors. Each of the instruments used for this study was carefully selected to address the questions in this research and was determined to be valid for the population.

#### Instrumentation

##### Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (1969) was used to assess self-concept among the populations being compared in this research. The PHSCS was chosen because the age of the norming population was similar to that of the research subjects. The PHSCS has also been used extensively in research with children, including children from home schools. It has been described as "one of the best instruments available for assessing children's self-regard" (Smith & Rogers, 1977, p. 554).

The PHSCS is an 80-item forced-choice questionnaire. Each declarative statement is answered with either yes, if the item is a true statement about him or herself, or no if it is not. The instrument was normed using 1,183 public school children in grades four through twelve (Piers & Harris, 1969). Although normed on children

beginning in the fourth grade, Piers and Harris (1964) stated that it had been administered successfully to students in grade three. Piers (1985) reported that there were no consistent gender or grade differences.

In a study using third graders, the PHSCS was shown to have a test-retest reliability of .86 (Parish & Taylor, 1978). In a study over a seven-month period, a test-retest reliability of .62 was reported (Smith & Rogers, 1977). In other studies the reliability ranged between .78 and .93 (Robinson & Shaver, 1976). Piers (1985) suggested that the median test-retest reliability coefficient was .73.

The validity of the PHSCS has also been assessed. In one study scores on the PHSCS correlated well with peer acceptance over a four-year period. Robinson and Shaver (1976) computed a predictive validity coefficient of .61. Shavelson et al. (1976) supported the conclusion that the instrument possessed good construct validity. When compared with instruments such as the California Test of Personality and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, convergent validities as high as .71 have been computed (Taylor, 1986). Based upon an extensive review of self-concept literature, the PHSCS was determined to be a valid measure of self-concept in children (Wylie, 1974a).



A raw score is computed by counting the number of statements considered by the authors to be examples of positive self-concept. The higher the child's score, the more positive the child's self-concept. The total score can also be converted to either a stanine or percentile score. For the purpose of this study, each child's self-concept was his or her total raw score on the PHSCS.

#### Children's Assertive Behavior Scale

The Children's Assertive Behavior Scale (1978) was designed to measure reported assertive and nonassertive behaviors in both male and female students. It is a 27 item multiple-choice questionnaire requiring children to respond to both positive and negative interpersonal situations (Scanlon & Ollendick, 1986). Once scored the instrument provides scores for assertive, passive, and aggressive responses.

The 27 items of the CABS provides for responses along a continuum of passive-assertive-aggressive possibilities. Each item has five possible answers in scrambled order which include very passive, passive, assertive, aggressive, and very aggressive responses (Michelson et al., 1983). The separate passive and aggressive scores generated, along with the total assertive score, provides information as to "whether the child is deficient in assertive responses due to passive

or aggressive social behaviors" (Michelson et al., 1983, p. 30).

The CABS was administered to 149 Florida fourth-grade students. The scores these children received were then compared to both behavioral observations and teachers' ratings of social skills. Michelson and Wood (1982) reported that the CABS correlated at .38 with behavioral observations. They further stated that teachers' ratings showed significant, though variable, correlations. The test-retest reliability in that study was reported to be .87.

Another study on the psychometric properties of the CABS was conducted using 90 fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade students from Pennsylvania. That study compared the children's responses on the CABS with peer, parent, and teacher ratings of popularity, social competence, and overall social skills. Significant correlations between these measures were reported, although specific details were not printed. The test-retest reliability was computed to be .66 (Michelson et al., 1981).

Using a scoring key, children's responses on the CABS are assigned a -2 for a very passive response, -1 for a partially passive response, 0 for an assertive response, 1 for a partially aggressive response, or 2 for a very aggressive response. A total score close to 0 is considered assertive. A negative score represents

passive responses, whereas a positive score signifies aggressiveness.

#### Direct Observation Form

The Direct Observation Form (DOF) of the Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1983) was chosen as the measure of social behavior. It was chosen over other possible rating scales, because it was normed on normal populations, did not require classroom observation or teacher ratings, and has been shown to be a valid and reliable measure of behaviors.

Reed and Edelbrock (1983) reported interobserver agreement reliability coefficients of .83 on the on-task section, and a .92 on the behavior problem section of the DOF. Evidence of validity has also been provided, in the form of comparisons between scores obtained on the DOF and teacher-reported school performance, adaptive functioning, and total behavior problems (McConaughy, 1985). A significant negative correlation of  $-.66$  ( $p < .01$ ) was also reported when the DOF was used to compare normal and disturbed boys.

The DOF is made up of 96 behavior problem items and includes a measure of on-task behavior. A child is observed for 10 minutes. While observing the child, the observer writes a narrative description of the behaviors. This procedure assists the observer in maintaining attention on the target child (Achenbach &

Edelbrock, 1983). Each item on the DOF is rated on a 0 to 3 scale where 0 indicates that the behavior was not observed and 3 signifies that the behavior was observed for at least 3 minutes. A sum of the 96 items provides a total problem behavior score (Reed & Edelbrock, 1983).

#### Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire was used to assist in screening and blocking research subjects as well as provide information on possible confounding variables. Each questionnaire asked for the name and address of the subject child, number of years that child had been in his\her current schooling environment, the age and gender of the subject, the number of siblings older and younger than the research subject, and specific information on social interactions. An estimate of the household income was also requested so that children could be selected from similar economic backgrounds in order to control for economic influences on social adjustment (Scott-Jones & Clark, 1986).

The information on age and number of years in current schooling environment was used to select research subjects between the ages of 8 and 10 who had been educated exclusively in their current schooling environment. The remaining information was used to describe the sample and to assist in explaining differences that might exist between the two groups.

### Hypotheses

Using the procedures and instruments described above, the following null hypotheses were tested:

1. No significant differences will exist between the mean self-concept scores of children educated in home or traditional schools as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale.

2. No significant differences will exist between the mean assertiveness scores of children educated in home or traditional schools as measured by the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale.

3. No significant differences will exist between the mean social behavior scores of children educated in home or traditional schools as measured by the Direct Observation Form of the Child Behavior Checklist.

### Data Analysis

\* In order to increase the power of the statistical tests of these null hypotheses, other independent variables that might have an influence on social adjustment were controlled or explained (Hays, 1963). As described earlier, gender, age, and socioeconomic status were controlled by selecting an equal number of male and female children from each age group and from similar economic environments. Potential racial influence on social adjustment was controlled by using volunteers from only one racial group. Other variables, size of

family, size of traditional classroom, and number and types of social interactions, were addressed in the description of the sample. By choosing to use volunteers from a location that was basically demographically and culturally equal for all subjects, possible confounding complications by these variables were limited.

To determine if a significant difference existed between the self-concepts of children from home and public schools their scores on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (1969) were compared. The means, standard deviations, and difference of the means of each cell were computed. In order to test the first hypothesis at the .05 level of significance, a factorial analysis of variance was used to compute an F ratio (Howell, 1987).

To determine if a significant difference existed between the assertiveness of children from home and public schools, their assertiveness scores on the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale were compared. The means, standard deviations, and difference of the means in each cell were computed. In order to test the second hypothesis at the .05 level of significance, a factorial analysis of variance was used to compute an F ratio (Howell, 1987).

To determine if a significant difference existed between the social behaviors of children from home and

public schools their total average scores on the Direct Observation Form of the Child Behavior Checklist were compared. The means, standard deviations, and difference from the means in each cell was computed. In order to test the third hypothesis at the .05 level of significance, a factorial analysis of variance was used to compute an F ratio (Howell, 1987).

#### Delimitations

Although demographic information may allow for certain generalizations, this study was delimited to children ranging in ages 8 to 10 currently residing and being home or traditionally educated in Lake, Orange, and Seminole Counties of central Florida.

#### Limitations

This study was limited insofar that certain aspects of social adjustment may not be adequately measurable. As stated by Gresham and Elliott (1984), social adjustment is complex and difficult to assess.

A further limitation was caused by the nature of selecting subjects. Although all subjects were volunteers, the attitude of volunteers and its impact upon social adjustment may be different than that of non-volunteers. Since all subjects were volunteers, the sample is not random and may be biased.

The restricted amount of time provided for observations is another limitation. It is possible for

children to behave differently under varying circumstances and over extended periods of time. Attempts were made to provide an equal amount of time for all subgroups to get acquainted before the video tape session began.

Attempts were made to control for rater-bias through the training procedures described in this chapter. Each observer was not aware of the subject's schooling environment. Although controls were initiated, this study is also limited in that all rater biases may not be controllable.



## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

The focus of this study centered upon the social adjustment of home schooled and traditionally schooled children. A sample was drawn from volunteers from both schooling populations based on the criteria enumerated in the previous chapter. Data were gathered utilizing the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (PHSCS), the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale (CABS), the Direct Observation Form (DOF), and a demographic questionnaire. Descriptive statistics were compiled and the hypotheses tested. This chapter is a presentation of the results of the data analyses.

#### Research Subjects

Although the Florida Department of Education listed 541 registered home school children in the three county area covered by this study (Florida Department of Education, August 1989), an additional 520 were located through home school support groups throughout the counties. Table 1 shows the known population by county.

Letters describing the study, and requesting their cooperation, were sent to the parents of these children.

Table 2 displays the responses to the initial mailing. The 209 favorable responses, and the 8 respondents who requested further information, were sent the Letter of Informed Consent and the Demographic Questionnaire. Of this number, 178 were completed and returned. Table 3 contains the home school population for this study by county. In addition to the Demographic Questionnaire completed by their parents (see Appendix K), each of these children completed the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale.

The first 35 male and 35 female children between the ages of 8 and 10 who had been entirely home educated were selected to participate in the video segment of the research project. The home school subjects used in the research represented 39.3 percent of the responding home school population. Table 4 presents this sample by age, gender, and county.

An analysis of the Demographic Questionnaire (see Table 5) revealed that the mean age of the children in the home school sample was 8.8 years. Due to the manner in which the study was designed, there was an equal number of males and females. As in the responding home school population, the majority of the sample resided in a suburban setting with an average household income of

Table 1

Home School Population By County

County	Registered	Non-Registered	Totals
Orange	322	472	794
Seminole	144	28	172
Lake	75	20	95
Totals	541	520	1061

Table 2

Results Of Initial Letter To Home School Parents

Response	<u>n</u>	Percentage <sup>a</sup>
No response	802	75.59
Desired to be included	209	19.70
Moved, no new address	29	2.70
No longer Home Schooling	9	.80
Requested more information	8	.75
Negative, remove address from listing	4	.40

<sup>a</sup> Does not add up to 100 percent due to rounding

Table 3

Respondent Home School Population By County

County	<u>n</u>
Orange	122
Seminole	43
Lake	13

Table 4

Sample Home School Population by Age, Gender, and County

County	Age ( <u>n</u> = 70)		
	8	9	10
Orange			
Male	10	7	6
Female	10	7	6
Seminole			
Male	4	3	2
Female	4	3	2
Lake			
Male	1	1	1
Female	1	1	1

Table 5

Demographic Description of Home School Sample

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>b</sup>
<b>Child's Residence is:</b>			
Rural	13	19	19
Urban	7	10	29
Suburban	50	71	100
<b>Child's Age:</b>			
8	30	43	43
9	22	31	74
10	18	26	100
<b>Child's Gender:</b>			
Male	35	50	50
Female	35	50	100
<b>Number of Years in Current School Environment:</b>			
Two	4	5.7	5.7
Three	19	27.1	32.8
Four	18	25.7	58.5
Five	23	32.9	91.4
Six	6	8.6	100.0

Table 5--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>b</sup>
Number of other children in the Home School:			
None	18	25.7	25.7
One	29	41.4	67.1
Two	18	25.7	92.8
Three	3	4.2	97.0
Four	2	2.8	99.8
Other children not in the Home School:c			
Yes	3	4.2	4.2
No	67	95.7	99.9
Number of Older Siblings:			
None	26	37.1	37.1
One	24	34.3	71.4
Two	16	22.9	94.3
Three	4	5.7	100.0
Number of Younger Siblings:			
None	22	31.4	31.4
One	21	30.0	61.4
Two	16	22.9	84.3
Three	9	12.9	97.2

Table 5--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>b</sup>
Number of Younger Siblings (Cont.):			
Four	1	1.4	98.6
Five	1	1.4	100.0
Approximate Number of Children Subject Plays with Outside of The Schooling Experience:			
none - five	21	30.0	30.0
six - ten	30	42.9	72.9
eleven - fifteen	11	15.7	88.6
sixteen or more	8	11.4	100.0
Community Activities:			
Church			
None	1	1.4	1.4
Daily	2	2.9	4.3
Weekly	67	95.7	100.0
Monthly	0	0.0	100.0
YMCA			
None	60	85.7	85.7
Daily	1	1.4	87.1
Weekly	8	11.5	98.6
Monthly	1	1.4	100.0

Table 5--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>b</sup>
<b>Community Activities (Cont.):</b>			
<b>Scouting</b>			
None	63	90.0	90.0
Daily	0	0.0	90.0
Weekly	7	10.0	100.0
Monthly	0	0.0	100.0
<b>4-H</b>			
None	62	88.6	88.6
Daily	0	0.0	88.6
Weekly	2	2.9	91.5
Monthly	6	8.5	100.0
<b>FFA</b>			
None	70	100.0	100.0
<b>Other<sup>d</sup></b>			
None	16	22.9	22.9
Daily	5	7.1	30.0
Weekly	38	54.3	84.3
Monthly	11	15.7	100.0



Table 5--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>b</sup>
Approximate Household Annual Income:			
Did not Report	2	2.9	2.9
15,000-20,000	5	7.1	10.0
21,000-25,000	7	10.0	20.0
26,000-30,000	20	28.6	48.6
31,000-35,000	10	14.3	62.9
36,000-40,000	6	8.6	71.5
41,000-45,000	4	5.7	77.2
46,000-50,000	7	10.0	87.2
51,000 and Above	9	12.8	100.0

<sup>a</sup> The first five questions pertained to name, address, parents' names, and telephone numbers. This confidential information is not reported here.

<sup>b</sup> May not add up to 100% due to rounding.

<sup>c</sup> The respondents who answered yes to this question had older children who had returned to traditional schools in order to participate in extracurricular activities such as sports or band.

<sup>d</sup> Other activities reported by parents were ballet, gymnastics, youth group activities associated with church, and home school support group meetings.

\$38,000. Most of the children in the sample were the youngest child in the family and had at least one older sibling.

The children averaged 4.1 years in a home-school environment which included at least one other child, most often an older sibling. The majority of the subjects indicated that they played with an average of 6 to 10 children outside of the schooling experience. Weekly church attendance was the predominant outside of school activity in which the students were involved. Weekly youth group meetings associated with church or home school support group meetings also were high in involvement.

Using this information and methods described in the previous chapter, an equivalent population of traditionally schooled children were located through church groups, letters to principals, and word of mouth. A request was made for children who would match the home school subjects in regard to age, gender, residential setting, and economic background. Three hundred children who met the criteria were identified in the three county area. Of that group, the first 178 who most closely matched the respondent home school research sample were selected to participate in the project. Appendix L provides the demographic description of the respondent traditional school population.

The first 35 male and 35 female traditionally schooled students who matched the home school sample for age, gender, family size, residential setting, and economic status were selected to take part in the video portion of the project. Table 6 is a demographic comparison of the final research samples from both respondent populations. Table 7 shows these samples broken down by age, county, and schooling experience.

The final sample, therefore, was composed of 70 home educated children and an equal number of students from traditional schools. Each home school student was compared to a child from a traditional school who matched according to age, gender, economic status, and residential setting. An attempt also was made to match the children in as many other areas as possible to reduce the effects of confounding variables.

As the data was collected and analyzed, it became apparent that it had been possible to obtain a near perfect match of traditionally schooled children to home schooled children in the areas described previously. Although standard ANOVAs were run to analyze the data, a more precise split-plot design was also used. The results from that analysis did not significantly alter the findings and conclusions that follow. The results of the split-plot design are found in Appendix M.

Table 6

Demographic Comparison of Home (H.S.) and Traditional  
School (T.S.) Sample

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u>	Cell % <sup>b</sup>
	H.S. (T.S.)	H.S. (T.S.)
Child's Residence is:		
Rural	13 (13)	19 (19)
Urban	7 (7)	10 (10)
Suburban	50 (50)	71 (71)
Child's Age:		
8	30 (30)	43 (43)
9	22 (22)	31 (31)
10	18 (18)	26 (26)
Child's Gender:		
Male	35 (35)	50 (50)
Female	35 (35)	50 (50)

Table 6--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u>	Cell % <sup>b</sup>
	H.S. (T.S.)	H.S. (T.S.)
Number of Years in Current School Environment:		
Two	4 (4)	5.7 (5.7)
Three	19 (19)	27.1 (27.1)
Four	18 (18)	25.7 (25.7)
Five	23 (23)	32.9 (32.9)
Six	6 (6)	8.6 (8.6)
Number of Older Siblings:		
None	26 (26)	37.1 (37.1)
One	24 (24)	34.3 (34.3)
Two	16 (16)	22.9 (22.9)
Three	4 (4)	5.7 (5.7)

Table 6--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u>	Cell % <sup>b</sup>
	H.S. (T.S.)	H.S. (T.S.)
Number of Younger Siblings:		
None	22 (22)	31.4 (31.4)
One	21 (21)	30.0 (30.0)
Two	16 (16)	22.9 (22.9)
Three	9 (9)	12.9 (12.9)
Four	1 (1)	1.4 (1.4)
Five	1 (1)	1.4 (1.4)
Approximate Number of Children Subject Plays with Outside of The Schooling Experience:		
none - five	21 (21)	30.0 (30.0)
six - ten	30 (30)	42.9 (42.9)
eleven - fifteen	11 (11)	15.7 (15.7)
sixteen or more	8 (8)	11.4 (11.4)

Table 6--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u>	Cell % <sup>b</sup>
	H.S. (T.S.)	H.S. (T.S.)
Community Activities:		
Church		
None	1 (1)	1.4 (1.4)
Daily	2 (0)	2.9 (0.0)
Weekly	67 (67)	95.7 (95.7)
Monthly	0 (2)	0.0 (2.9)
YMCA		
None	60 (60)	85.7 (85.7)
Daily	1 (0)	1.4 (0.0)
Weekly	8 (10)	11.5 (14.3)
Monthly	1 (0)	1.4 (0.0)
Scouting		
None	63 (63)	90.0 (90.0)
Daily	0 (0)	0.0 (0.0)

Table 6--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u>	Cell % <sup>b</sup>
	H.S. (T.S.)	H.S. (T.S.)
Community Activities (Cont.):		
Scouting (Cont.)		
Weekly	7 (7)	10.0 (10.0)
Monthly	0 (0)	0.0 (0.0)
4-H		
None	62 (68)	88.6 (97.1)
Daily	0 (0)	0.0 (0.0)
Weekly	2 (2)	2.9 (2.9)
Monthly	6 (0)	8.5 (0.0)
FFA		
None	70 (70)	100.0 (100.0)
Other <sup>c</sup>		
None	16 (38)	22.9 (54.3)
Daily	5 (0)	7.1 (0.0)



Table 6--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u>	Cell % <sup>b</sup>
	H.S. (T.S.)	H.S. (T.S.)
Community Activities (Cont.):		
Other <sup>c</sup>		
Weekly	38 (3)	54.3 (4.3)
Monthly	11 (29)	15.7 (41.4)
Approximate Household Annual Income:		
Did not Report	2 (0)	2.9 (0.0)
15,000-20,000	5 (5)	7.1 (7.1)
21,000-25,000	7 (8)	10.0 (11.4)
26,000-30,000	20 (21)	28.6 (30.0)
31,000-35,000	10 (10)	14.3 (14.3)
36,000-40,000	6 (6)	8.6 (8.6)
41,000-45,000	4 (4)	5.7 (5.7)
46,000-50,000	7 (7)	10.0 (10.0)

Table 6--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u>	Cell % <sup>b</sup>
	H.S. (T.S.)	H.S. (T.S.)
Approximate Household Annual Income (Cont.):		
51,000 and Above	9 (9)	12.8 (12.8)

<sup>a</sup> The first five questions pertained to name, address, parents' names, and telephone numbers. This confidential information is not reported here.

<sup>b</sup> May not add up to 100% due to rounding.

<sup>c</sup> Other activities reported by parents were ballet, gymnastics, youth group activities associated with church, and Home School support group meetings.

Table 7

Final Research Group by Age, School, County, and Gender

County	Age and School					
	8		9		10	
	H. S.	T. S.	H. S.	T. S.	H. S.	T. S.
Orange						
Male	10	10	7	7	6	6
Female	10	10	7	7	6	6
Seminole						
Male	4	4	3	3	2	2
Female	4	4	3	3	2	2
Lake						
Male	1	1	1	1	1	1
Female	1	1	1	1	1	1

### Test Results

Each of the participating students completed the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (PHSCS) and the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale (CABS). Each of the children also participated in a 40-minute video taped exercise as described in the previous chapter. This video tape was viewed by trained observers who then completed a Direct Observation Form (DOF) for each child. The frequency distribution of the PHSCS, CABS and DOF are presented in Tables 8 through 10, respectively. Tables 11 through 13 illustrate the means and standard deviations for the three instruments, whereas Tables 14 through 16 list the means and standard deviations for each instrument by age, gender, and schooling experience.

An examination of Tables 14 through 16 discloses a disparity in standard deviations. Normally this would mean that the assumption of equal within-cell variances has been violated. However, F statistics derived using ANOVAs are relatively robust to violation of this assumption when cell sizes are equal (Kennedy & Bush, 1985).

### Hypotheses

Three null hypotheses were tested in this study. Age and gender had been presented in the review of

Table 8

Distribution of Scores on the Piers-Harris Children's  
Self-Concept Scale

Raw Score *	Freq. n=140	Cell %	Cum %
36	1	.7	.7
37	1	.7	1.4
45	1	.7	2.1
46	1	.7	2.9
47	1	.7	3.6
48	1	.7	4.3
49	1	.7	5.0
50	6	4.3	9.3
51	3	2.1	11.4
54	3	2.1	13.6
55	7	5.0	18.6
56	3	2.1	20.7
58	1	.7	21.4
59	1	.7	22.1
60	6	4.3	26.4
62	2	1.4	27.9
63	10	7.1	35.0
64	11	7.9	42.9
65	2	1.4	44.3
66	5	3.6	47.9
67	12	8.6	56.4
68	8	5.7	62.1
69	4	2.9	65.0
70	7	5.0	70.0
71	6	4.3	74.3
72	8	5.7	80.0
73	8	5.7	85.7
74	5	3.6	89.3
75	7	5.0	94.3
77	3	2.1	96.4
78	4	2.9	99.3
79	1	.7	100.0

\* High raw scores equate to high self-concept.

Table 9

Distribution of Scores on the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale

Raw Score *	Freq. n=140	Cell %	Cum %
-28	1	.7	.7
-21	2	1.4	2.1
-19	2	1.4	3.6
-18	3	2.1	5.7
-17	1	.7	6.4
-16	6	4.3	10.7
-15	2	1.4	12.1
-14	2	1.4	13.6
-13	3	2.1	15.7
-12	8	5.7	21.4
-11	7	5.0	26.4
-10	5	3.6	30.0
-9	8	5.7	35.7
-8	13	9.3	45.0
-7	14	10.0	55.0
-6	8	5.7	60.7
-5	6	4.3	65.0
-4	7	5.0	70.0
-3	7	5.0	75.0
-2	17	12.1	87.1
-1	3	2.1	89.3
1	1	.7	90.0
2	5	3.6	93.6
3	4	2.9	96.4
5	2	1.4	97.9
8	1	.7	98.6
9	1	.7	99.3
11	1	.7	100.0

\* A negative raw score indicates passive responses whereas a positive raw score indicates aggressive responses.

Table 10

Distribution of Scores on the Direct Observation Form

Raw Score *	Freq. <u>n=140</u>	Cell %	Cum %
0	25	17.9	17.9
1	17	12.1	30.0
2	9	6.4	36.4
3	6	4.3	40.7
5	11	7.9	48.6
6	4	2.9	51.6
10	10	7.1	58.6
12	8	5.7	64.3
13	3	2.1	66.4
14	7	5.0	71.4
15	4	2.9	74.3
16	1	.7	75.0
18	7	5.0	80.0
19	2	1.4	81.4
20	11	7.9	89.3
22	1	.7	90.0
24	4	2.9	92.9
28	3	2.1	95.0
29	2	1.4	96.4
30	5	3.6	100.0

\* The raw score is in direct proportion to the number and frequency of problem behaviors observed.

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations for the Piers-Harris  
Children's Self-Concept Scale

Variable	<u>n</u>	Mean*	SD	Minimum	Maximum
<b>Age</b>					
8	60	64.52	9.14	37	79
9	44	66.68	7.71	46	78
10	36	63.42	9.23	36	77
<b>Gender</b>					
Male	70	64.39	9.44	36	78
Female	70	65.44	8.08	45	79
<b>School</b>					
Home	70	64.99	10.31	36	79
Traditional	70	64.84	6.98	50	78
<b>Total</b>	<b>140</b>	<b>64.91</b>	<b>8.77</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>79</b>

\* High mean scores indicate high self-concept.



Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations for the Children's  
Assertive Behavior Scale

Variable	<u>n</u>	Mean*	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Age					
8	60	-7.00	6.89	-28	11
9	44	-5.93	6.13	-18	8
10	36	-8.08	5.35	-19	5
Gender					
Male	70	-6.96	5.90	-19	11
Female	70	-6.93	6.71	-28	9
School					
Home	70	-7.79	6.92	-28	11
Traditional	70	-6.10	5.52	-21	5
Total	140	-6.94	6.29	-28	11

\* A negative score indicates passive responses whereas a positive score indicates aggressive responses.

Table 13

Means and Standard Deviations for the Direct Observation Form

Variable	<u>n</u>	Mean*	SD	Minimum	Maximum
<b>Age</b>					
8	60	10.28	9.79	0	30
9	44	7.93	7.54	0	28
10	36	10.25	9.88	0	30
<b>Gender</b>					
Male	70	9.96	9.63	0	30
Female	70	9.11	8.74	0	30
<b>School</b>					
Home	70	2.00	2.85	0	16
Traditional	70	17.07	6.79	5	30
<b>Total</b>	<b>140</b>	<b>9.54</b>	<b>9.17</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>30</b>

\* DOF scores are in direct proportion to the number and frequency of observed problem behaviors.

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations for PHSCS by Age, Gender, and School

Age	Gender	School	<u>n</u>	Mean	SD
8	M	H.S.	15	60.53	11.84
		T.S.	15	66.73	6.26
	F	H.S.	15	67.87	9.69
		T.S.	15	62.93	6.47
9	M	H.S.	11	68.09	8.42
		T.S.	11	68.00	7.18
	F	H.S.	11	65.73	8.45
		T.S.	11	64.91	7.30
10	M	H.S.	9	61.78	12.10
		T.S.	9	60.56	7.49
	F	H.S.	9	66.11	10.13
		T.S.	9	65.22	6.57

Table 15

Means and Standard Deviations for CABS by Age, Gender, and School

Age	Gender	School	<u>n</u>	Mean*	SD
8	M	H.S.	15	-7.47	7.88
		T.S.	15	-5.73	4.77
	F	H.S.	15	-8.93	8.87
		T.S.	15	-5.87	5.37
9	M	H.S.	11	-4.64	7.05
		T.S.	11	-6.18	4.64
	F	H.S.	11	-9.27	5.93
		T.S.	11	-3.64	5.94
10	M	H.S.	9	-9.22	3.83
		T.S.	9	-9.67	4.74
	F	H.S.	9	-6.89	4.70
		T.S.	9	-6.44	7.47

\* A negative score indicates passive responses.

Table 16

Means and Standard Deviations for DOF by Age, Gender, and School

Age	Gender	School	<u>n</u>	Mean*	SD
8	M	H.S.	15	2.00	4.17
		T.S.	15	16.27	5.96
	F	H.S.	15	1.67	1.76
		T.S.	15	21.20	5.42
9	M	H.S.	11	2.00	2.14
		T.S.	11	16.18	5.98
	F	H.S.	11	1.45	1.97
		T.S.	11	12.09	4.64
10	M	H.S.	9	2.77	3.99
		T.S.	9	22.00	9.31
	F	H.S.	9	2.44	2.45
		T.S.	9	13.78	4.27

\* DOF scores are in direct proportion to the number and frequency of observed problem behaviors.

literature as possible confounding variables (Crokenberg & Bryant, 1978; Hartup, 1977, 1979; Hymel & Franke, 1985). Accordingly, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was computed using age, gender, and schooling as independent variables and the three measures (PHSCS, CABS, and DOF) as dependent variables. The MANOVA indicated that there were significant differences between the samples on the vector of three dependent measures (see Table 17); therefore the data were analyzed individually for each dependent variable utilizing a factorial analysis of variance to test hypotheses concerning age, gender, and schooling.

#### Hypothesis One

The first null hypothesis stated:

No significant differences will exist between the mean self-concept scores of children educated in home or traditional schools as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale.

A three-way factorial ANOVA was computed to determine the extent to which variance in self-concept could be attributed to differences based on or interactions among age, gender, or schooling environment. As can be seen in Table 18, there were no statistically significant ( $p = .05$ ) main effect or interaction  $F$  values for this analysis. Therefore, null hypothesis one was not rejected.

Table 17

Multivariate Tests of Significance for PHSCS, CABS, and  
DOF by Age, Gender, and School

Source	Value	DF	F*	PR
Age	.906	6	2.117	.052
Gender	.972	3	1.232	.301
School	.278	3	109.038	.000
Age/Gender	.868	6	3.058	.007
Age/School	.948	6	1.130	.345
Gender/School	.962	3	1.646	.182
Age/Gender/Sch	.880	6	2.779	.012

\* F statistic for Wilk's Lambda is exact.

Table 18

Analysis of Variance of Self-Concept by Age, Gender, and Schooling

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	PR
Within Cells	9671.56	128	75.56		
Age	227.69	2	113.85	1.51	.226
Gender	46.62	1	46.62	.62	.434
School	2.86	1	2.86	.04	.846
Age/Gender	271.77	2	135.89	1.80	.170
Age/School	17.60	2	8.80	.12	.890
Gender/School	123.64	1	123.64	1.64	.203
Age/Gender/Sch	255.21	2	127.60	1.69	.189



### Hypothesis Two

The second null hypothesis stated:

No significant differences will exist between the mean assertiveness scores of children educated in home or traditional schools as measured by the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale.

A three-way factorial ANOVA was computed to determine the extent to which variance in assertiveness could be attributed to differences based on or interactions among age, gender, or schooling environment. As can be seen in Table 19, there were no statistically significant ( $p = .05$ ) main effect or interaction  $F$  values for this analysis. Therefore, null hypothesis two also was not rejected.

### Hypothesis Three

The third null hypothesis stated:

No significant differences will exist between the mean social behavior scores of children educated in home or traditional schools as measured by the Direct Observation Form of the Child Behavior Checklist.

A three-way factorial ANOVA was computed to determine the extent to which variance in social behaviors could be attributed to differences based on or interactions among age, gender, or schooling environment. As can be seen in Table 20, statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ) main effect differences were found for age and school. A further review of Table 20 reveals a significant three-way interaction of age, gender, and school-type (see Figure 1 for illustration). This

precludes straightforward interpretation of lower order interactions and main effects. Consequently, separate two-way ANOVAs were run for each of the three age levels. Results of these analyses are presented in Tables 21 through 23 for 8-, 9-, and 10-year-olds respectively.

A review of Tables 21 through 23 reveals significant two-way interactions of gender and school-type for 8- and 10-year-olds. Subsequently, separate one-way ANOVAs were run for each gender to test for differences in social behavior related to school enrollment. For 9-year-olds there was only a significant effect due to type of school attended. As shown in Figure 1, mean incidents of problem behavior were substantially lower for home schooled children of both genders.

Results of the followup analyses for male and female 8- and 10-year-olds are shown in Tables 24 through 27. Each analysis indicated that the differences observed in Figure 1 for type of school at each age/gender category was significant.

Thus a review of Tables 20-27 and Figure 1 indicates that significant differences in social behaviors were found between home- and traditionally-schooled children. It appears that schooling is the most significant variable based upon an analysis of the data. Null hypothesis three is, therefore, rejected.

Table 19

Analysis of Variance of Assertiveness by Age, Gender,  
and Schooling

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	PR
Within Cells	5044.02	128	39.41		
Age	92.00	2	46.00	1.17	.314
Gender	2.86	1	2.86	.07	.788
School	75.40	1	75.40	1.91	.169
Age/Gender	88.29	2	44.14	1.12	.329
Age/School	32.99	2	16.50	.42	.659
Gender/School	84.24	1	84.24	2.14	.146
Age/Gender/Sch	67.44	2	33.72	.86	.427

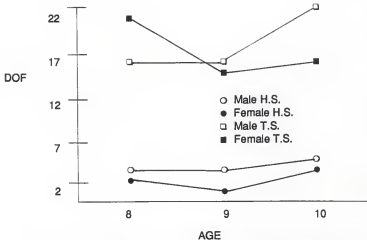


Figure 1. Affects of interaction of age, gender, and school-type on social behavior as measured by the Direct Observation Form (DOF).

(DOF scores are in direct proportion to frequency of observed problem behaviors.)

Table 20

Analysis of Variance of Social Behavior by Age, Gender, and Schooling

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	PR
Within Cells	2869.27	128	22.42		
Age	165.09	2	82.55	3.68	.028
Gender	68.69	1	68.69	3.06	.082
Sch	7398.91	1	7398.91	330.07	.000
Age/Gender	278.29	2	139.15	6.21	.003
Age/Sch	128.51	2	64.25	2.87	.061
Gender/Sch	35.39	1	35.39	1.58	.211
Age/Gender/Sch	271.75	2	135.87	6.06	.003

Table 21

Analysis of Variance of Social Behavior by Gender and Schooling for 8-year-olds

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	PR
Gender	79.350	1	79.350	3.713	.059
School	4284.150	1	4284.150	200.484	.000
Gender/Sch	104.017	1	104.017	4.868	.031
Residual	1196.670	56	21.369		
Total	5664.180	59			

Table 22

Analysis of Variance of Social Behavior by Gender and  
Schooling for 9-year-olds

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	PR
Gender	59.114	1	59.114	3.598	.065
School	1693.840	1	1693.840	103.083	.000
Gender/Sch	34.568	1	34.568	2.104	.155
Residual	657.273	40	16.435		
Total	2444.800	43			

Table 23

Analysis of Variance of Social Behavior by Gender and  
Schooling for 10-year-olds

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	PR
Gender	164.694	1	164.694	5.191	.029
School	2100.690	1	2100.690	66.207	.000
Gender/Sch	140.028	1	140.028	4.413	.044
Residual	1015.330	32	31.730		
Total	3420.750	35			

Table 26

Analysis of Variance of Social Behavior by Schooling for 10-year-old Males


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Source	SS	DF	MS	F	PR
School	1662.720	1	1662.720	32.382	.000
Residual	821.556	16	51.347		
Total	2484.280	17			

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Table 27

Analysis of Variance of Social Behavior by Schooling for 10-year-old Females


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Source	SS	DF	MS	F	PR
School	578.000	1	578.000	47.725	.000
Residual	193.778	16	12.111		
Total	771.778	17			

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## CHAPTER V

### LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY, DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Compulsory school attendance laws had been legislated in all 50 states by 1918, based partially on the assumption that traditional schools provided the best source of social skills training as well as appropriate social adjustment (Cremin, 1977, 1988; Ovard, 1978; Yastrow, 1990). Traditional schools provide for regular classroom contact with children of the same age and it is assumed that this regular contact with other children aids appropriate social adjustment (McCaul, 1989; Spring, 1982; Tyack, 1967). By their very nature, home schools do not provide for regular formal classroom contact with children other than siblings (Ray, 1990). Because of this obvious difference, parents, educators, legislators, and courts have questioned whether children schooled at home are as socially well adjusted as their age mates in traditional programs (Johnson, 1991). Investigation of this possible difference was the focus of this study.

The purpose of this study was to compare the social adjustment of children educated at home with that of



children educated in a traditional school setting. Three correlates of social adjustment were identified through a review of the literature: self-concept, behavior, and assertiveness (Bandura, 1977; Bornstein et al., 1977; Dodge, 1985) and were measured in sample children of both populations. This chapter includes the limitations of the study, an evaluation of the hypotheses, discussion of the results, implications and recommendations for further study, and conclusions.

#### Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study are primarily in regard to the generalizability of the results. Although the demographic descriptions of the Central Florida samples used in the study are similar to those of previous studies (Bates, 1990; Griffiths, 1988; Maarse-Delahooke, 1986; Mayberry, 1989; Ray, 1990; Taylor, 1986), no members of ethnic minorities participated, therefore, it cannot be concluded that the samples are the same.

The results of this study are further limited in that the participants were volunteers from both types of schooling populations. Parents of traditionally schooled children are commonly called upon to volunteer their children for various projects. Many of these parents do so without regard to the nature or outcome of the request. Home school parents, however, are more

Table 24

Analysis of Variance of Social Behavior by Schooling for  
8-year-old Males

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Source	SS	DF	MS	F	PR
School	1526.530	1	1526.530	57.689	.000
Residual	740.933	28	26.462		
Total	2267.470	29			

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Table 25

Analysis of Variance of Social Behavior by Schooling for  
8-year-old Females

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Source	SS	DF	MS	F	PR
School	2861.630	1	2861.630	175.817	.000
Residual	455.733	28	16.276		
Total	3317.370	29			

---

reluctant to volunteer, and do so only after careful consideration. Home school participants also had more to gain or more to lose depending on the nature of the final results of this study. It is possible that this fact may have caused parents of home schooled students who were less socially well adjusted to not volunteer their children. This may mean that the participants in this research were not representative of the general population for the latter group.

The very nature of social adjustment may also be a limitation of this study. According to Gresham and Elliott (1984), social adjustment is complex and difficult to assess; therefore, certain aspects of social adjustment may not have been accurately measured.

#### Evaluation and Discussion of the Results

##### Hypothesis One

Indicated in null hypothesis one was that no significant difference would be found between the mean self-concept scores achieved by home schooled and traditionally schooled children. The results of the data analysis supported this statement, and therefore null hypothesis one was not rejected.

Both groups of children received scores on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (PHSCS) that were above the national average. This suggests that how children view themselves may be independent of where

they obtain their academic training. Because both groups had higher than average measured self-concepts, they could be expected to be active in both formal and informal social situations as suggested by Coopersmith (1967) and Rosenberg (1965). Children who have high self-concepts also are less likely to be withdrawn or aggressive (Hedin, 1990; McIntire & Drummond, 1977).

#### Hypothesis Two

It was indicated in the second null hypothesis that no significant difference would be found in the mean assertiveness scores between the groups. The analysis of the data supported this statement and null hypothesis two also was not rejected.

According to the authors of the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale (CABS), a raw score of zero is indicative of assertiveness, whereas a negative score denotes passiveness and a positive score suggests aggression (Michelson et al., 1983). Both groups of children participating in this study received raw scores indicating that they were slightly passive (see Table 12). Very few of the children received scores that could be considered aggressive (i.e., had a positive total raw score). This indicates that the children in this study were not aggressive, but rather somewhat passive in their understanding of social situations. Because children in this age group (8- to 10-year-olds)

are rarely given much power and credibility by adults, they may not yet feel socially competent. A lack of social competence creates feelings of anxiety within the individual and thereby generates passive responses (Norton-Ford & Norton-Ford, 1979; Paterson et al., 1984; Rotheram, 1987). Neither group, however, received mean assertiveness scores that could be considered "very passive."

### Hypothesis Three

Indicated in the third null hypothesis was that no significant difference would be found in the mean social behavior scores between children educated at home or in a traditional setting. However, significant differences were found due to age and schooling and a three-way interaction among age, gender, and schooling. Followup analyses indicated that significant differences also existed due to an interaction between age and gender for 8- and 10-year-olds. Thus, the third null hypothesis was rejected.

A significant difference ( $p = .028$ ) existed between the mean behavior scores of the groups due to age. Examination of Table 13 suggests that 9-year-old children, regardless of their schooling experience, tended to have fewer observed problem behaviors, whereas little difference was observed between 8- and 10-year-olds.

Although no significant differences were found between the groups on self-concept or assertiveness scores, 9-year-olds also achieved slightly different scores than their 8- and 10-year-old fellow participants regardless of schooling group. Nine-year-olds obtained a slightly higher mean self-concept score on the PHSCS than either 8- or 10-year-olds in this study (see Table 11). Likewise, 9-year-olds obtained a slightly more assertive mean score on the CABS (see Table 12). This finding suggests that the 9-year-olds in this study felt better about themselves than the other participants and therefore experienced less social anxiety. With less social anxiety, they may have felt more competent and thus provided more assertive responses and displayed fewer problem behaviors (Hedin, 1990; Norton-Ford & Norton-Ford, 1979; Paterson et al., 1984; Rotheram, 1987). These findings support conclusions made by Gesell, Ilg, and Ames (1977) when they observed

The nine-year-old is no longer a mere child; nor is he yet a youth. Nine is an intermediate age, in the middle zone that lies between kindergarten and junior high school. Significant reorientations take place during this intermediate period. The behavior trends of the eighth year come to clearer issue; the child gets a better hold upon himself; he acquires new forms of self-dependence which greatly modify his relations to his family, to school and classmates, and to the culture in general. (p. 190)

A confounding variable that also may have contributed to this difference was the day of the week in

which the group interaction activities occurred. Although the activities took place over a period of weeks, the weekday on which the groups participated was not controlled. Group activities were scheduled for Thursdays, Fridays, and Saturdays. Neither home schools nor traditional schools ordinarily operate on Saturdays or Sundays. Because weekends are commonly considered "free" days, children may be more animated and verbal as the weekend approaches. Records to determine if one age group was assigned a specific day of the week more frequently than either of the other age groups were not maintained.

A significant ( $p = .003$ ) two-way interaction between age and gender also was found for 8- and 10-year-olds. Eight-year-old, traditionally schooled females and 10-year-old males from both groups achieved higher mean problem behavior scores on the Direct Observation Form (DOF). On the other hand, the 9- and 10-year-old females of both groups obtained lower mean problem behavior scores on the DOF than did their fellow participants (see Table 16). As a group, however, 9-year-old females received the lowest mean scores.

A curious finding in the results of data analysis was the high mean problem behavior scores achieved by 8-year-old traditionally schooled females. Typically, 8-year-old girls are less aggressive and more docile than

their male agemates (Gesell et al., 1977; Ilg & Ames, 1955). During the group interaction period of this research, 8-year-old boys from both schooling environments tended to play together and ignore the girls. While traditionally schooled 8-year-old boys in general chose to play with board games that had been supplied, girls from traditional schools involved themselves in parallel play using stuffed animals and dolls. It was observed that traditionally schooled 8-year-old girls' play involved tossing and catching the stuffed animals, loud talking, and constant motion.

Eight-year-old girls from home schools split between parallel play and cooperative use of games. Those home school girls who chose to play alone tended to talk softly to the dolls or stuffed animals. Eight-year-old home school girls who chose to play games took turns and played quietly beside the boys in their group.

The higher mean problem behavior score received by the 8-year-old females from traditional schools in this study may be due in part to boredom. Because most of the board games took long periods of time to complete, and boys did not include girls in their play, the girls appeared to become bored. Boredom tended to be manifested among the female participants by their walking around, looking at other toys in the room, and/or teasing the boys, and talking loudly among themselves.



Although several games were still available, it appeared that many of these girls preferred to entertain themselves by talking loudly and disturbing the boys' play. This was especially true for 10 of the 8-year-old traditionally schooled girls who expressed delight that the boys in their group were annoyed and distracted by the noise. When children become bored, they are likely to seek things to do to overcome the boredom. In the case of this study, the 8-year-old traditionally schooled girls apparently chose loud talking and constant motion.

Eight-year-old boys from both schooling environments consistently engaged in quieter play and received lower problem behavior scores than the 8-year-old traditionally schooled girls who were more active and louder. Eight-year-old, traditionally schooled girls tended to avoid group play in favor of playing alone. This could be considered withdrawal and thereby rate higher as a problem behavior. In those cases where 8-year-old traditionally schooled girls included other girls in their play, they were louder and more active (i.e. running and jumping) than boys of their same age. Such activity also is considered as problem behavior.

The 10-year-old boys in this study obtained higher mean DOF scores than the other boys whereas 10-year-old girls received one of the lowest means among the girls

(see Table 16). Many other researchers have observed that boys of this age are generally more active and/or aggressive than girls of their same age (Kagan & Moss, 1962; Mischel, 1983; Mussen et al., 1974). According to Gesell et al. (1977):

The psychology of a ten-year-old girl is clearly distinguishable from that of a ten-year-old boy of equivalent background and experience. The girl has more poise, more folk wisdom, and more interest in matters pertaining to marriage and family. This difference appears to be fundamental. (pp. 216-217)

The 10-year-old boys from both groups tended to be more verbal, more competitive, and louder than girls of the same age. During the group interaction activity, 10-year-old boys, in general, were slower at completing the task than the girls. When the girls finished the group task first, many of the 10-year-old boys talked louder and became more animated in their physical behaviors. Several of the 10-year-old boys jokingly expressed that they "let" the girls finish first. A few of the boys followed their comments with childish behaviors such as making strange noises with their mouth, embarrassed giggling, and exaggerated body movements.

The 10-year-old girls of both groups tended to display a higher level of maturity during the group interaction activity by sitting quietly while the boys completed their tasks. Although some of the boys

displayed embarrassment, the girls did not exacerbate the situation.

Perhaps the different level of maturity between 10-year-old boys and girls created the observed behaviors. The girls accepted the group interaction activity with calm deliberation whereas the boys, in general, faced the task as a matter of competition with the girls. It would appear that the 10-year-old females in this study generally had begun to channel their attention to more serious matters, and therefore were less competitive with males of their same age. The findings of Gesell et al., (1977) agree with this observation. Having a more serious attitude is often a sign of social maturity (Bornstein et al., 1977; Dodge, 1985). Boys of this age can observe that 10-year-old girls are more mature acting and may feel out of place and self-conscious. This would create a need to "prove" to themselves and others that they are as mature or competent as the girls in their presence. Because of awkward feelings, their behaviors could become exaggerated and therefore generate higher problem behavior scores.

Although significant differences existed between the mean DOF scores based on age, and significant interactions were found between age and gender, the most significant influence in this study appears to be schooling ( $p < .001$ ). Home schooled children, regard-

less of age or gender, consistently received lower problem behavior scores on the DOF (see Figure 1). All three home school age groups were observed to separate from their parents easily for the group activities. None of the children expressed apparent anxiety over where their parents would be during the activities. None of the children expressed concern over not knowing other children in their group. During the brief period allowed for children to become acquainted, home school children introduced themselves and sought common interests for conversations (e.g., favorite game or television program). Home schooled children from each age group tended to play well together, cooperated in the group interaction activity, and were quiet. In several settings, children would invite others within their group to join them in group play. During games they cooperated by taking turns. When they "lost" in the games, they would often smile or otherwise indicate that it was "okay" and continue to play. Although boys and girls most often engaged in segregated play, during 9-year-olds' group interactions, play frequently became integrated. As the activities ended, several of the home schooled children exchanged addresses or telephone numbers for future contact. The same was not observed among the traditionally schooled children.

In contrast, two of the 8-year-olds and one of the 9-year-old traditionally schooled children expressed concern over where their parents would be during the time the activities were taking place. During the brief introduction period, most of the traditionally schooled children sat alone and observed each other or walked around the room alone. Five of the children (three 8-year-old girls and two 10-year-old boys) chose to not interact with other children during the activities. Traditionally schooled children from all age groups initially engaged in individual parallel play and slowly moved into game play. As conversations began, they were generally loud and centered around game rules or instructions that had been given by the researcher. In each age group of traditionally schooled children, at least one child became agitated when he or she was not included in games they wanted to play. The agitation was displayed through pouting, crossed arms, withdrawal, or harsh statements. When they were disappointed, either due to not getting a turn or because they lost at a game, the most common response was to withdraw. None of the traditionally schooled groups involved male-female integrated play. In most cases the traditionally schooled children apparently used the difference between the sexes as a reason for competition. As mentioned previously, none of the children made attempts to get

addresses or telephone numbers for further contact at the conclusion of the interaction activity.

According to Bandura (1977), children learn how to behave from observing and imitating others. It is reasonable to expect that children will imitate the behaviors that they observe most often. Traditionally schooled children spend an average of seven hours per week day over a nine month period in the presence of other children and few adults. It would seem then, that their behaviors would most often reflect those of the majority of the children with whom they associate. In the case of this study, it was observed that traditionally schooled children tended to be considerably more aggressive, loud, and competitive than were the home schooled children of the same age.

Although the traditionally schooled children often opted for individual play, their behaviors continued to be similar to those around them. For example, as the volume of noise increased, each child seemed to increase his or her volume. Also, as body motion increased, it eventually increased for each of the children in the group. The tendency for traditionally schooled children to imitate the behaviors of their peers supports the conclusions made by Diachuk (1990) in his research with behavior disordered elementary school pupils.

Most of the traditionally schooled children were aware of competition, as evidenced by their demand for equal turns and their physical behaviors when they would lose at a game. When traditionally schooled children withdrew, there was no attempt by other children to bring them back into the activity; instead, there became a cooperative effort by the remaining group to continue play unabated.

In the case of the home schooled children most of their day is spent with their parents and very few children. The primary models for behavior, therefore, are adults. Based on the social learning theory that children learn by imitating the behaviors of people whom they observe (Bandura, 1977), home schooled children would thus most likely imitate the behaviors of their parents. Furthermore, as noted, the home schooled children in this study tended to be quiet, nonaggressive, and noncompetitive. Each child appeared to make up his or her own mind on how to behave. If one child spoke loudly, the others did not necessarily follow suit. Individual body movements also appeared to be independent of those of the children around them.

The home schooled children tended to play as well alone as in a group. Each child who participated in group play waited patiently for his or her turn. When a child would lose, he or she would smile and/or make

statements that indicated that it was okay. None of the home schooled children withdrew from participation. During the initial stages, several home schooled children encouraged others in their group to join them in game play. It was obvious that the behavior of home schooled children was more adult-like than was that of the traditionally schooled group as a whole. This observation is similar to those made by other researchers (Guddemi & Duff, 1991; Tisak, 1986).

It could be suggested that home-schooled children who begin to suffer social maladjustment might be placed in traditional schools and therefore would not be part of the group used in this study. A review of the reasons for home schooling listed on the Demographic Questionnaire, however, indicated that many parents did just the opposite by removing their children from traditional schools when they suffered social difficulties. Although these children were not included in this research because they had not been entirely home schooled, the implication is that home school parents prefer to teach their children appropriate social behaviors rather than delegate that authority to teachers in traditional schools (Holt, 1981; Ray, 1990).

#### Implications and Recommendations for Further Research

Completion of this study has resulted in an increased understanding of home schooling and how it



compares to traditional education programs in the area of a child's social skills development. From these findings, there are numerous implications for research, education, and future legislation.

The results of this study draw into question the conclusion made by many educators that traditionally educated children are more socially well adjusted than are those who are home schooled (Educators say, 1989; Ladd, 1979; LeCroy, 1983; State v. Riddle, 1981). Although the traditionally educated children participating in this study achieved high mean self-concept and acceptable assertiveness scores, their mean problem behavior scores were well above the normal range of 0 to 6 suggested by the authors of the DOF (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1983), indicating a lack of appropriate social behaviors. This finding supports many parents', educators', and researchers' suggestions that traditionally schooled children may not be socially well adjusted (Bates, 1990; Bronfenbrenner, 1970; Holt, 1981; Illich, 1971; Slater & Slater, 1990; Smith, 1986).

In contrast, the home schooled children in this study received mean problem behavior scores well within the normal range on the DOF. This finding supports the belief held by home school proponents that home schooled children are socially well adjusted (Moore, 1982, 1984, 1985a; Slater & Slater, 1990; Taylor, 1986). If

children have fewer problem behaviors due to imitating adult behaviors, as suggested by this study, less emphasis may need to be placed on social interactions between children. Adult caretakers, whether parent or teacher, may need to become more active in providing appropriate social interactions with the children in their care. More research should be conducted focusing on the social adjustment of traditionally schooled children.

Fewer problem behaviors among the home schooled participants may also be a result of smaller class size. Typically, home school classes are composed of fewer than five students (see Table 5) whereas traditional school classes generally average twenty students or more (see Appendix L). Although some research has indicated that class size has little influence upon academic achievement (Burde, 1989), most researchers agree that smaller class size provides for more direct teacher/student interaction (Barber, 1988; Goettler-Sopko, 1990; Sommers, 1990). More direct teacher/student interaction provided for better social role modeling and reduced problem behaviors as observed by Holmes (1988) in her review of successful school programs.

It has been estimated that between 50% and 75% of the families who begin home-centered education will eventually enroll their children in some form of

traditional school (Lines, 1987; Myers, 1990; Williams et al., 1984). Many of these children have been returned to traditional programs due to their parents' fear that their children may not develop appropriate social skills. The results of this study indicate that appropriate social development may depend more on adult contact and less on contact with other children than previously thought. Thus parents may be able to make decisions concerning their children's education, choosing home schooling with much less anxiety.

The results of this study also suggest that home school children who eventually enter traditional programs may be less competitive and less aggressive than other children in the school. The finding of significant differences between the groups in behaviors, but not in self-concept and assertiveness, suggests that although both groups have similar self-concepts and are equally assertive, they do not behave in similar manners. The results of this study should assist educators as they determine the best methods to expedite the adjustment of home schooled children who enter traditional programs. Typically, traditional school administrators are as skeptical of home schooling as home school parents have been of traditional programs (McGraw, 1989; O'Neill, 1988; Reavis, 1988). The results of this study suggest that much of that skep-

ticism may be unwarranted. Open communication between traditional school personnel and home school educators could allow for a smoother transition as home schooled children enter regular schools. A longitudinal study following home schooled children who enter traditional programs would be valuable to both parents and educators.

Implications exist for cooperation between home school educators and traditional program staff. Researchers using home school students have consistently indicated that these students are academically equivalent to their age mates from traditional schools (Richman, Girtten, & Snyder, 1990; Wartes, 1990). This study implies that home school students are no less socially well adjusted. The primary disadvantage in home schooling is the lack of facilities and materials. As the home school movement becomes more common, traditional school staff and home school educators should cooperate to provide maximum benefit to all students from available facilities and programs.

Implications also exist for courts and legislatures. In the past, courts have questioned how home schooling might affect a child's social development (State v. Riddle, 1981; Staver, 1987). The results of this study suggest that children educated at home interact with others in ways similar to the adults they

have observed. They openly and freely interacted with other children without hesitation or fear. Traditionally schooled children, however, interacted in ways similar to other children. In addition, the traditionally schooled children in this study were hesitant to interact with children with whom they were not acquainted. They were more aggressive and displayed more anxiety than their agemates from home schools.

Home schooling is a rapidly growing movement (Lines, 1991). Questions will continue to be asked regarding social adjustment and home schooling. For example, what will happen to home school children who eventually do enter traditional programs? Will they continue to follow the modeled behaviors of their parents, or will they follow the modeled behaviors of their peers? Questions also will continue regarding social adjustment among children whose parents do not volunteer them for research. Because the research groups used in this study were fairly homogeneous, it would be interesting to determine what differences, if any, would exist between more heterogeneous groupings.

#### Conclusions

Prior to this study, the effects of home schooling on a child's social adjustment were largely unknown. Parents, educators, courts, and legislators relied upon the belief that children had to have regular contact

with numerous children in order to develop appropriate social skills. The primary source for this contact has historically been the traditional school. It can be concluded from the results of this study that appropriate social skills can develop apart from formal contact with children other than siblings. This supports the belief held by home school proponents (Johnson, 1991; Moore, 1979; 1985a; Moore & Moore, 1975; Richoux, 1987; Slater & Slater, 1990).

The results of this study imply that children between the ages of 8 and 10 have similar beliefs about themselves regardless of how they are schooled. All ages in both research groups had self-concept scores higher than the national average as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. When children feel comfortable with themselves, they are more likely to think and act with less concern over how others will view their actions (Galluzzi & Zucker, 1977). A high self-concept without knowledge of appropriate assertive responses, however, could lead to aggressive or inappropriate behavior (Alberti & Emmons, 1982; Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966).

The results of this study indicate that children from both schooling environments participating in this study achieved scores on the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale that were slightly passive. This would

suggest that children of this age may feel less competent and less sure about what behaviors are socially appropriate (Michelson & Mannarino, 1986).

According to the results of this study, children between the ages of 8 and 10, who had been educated entirely in a home school, had significantly fewer problem behaviors than children of the same age from traditional schools. Children of this age who have been educated entirely in traditional schools have problem behaviors that are above normal ranges for national populations (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1983).

APPENDIX A

CHILDREN'S ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR SCALE



Permission to reproduce the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale for this dissertation has been granted by the publisher.

Children's Assertive Behavior Scale

Instructions

You are going to answer some questions about what you do in various situations. There are not any "right" or "wrong" answers. You are just to answer what you would really do. For example, a question might be:

"What do you do if someone does not listen to you when you are talking to them?"

You have to choose the answer which is like what you usually do. You would usually:

- (a) Tell them to listen.
- (b) Keep on talking.
- (c) Stop talking and ask them to listen.
- (d) Stop talking and walk away.
- (e) Talk louder.

From these 5 answers, you decide which one is most like the one you would do. Now circle the letter on the answer sheet for each question.

**DO NOT WRITE ON THE TEST. WRITE ON THE ANSWER SHEET ONLY.**

Now turn the page and answer each question by circling the letter (a, b, c, d, or e) beside each question on the answer sheet. After you have marked your answer for the question, go on to the next one.

Remember to answer honestly about how you would act. There is no time limit, but you should answer as quickly as possible.

1. Someone says to you, "I think you are a very nice person." You would usually:
  - (a) Say "No, I'm not that nice."
  - (b) Say "Yes, I think I am the best!"
  - (c) Say "Thank you."
  - (d) Say nothing and blush.
  - (e) Say "Thanks, I am really great."
  
2. Someone does something that you think is really great. You would usually:
  - (a) Act like it wasn't that great and say "That was alright."
  - (b) Say "That was alright, but I've seen better."
  - (c) Say nothing.
  - (d) Say "I can do better than that!"
  - (e) Say "That was really great!"
  
3. You are working on something that you like and think is very good. Someone says, "I don't like it!" You would usually:
  - (a) Say "You're a dummy!"
  - (b) Say "I think it's good."
  - (c) Say "You are right," although you don't really agree.
  - (d) Say "I think this is great; besides what do you know!"
  - (e) Feel hurt and say nothing.
  
4. You forget something you were supposed to bring and someone says, "You're so dumb! You'd forget your head if it weren't screwed on!" You would usually:
  - (a) Say "I'm smarter than you any day; besides what do you know!"
  - (b) Say "Yes, you're right, sometimes I do act dumb."
  - (c) Say "if anybody is dumb, it's you!"
  - (d) Say "Nobody's perfect. I'm not dumb just because I forgot something!"
  - (e) Say nothing or ignore it.
  
5. Someone you were supposed to meet arrives 30 minutes late, which makes you upset. The person says nothing about why they are late. You would usually:
  - (a) Say "I'm upset that you kept me waiting like this."
  - (b) Say "I was wondering when you'd get here."

- (c) Say "This is the last time I'll wait for you!"
  - (d) Say nothing to the person.
  - (e) Say "You're a jerk! You're late!"
6. You need someone to do something for you. You would usually:
- (a) Not ask for anything to be done.
  - (b) Say "You gotta do this for me!"
  - (c) Say "Would you please do something for me?" and then explain what you want.
  - (d) Give a small hint that you need something done.
  - (e) Say "I want you to do this for me."
7. You know that someone is feeling upset. You would usually:
- (a) Say, "You seem upset; can I help?"
  - (b) Be with the person and not talk about his or her being upset.
  - (c) Say, "What's wrong with you?"
  - (d) Not say anything and leave the person alone.
  - (e) Laugh and say, "You're just a big baby!"
8. You are feeling upset, and someone says, "You seem upset." You would usually:
- (a) Turn your head away or say nothing.
  - (b) Say, "It's none of your business!"
  - (c) Say, "Yes, I am upset, thank you for asking."
  - (d) Say, "It's nothing."
  - (e) Say, "I'm upset, leave me alone."
9. Someone blames you for a mistake made by another. You would usually:
- (a) Say, "You're crazy!"
  - (b) Say, "That wasn't my fault; someone else made the mistake."
  - (c) Say, "I don't think it was my fault."
  - (d) Say, "Wasn't me, you don't know what you're talking about!"
  - (e) Take the blame or say nothing.
10. Someone asks you to do something, but you don't know why it has to be done. You would usually:
- (a) Say, "This doesn't make any sense, I don't want to do it."
  - (b) Do as you're asked and say nothing.
  - (c) Say, "This is dumb; I'm not going to do it!"

- (d) Before doing it, say, "I don't understand why you want this done."  
(e) Say, "If that's what you want," and then do it.
11. Someone says to you they think that something you did was terrific. You would usually:
- (a) Say, "Yes, I usually do better than most."  
(b) Say, "No, that wasn't so hot."  
(c) Say, "That's right, because I'm the best."  
(d) Say, "Thank you."  
(e) Ignore it and say nothing.
12. Someone has been very nice to you. You would usually:
- (a) Say, "You have been really nice to me, thanks."  
(b) Act like the person weren't that nice and say, "Yea, thanks."  
(c) Say, "You have treated me all right, but I deserve even better."  
(d) Ignore it and say nothing.  
(e) Say, "You don't treat me good enough!"
13. You are talking very loudly with a friend and someone says, "Excuse me, but you are being too noisy." You would usually:
- (a) Stop talking immediately.  
(b) Say, "If you don't like it, get lost!" and keep on talking loudly.  
(c) Say, "I'm sorry, I'll talk quietly," and then talk in a quiet voice.  
(d) Say, "I'm sorry," and stop talking.  
(e) Say, "All right" and continue to talk loudly.
14. You are waiting in line and someone steps in front of you. You would usually:
- (a) Make quiet comments such as, "Some people have a lot of nerve," without actually saying anything directly to the person.  
(b) Say, "Get to the end of the line!"  
(c) Say nothing to the person.  
(d) Say in a loud voice, "Get out of this line, you creep!"  
(e) Say, "I was here first; please go to the end of the line."
15. Someone does something to you that you don't like and it makes you angry. You would usually:

- (a) Shout, "You're a creep, I hate you!"
  - (b) Say, "I'M angry, I don't like what you did."
  - (c) Act hurt about it but not say anything to the person.
  - (d) Say, "I'm mad. I don't like you!"
  - (e) Ignore it and not say anything to the person.
16. Someone has something that you want to use. You would usually:
- (a) Tell the person to give it to you.
  - (b) Not ask to use it.
  - (c) Take it from the person.
  - (d) Tell the person you would like to use it and then ask to use it.
  - (e) Make a comment about it but not ask to use it.
17. Someone asks if they can borrow something that belongs to you, but it is new and you don't want to let the person use it. You would usually:
- (a) Say, "No, I just got it and I don't want to lend it out; maybe some other time."
  - (b) Say, "I really don't want to, but you can use it."
  - (c) Say, "No, go get your own!"
  - (d) Give it to the person even though you don't want to.
  - (e) Say, "You're crazy!"
18. Some people are talking about a hobby you really like, and you want to join in and say something. You would usually:
- (a) Not say anything.
  - (b) Interrupt and immediately start telling about how good you are at this hobby.
  - (c) Move closer to the group and enter into the conversation when you have a chance.
  - (d) Move closer and wait for the people to notice you.
  - (e) Interrupt and immediately start talking about how much you like the hobby.
19. You are working on a hobby and someone asks, "What are you doing?" You would usually:
- (a) Say, "Oh, just something." or, "Oh nothing."
  - (b) Say, "Don't bother me. Can't you see I'm working?"
  - (c) Keep on working and say nothing.
  - (d) Say, "It's none of your business!"

- (e) Stop working and explain what you were doing.
20. You see someone trip and fall down. You would usually:
- (a) laugh and say, "Why don't you watch where you are going?"
  - (b) Say, "Are you all right? Is there anything I can do?"
  - (c) Ask, "What happened?"
  - (d) Say, "That's the breaks."
  - (e) Do nothing and ignore it.
21. You bump your head on a shelf and it hurts. Someone says, "Are you all right?" You would usually:
- (a) Say, "I'm fine, leave me alone!"
  - (b) Say nothing and ignore the person.
  - (c) Say, "Why don't you mind your own business?"
  - (d) Say, "No, I hurt my head, thanks for asking."
  - (e) Say, "It's nothing, I'm OK."
22. You make a mistake and someone else is blamed for it. You would usually:
- (a) Say nothing.
  - (b) Say, "It's their mistake!"
  - (c) Say, "I made the mistake."
  - (d) Say, "I don't think that person did it."
  - (e) Say, "That's their tough luck!"
23. You feel insulted by something someone said to you. You would usually:
- (a) Walk away from the person without saying that you were upset.
  - (b) Tell the person not to do it again.
  - (c) Say nothing to the person, although you feel insulted.
  - (d) Insult the person back and call him or her a name.
  - (e) Tell the person you don't like what was said and tell the person not to do it again.
24. Someone often interrupts you when you're speaking. You would usually:
- (a) Say, "Excuse me, I would like to finish what I was saying."
  - (b) Say, "This isn't fair; don't I get to talk?"

- (c) Interrupt the other person by starting to talk again.
  - (d) Say nothing and let the other person continue to talk.
  - (e) Say, "Shut up, I was talking!"
25. Someone asks you to do something which would keep you from doing what you really want to do. You would usually:
- (a) Say "I did have other plans, but I'll do what you want."
  - (b) Say "No way! Find someone else."
  - (c) Say "OK, I'll do what you want."
  - (d) Say "Forget it, shove off!"
  - (e) Say "I've already made other plans, maybe next time."
26. You see someone you would like to meet. You would usually:
- (a) Yell at the person and tell them to come over to you.
  - (b) Walk over to the person, introduce yourself, and start talking.
  - (c) Walk over near the person and wait for him or her to talk to you.
  - (d) Walk over to the person and start talking about great things you have done.
  - (e) Not say anything to the person.
27. Someone you have not met before stops and says "hello" to you. You would usually:
- (a) Say "What do you want?"
  - (b) Not say anything.
  - (c) Say "Don't bother me. Get lost!"
  - (d) Say "Hello," introduce yourself, and ask who they are.
  - (e) Nod your head, say "hi," and walk away.

## ANSWER SHEET

PARTICIPANT NUMBER \_\_\_\_\_ DATE \_\_\_\_\_ SCORE \_\_\_\_\_

CIRCLE THE LETTER THAT REPRESENTS WHAT YOU WOULD USUALLY DO.

1. a, b, c, d, e
2. a, b, c, d, e
3. a, b, c, d, e
4. a, b, c, d, e
5. a, b, c, d, e
6. a, b, c, d, e
7. a, b, c, d, e
8. a, b, c, d, e
9. a, b, c, d, e
10. a, b, c, d, e
11. a, b, c, d, e
12. a, b, c, d, e
13. a, b, c, d, e
14. a, b, c, d, e
15. a, b, c, d, e
16. a, b, c, d, e
17. a, b, c, d, e
18. a, b, c, d, e
19. a, b, c, d, e
20. a, b, c, d, e
21. a, b, c, d, e
22. a, b, c, d, e
23. a, b, c, d, e
24. a, b, c, d, e
25. a, b, c, d, e
26. a, b, c, d, e
27. a, b, c, d, e

COMMENTS:



CABS SCORING KEY

PARTICIPANT	NUMBER	DATE	SCORE	COMMENTS				
	A	B	C	D	E			
1.	-2	2	0	-1	1			
2.	-1	1	-2	2	0			
3.	2	0	-2	1	-1			
4.	1	-2	2	0	-1			
5.	0	-1	1	-2	2			
6.	-2	2	0	-1	1			
7.	0	-1	1	-2	2			
8.	-2	2	0	-1	1			
9.	2	0	-1	1	-2			
10.	1	-2	2	0	-1			
11.	1	-2	2	0	-1			
12.	0	-1	1	-2	2			
13.	-2	2	0	-1	1			
14.	-1	1	-2	2	0			
15.	2	0	-1	1	-2			
16.	1	-2	2	0	-1			
17.	0	-1	1	-2	2			
18.	-2	2	0	-1	1			
19.	-1	1	-2	2	0			
20.	2	0	-1	1	-2			
21.	1	-2	2	0	-1			
22.	-2	2	0	-1	1			
23.	-2	1	-1	2	0			
24.	0	-1	1	-2	2			
25.	-1	1	-2	2	0			
26.	2	0	-1	1	-2			
27.	1	-2	2	0	-1			

## SCORING PROCESS

1. Using the scoring key, score each response on the answer sheet.
2. Note that a high score represents unassertiveness, as each response is scored -2 for a very passive response, -1 for a partial passive response, 0 for an assertive response, 1 for a partially aggressive response, or 2 for a very aggressive response. Therefore a negative score would mean a passive response and a positive score would denote an aggressive response.

APPENDIX B

LETTER TO HOME SCHOOL PARENTS

Date \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_, Florida \_\_\_\_\_

Dear \_\_\_\_\_:

I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Counselor Education and am currently conducting research for my degree from the University of Florida in Gainesville. My study is entitled "A comparison of social adjustment between home and public schooled students." Based upon my research, I hope to address the questions raised about the impact of home schooling on a child's social adjustment.

To collect data for this study, I need to compare the social cognition, self-concept, and social behavior of at least 70 home school children from the 8 to 10 year age group to that of an equal number of children in traditional education programs. With the exception of a brief period of group observation, all assessments can be accomplished via the mail at no cost to you. Except for general demographic information (age, sex, family size, etc.), the identity of the participants will be kept confidential.

Your family was identified as a home school by \_\_\_\_\_. If you would be willing to include your child-(ren) in this important research concerning home schools, please complete the enclosed demographic questionnaire sign the letter of informed consent and return them to me at: 3900 Lake Center Drive, Suite 5; Mount Dora, Florida 32757.

I will share all research results with anyone who is interested. I am also willing to meet with you or answer any questions you may have concerning this proposed research. I may be contacted at (904) 383-2194.

Sincerely,

Larry E. Shyers

APPENDIX C

LETTER TO PUBLIC SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT

Date \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
Superintendent  
\_\_\_\_\_  
County Schools  
\_\_\_\_\_, Florida \_\_\_\_\_

Dear \_\_\_\_\_:

I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Counselor Education and am currently conducting research for my degree from the University of Florida in Gainesville. My study is entitled "A comparison of social adjustment between home and public schooled students." Based upon my research, I hope to address school counselors, administrators, and parents on the impact of home schooling on a child's social adjustment.

To collect data for this study, I need to compare the social cognition, self-concept, and social behavior of 70 home school children from the 8 to 10 year age group to that of an equal number of children in public education programs. With the exception of a brief period of observation, all assessments can be accomplished via the mail at no cost to the participants. Except for general demographic information (age, sex, family size, etc.), the identity of the participants will be kept confidential.

I would like your cooperation in identifying children in the 8 to 10 year age group. The parents of these children will be contacted by mail to gain their cooperation in this study. The final research sample will be selected after parents return an informed letter of consent and a brief demographic questionnaire.

I will share all research results with anyone who is interested. I am also willing to meet with you or answer any questions you or parents may have concerning this proposed research. I may be contacted at (904) 383-2194 or written to at Post Office Box 1203; Mount Dora, Florida 32757.

Sincerely,

Larry E. Shyers

APPENDIX D

LETTER TO TRADITIONAL SCHOOL PARENTS

Date \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_, Florida \_\_\_\_\_

Dear \_\_\_\_\_:

I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Counselor Education and am currently conducting research for my degree from the University of Florida in Gainesville. My study is entitled "A comparison of social adjustment between home and public schooled students." Based upon my research, I hope to address the questions raised about the impact of home schooling on a child's social adjustment.

To collect data for this study, I need to compare the social cognition, self-concept, and social behavior of at least 70 children from traditional school programs to that of an equal number of children from home schools. With the exception of a brief period of group observation, all assessments can be accomplished via the mail at no cost to you. Except for general demographic information (age, sex, family size, etc.), the identity of the participants will be kept confidential.

Your child was identified as a possible participant by \_\_\_\_\_. Your cooperation would be greatly appreciated. Your participation or non-participation will not affect your child's grades in any way.

If you would be willing to include your child(ren) in this important research, please complete the enclosed demographic questionnaire sign the letter of informed consent and return them to me at: 3900 Lake Center Drive, Suite 5; Mount Dora, Florida 32757.

I will share all research results with anyone who is interested. I am also willing to meet with you or answer any questions you may have concerning this proposed research. I may be contacted at (904) 383-2194.

Sincerely,

Larry E. Shyers



APPENDIX E  
LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT

THE LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT WAS PRINTED ON BOTH SIDES OF ONE SHEET OF PAPER.

Respondent's Name \_\_\_\_\_  
Research Title: Comparison of Social Adjustment  
Between Home and Public Schooled  
Students

Social adjustment among children is an extremely important issue. For the last 70 years, it has been believed and accepted by the American public that regular interaction between peers in traditional school programs was the best source of social instruction. In ever increasing numbers parents are becoming dissatisfied with the social situations often found in formal educational institutions. For these parents, the only option is to educate their children at home.

The question being addressed by this research is: How does the social adjustment of home schooled 8 to 10 year old children compare with that of their agemates in traditional schools?

Social adjustment for this study has been defined as the combination of social cognition (an awareness of appropriate social responses) and social ability (the putting into practice of appropriate social responses). For this study social cognition will be measured through your child's (children's) responses to two brief tests. Social ability will be assessed by trained observers viewing a 1 hour video of your child (children) interacting with other children.

In order to complete this study, I will mail copies of all assessment materials to you. I will also arrange to videotape your child (children) along with other participants of this study at a time and location which is as convenient as possible. Your child(ren) will be identified on the tape and on all assessments by a research number. The video tapes will be viewed only by trained observers and kept on file at my office. No other person will be given access to the test instruments or video tapes.

You may observe all procedures and refuse for your child to participate in the research at any time. Your participation is voluntary and without payment. I will be available to answer any questions you have regarding

the research. Your child's (children's) and your own responses will be confidential and will remain anonymous. Demographic data will contain age, sex, family size, schooling choice, social interactions, and economic status.

I have read and I understand the procedures described above. I agree to participate in this study, and I have received a copy of this description. I maintain the right to withdraw this consent at any time.

Signed:

\_\_\_\_\_

Child (children) participant

\_\_\_\_\_

Your signature and relationship  
to participant(s)

\_\_\_\_\_

Date

\_\_\_\_\_

Witness

\_\_\_\_\_

Date

\_\_\_\_\_

Researcher's Name

\_\_\_\_\_

Date

APPENDIX F  
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SHEET

Please answer each of the questions below. As explained in the "Informed Letter of Consent," all names and addresses will be kept confidential. The information requested below is necessary to assist the researcher block subjects during the project and describe the subjects used.

If more than one child is to participate, please complete a separate questionnaire for each.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated.

1. Child's Name \_\_\_\_\_
2. Child's Address \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Parents' names \_\_\_\_\_
4. Parents' home telephone number \_\_\_\_\_
5. Parent's work telephone number \_\_\_\_\_

ALL INFORMATION ABOVE WILL BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL

.....  
[office use only: research number \_\_\_\_\_]

THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION IS TO BE USED IN DESCRIBING  
THE RESEARCH SAMPLE AND BLOCKING THE PARTICIPANTS

6. Child's Residence is (CHECK ONE):  
\_\_\_\_ RURAL      \_\_\_\_ URBAN      \_\_\_\_ SUBURBAN
7. Child's Age \_\_\_\_ Date of Birth \_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_
8. Child's Sex \_\_\_\_
9. Child's Current School Environment (CHECK ONE):  
\_\_\_\_ HOME SCHOOL  
\_\_\_\_ TRADITIONAL SCHOOL
10. Has your child EVER been enrolled in another school environment? YES \_\_\_\_ NO \_\_\_\_  
If so what type? \_\_\_\_\_  
If so how long? \_\_\_\_\_ yrs.

11. Number of consecutive years child has been in current school environment \_\_\_\_\_
12. If your child is in public school:
- 12-1. What grade is he or she in? \_\_\_\_\_
- 12-2. How many students are in his or her class?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 12-3. How many students in last year's class? \_\_\_\_\_
- 12-4. Do you have any other school aged children who are not attending public school?  
YES \_\_\_ NO \_\_\_
- If so, please answer the following:
- 12A-1. how many children attend other schools?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 12A-2. what other type(s) of school are they attending? \_\_\_\_\_
- 12A-3. what grade(s)? \_\_\_\_\_
- 12A-4. have they ever been in public school?  
YES \_\_\_ NO \_\_\_
- 12B. If your child is in a home school:
- 12B-1. Why did you choose home schooling? \_\_\_\_\_
- 
- 12B-2. How many other children are under your home school? \_\_\_\_\_
- 12B-3. Do you have any other children of school age who are not in the home school? YES \_\_\_ NO \_\_\_
- If so, please answer the following:
- 12C-1. how many children attend other schools?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 12C-2. what type of school are they attending?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 12C-3. what grade(s)? \_\_\_\_\_
- 12C-4. have they ever been in the home school?  
YES \_\_\_ NO \_\_\_
13. Number of older siblings in the home \_\_\_\_\_
14. Number of younger siblings in the home \_\_\_\_\_

15. Approximate number of children with whom your child plays, outside of the schooling experience and on a weekly basis (CHECK ONE):  
\_\_\_ 0-5; \_\_\_ 6-10; \_\_\_ 11-15; \_\_\_ 16 or more
16. Number and frequency of community activities, check the activity and check the frequency of involvement:
- 16-1. \_\_\_ Church: \_\_\_ daily, \_\_\_ weekly, \_\_\_ monthly  
16-2. \_\_\_ YMCA: \_\_\_ daily, \_\_\_ weekly, \_\_\_ monthly  
16-3. \_\_\_ Scouting: \_\_\_ daily, \_\_\_ weekly, \_\_\_ monthly  
16-4. \_\_\_ 4-H: \_\_\_ daily, \_\_\_ weekly, \_\_\_ monthly  
16-5. \_\_\_ FFA: \_\_\_ daily, \_\_\_ weekly, \_\_\_ monthly  
16-6. \_\_\_ Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_ daily, \_\_\_ weekly, \_\_\_ monthly
17. Approximate household annual income \_\_\_\_\_

APPENDIX G  
LETTER OF INVITATION



Date \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_, Florida \_\_\_\_\_

Dear \_\_\_\_\_:

Thank you for your willingness to include your child(ren) in the research project entitled "A comparison of social adjustment between home and public schooled students."

In order to maintain confidentiality, your child(ren) has (have) been assigned the number \_\_\_\_\_. This number will be used on all assessment instruments and on all records. When corresponding with me, please be sure to include this number for clarity of communication.

In a few days I will be calling to discuss the arrangements that have been made for a group observation. Your child(ren) will be video taped along with other children of his (her) same age and schooling experience involved in 20 minutes of free play and 20 minutes of an organized group activity. I have enclosed a copy of the proposed group activity for your information. At that time I will also have your child(ren) complete the two paper and pencil assessments.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated. If you should have any questions, you may reach me at: 383-2194 during the day Monday through Friday or 383-6880 in the evening.

Sincerely,

Larry E. Shyers

APPENDIX H  
STEP-BY-STEP INSTRUCTIONS

PARENT INSTRUCTIONS

PLEASE FOLLOW CAREFULLY

IF YOU HAVE QUESTIONS, PLEASE CALL THE RESEARCHER

This packet of materials should include:

- 1 instruction sheet
- 1 copy of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale
- 1 copy of the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale
- 1 answer sheet for the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale
- 1 postage paid return envelope

STEP 1:

Check the contents of the package carefully. Each of the items listed above should be found. If any items are missing, call the research number immediately and replacements will be sent by express mail.

STEP 2:

Make sure all items include your child's individual research number. This number will identify your child in all phases of this research. If it is missing or in error, please call the researcher.

Your child's number is \_\_\_\_\_.

STEP 3:

Choose a quiet location in your home for your child to complete the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and Children's Assertive Behavior Scale. They should be well rested and told of the importance of this study. Explain to them that there are no right or wrong answers. Tell them that we are interested in his or her own feelings on both of these scales. We are not looking for "right" or "wrong" responses.

STEP 4:

Have your child complete the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale by circling his or her YES or NO response on each of the 80 items. Do NOT suggest

responses or prompt them for answers. PLEASE allow your child all the time they need to respond. If they have questions concerning words or meanings of words, you may assist them.

**STEP 5:**

Have your child complete the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale using the enclosed answer sheet. They are to circle ONLY one letter for each situation. Again, there are no "Right" or "Wrong" answers. Make sure your child responds to all 27 situations. Do NOT prompt or suggest answers. If your child has a question regarding words or meanings of words, you may assist them.

**STEP 6:**

Place all completed materials (Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, Children's Assertive Behavior Scale and its answer sheet) in the stamped and addressed return envelope.

**STEP 7:**

Mail the return envelope as soon as all materials have been completed.

All materials must be returned no later than

---

Thank you for your cooperation.

APPENDIX I  
GROUP INTERACTION ACTIVITY

**Purpose:** The purpose of this activity is to provide for the maximum opportunity for social interaction within a brief period of time.

**Materials needed:**

2 medium sized Walt Disney character puzzles for every three children in the large group.

Burger King or McDonald food coupons for first prize.

Small bags of M&M candies for second prize.

Stickers for third prize.

**Time Needed:** Approximately 30 minutes.

**Instructions:**

1. The larger group of 6 to 10 will be seated in a semi-circle where each child can see each other and the group leader.

2. Group leader holds 3 large bags containing 2 empty puzzle boards and all the pieces.

3. The group leader announces that everyone can participate, or they can simply observe.

4. The group leader announces that the children are going to work as teams of 3 or 4 to put together 2 puzzles. (Puzzles have not yet been shown to the group)

5. The group leader announces that the first team to put their puzzles together and return to their seats will win the food coupons. (Group leader should hold up the coupons for all to see.)

6. The group leader announces that the second team to complete their puzzles and return to their seats will win the bags of M&M's. (Group leader should hold up the M&M's.)

7. The group leader announces that the final team to complete their puzzles and return to their seats will also win something. (Group leader should hold up the stickers.)
8. The group leader tells the group to divide themselves into teams of no more than 4 people.
9. The group leader should allow the children to decide on their own teams, taking as long as they need. The leader should intervene only if the children can not choose at all, and then only to suggest captains.
10. Once the teams have been chosen. The puzzle bags are opened in three different areas of the room equal distance from the semi-circle. Each team is then assigned one of the three locations.
11. The children are told to go to their assigned team location and wait for the signal to begin the activity.
12. Once the teams are in place, the group leader shouts "go."
13. The activity continues until all teams have returned to their seats.
14. The prizes are awarded to the appropriate team.
15. A brief discussion is conducted allowing all group members the opportunity to express their feelings.
16. The group leader closes the activity by congratulating each child on his or her cooperation.

APPENDIX J

LETTER TO CHURCHES AND PARENT-TEACHER GROUPS



Date \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_, Florida \_\_\_\_\_

Dear \_\_\_\_\_:

I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Counselor Education and am currently conducting research for my degree from the University of Florida in Gainesville. My study is entitled "A comparison of social adjustment between home and public schooled students." Based upon my research, I hope to address the questions raised about the impact of home schooling on a child's social adjustment.

To collect data for this study, I need to compare the social cognition, self-concept, and social behavior of at least 70 children from traditional school programs to that of an equal number of children from home schools. With the exception of a brief period of group observation, all assessments can be accomplished via the mail at no cost to the parent(s). Except for general demographic information (age, sex, family size, etc.), the identity of the participants will be kept confidential.

In order to identify this population, I respectfully request your cooperation. Would you please announce this research and make my address and telephone number available at your next meeting. I would also welcome the opportunity to provide a program to your organization regarding this important project. If you are interested or should have further questions, please contact me at: 3900 Lake Center Drive, Suite 5; Mount Dora, Florida 32757.

I will share all research results with anyone who is interested. I may also be contacted at (904) 383-2194.

Sincerely,

Larry E. Shyers

APPENDIX K

DEMOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION OF RESPONDENT HOME SCHOOL  
POPULATION

## Appendix K

Demographic Description of Respondent Home School  
Population

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u> <sup>b</sup>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>c</sup>
Child's Residence is:			
Rural	49	20	20
Urban	16	9	29
Suburban	126	71	100
Child's Age:			
5	4	2.2	2.2
6	14	7.9	10.1
7	13	7.3	17.4
8	49	27.5	44.9
9	30	16.9	61.8
10	35	19.6	81.4
11	7	3.9	85.3
12	13	6.7	92.0
13	8	4.5	96.5
14	3	1.6	98.1
15	2	1.1	99.2
Child's Sex:			
Male	87	48.8	48.8
Female	91	51.1	100.0

## Appendix K--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u> <sup>b</sup>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>c</sup>
Ever been enrolled in another school environment:d			
Yes	58	32.5	32.5
No	120	67.4	99.9
Number of Years in Current School Environment:			
One	26	14.6	14.6
Two	40	22.4	37.0
Three	37	20.7	57.7
Four	34	19.1	76.8
Five	32	17.9	94.7
Six	8	4.4	99.1
Seven	0	0.0	99.1
Eight	1	.5	99.6
Number of other children in the Home School:			
None	48	26.9	26.9
One	80	44.9	71.8
Two	37	20.7	92.5
Three	9	5.1	97.6
Four	4	2.2	99.8

Appendix K--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	$\frac{n^b}{n}$	Cell %	Cum % <sup>c</sup>
Other children not in the Home School:e			
Yes	8	4.5	4.5
No	170	95.5	100.0
Number of Older Siblings:			
None	73	41.0	41.0
One	64	35.9	76.9
Two	33	18.5	95.4
Three	7	3.9	99.3
Four	0	0.0	99.3
Five	1	0.5	99.5
Number of Younger Siblings:			
None	71	39.8	39.8
One	50	28.1	67.9
Two	37	20.7	88.6
Three	15	8.4	97.0
Four	3	1.6	98.6
Five	2	1.1	99.7

Appendix K--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u> <sup>b</sup>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>c</sup>
<b>Approximate Number of Children Subject Plays with Outside of The Schooling Experience:</b>			
Zero to Five	41	23.0	23.0
Six to Ten	88	49.4	72.4
Eleven to Fifteen	36	20.2	92.6
Sixteen or More	13	7.3	99.9
<b>Community Activities:</b>			
<b>Church</b>			
None	3	1.6	1.6
Daily	3	1.6	3.2
Weekly	166	93.3	96.5
Monthly	6	3.3	99.8
<b>YMCA</b>			
None	160	89.8	89.8
Daily	2	1.1	90.9
Weekly	11	6.1	97.0
Monthly	5	2.8	99.8
<b>Scouting</b>			
None	155	87.0	87.0
Daily	0	0.0	87.0
Weekly	23	12.9	99.9
Monthly	0	0.0	99.9

Appendix K--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u> <sup>b</sup>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>c</sup>
Community Activities (Cont.):			
4-H			
None	165	92.7	92.7
Daily	0	0.0	92.7
Weekly	5	2.8	95.5
Monthly	8	4.5	100.0
PFA			
None	173	97.2	97.2
Daily	1	0.5	97.5
Weekly	3	1.6	99.3
Monthly	1	0.5	99.8
Other <sup>f</sup>			
None	61	34.2	34.2
Daily	11	6.1	40.3
Weekly	88	49.4	89.7
Monthly	18	10.1	99.8
Approximate Household Annual Income:			
Did not Report	3	1.6	1.6
15,000-20,000	13	7.3	8.9
21,000-25,000	19	10.7	19.6
26,000-30,000	51	28.7	48.3

## Appendix K--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u> <sup>b</sup>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>c</sup>
Approximate Household Annual Income (Cont.):			
31,000-35,000	43	24.2	72.5
36,000-40,000	14	7.9	80.4
41,000-45,000	7	3.9	84.3
46,000-50,000	10	5.6	89.9
51,000 and Above	18	10.1	100.0

<sup>a</sup> The first five questions pertained to name, address, parents' names, and telephone numbers.

<sup>b</sup> Total number of respondents equaled 178.

<sup>c</sup> May not add up to 100% due to rounding.

<sup>d</sup> A majority (48) of the respondents who answered yes to this question stated that their children had been enrolled in a private day care or pre-school. The other 10 had started home schooling some time after the first year of traditional school.

<sup>e</sup> The respondents who answered yes to this question had older children who had returned to traditional schools in order to participate in extracurricular activities.

<sup>f</sup> Other activities reported by parents were ballet, gymnastics, youth group activities associated with church, and home school support group meetings.



APPENDIX L

DEMOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION OF RESPONDENT TRADITIONALLY  
SCHOOLED POPULATION

## Appendix L

Demographic Description of Respondent Traditionally  
Schooled Population

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u> <sup>b</sup>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>c</sup>
Child's Residence is:			
Rural	49	20	20
Urban	16	9	29
Suburban	126	71	100
Child's Age:			
5	4	2.2	2.2
6	14	7.9	10.1
7	13	7.3	17.4
8	50	28.1	45.5
9	32	17.9	63.4
10	35	19.6	83.0
11	7	3.9	86.9
12	13	6.7	93.6
13	8	4.5	98.1
14	2	1.1	99.2

Appendix L--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	$\frac{n}{n}$ <sup>b</sup>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>c</sup>
<b>Child's Sex:</b>			
Male	87	48.8	48.8
Female	91	51.1	100.0
<b>Ever been enrolled in another school environment:<sup>d</sup></b>			
Yes	58	32.5	32.5
No	120	67.4	99.9
<b>Number of Years in Current School Environment:</b>			
One	3	1.7	1.7
Two	12	6.7	8.4
Three	16	8.9	17.3
Four	52	29.2	46.5
Five	32	17.9	64.4
Six	35	19.6	84.0
Seven	5	2.8	86.8
Eight	11	6.2	93.0
Nine	9	5.0	98.0
Ten	3	1.6	99.6

Appendix L--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u> <sup>b</sup>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>c</sup>
Current grade in school:			
K	4	2.2	2.2
First	14	7.9	10.1
Second	13	7.3	17.4
Third	50	28.1	45.5
Fourth	32	17.9	63.4
Fifth	35	19.6	83.0
Sixth	7	3.9	86.9
Seventh	13	6.7	93.6
Eighth	8	4.5	98.1
Ninth	2	1.1	99.2
Number of children in current class:			
10 - 15	20	11.2	11.2
16 - 20	35	19.6	30.8
21 - 25	79	44.3	75.1
26 - 30	44	24.7	99.8

## Appendix L--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u> <sup>b</sup>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>c</sup>
Number of children in last years class:			
10 - 15	15	8.4	8.4
16 - 20	38	21.3	29.7
21 - 25	81	45.5	75.2
26 - 30	44	24.7	99.9
Other school aged children not in a traditional school:e			
Yes	6	3.4	3.4
No	172	96.6	100.0
Number of Older Siblings:			
None	73	41.0	41.0
One	64	35.9	76.9
Two	33	18.5	95.4
Three	7	3.9	99.3
Four	0	0.0	99.3
Five	1	0.5	99.5

Appendix L--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u> <sup>b</sup>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>c</sup>
<b>Number of Younger Siblings:</b>			
None	71	39.8	39.8
One	50	28.1	67.9
Two	37	20.7	88.6
Three	15	8.4	97.0
Four	3	1.6	98.6
Five	2	1.1	99.7
<b>Approximate Number of Children Subject Plays with Outside of The Schooling Experience:</b>			
Zero to Five	40	22.5	22.5
Six to Ten	90	50.5	73.0
Eleven to Fifteen	37	20.7	93.7
Sixteen or More	11	6.1	99.8
<b>Community Activities:</b>			
Church			
None	22	12.4	12.4
Daily	1	.6	13.0
Weekly	142	79.7	92.7
Monthly	13	7.3	100.0

## Appendix L--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u> <sup>b</sup>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>c</sup>
Community Activities (Cont.):			
YMCA			
None	162	91.0	91.0
Daily	0	0.0	91.0
Weekly	16	8.9	99.9
Monthly	0	0.0	99.9
Scouting			
None	160	89.0	89.0
Daily	0	0.0	89.0
Weekly	18	10.1	99.1
Monthly	0	0.0	99.1
4-H			
None	171	96.0	96.0
Daily	0	0.0	96.0
Weekly	7	3.9	99.9
Monthly	0	0.0	99.9
FFA			
None	174	97.7	97.7
Daily	2	1.1	98.8
Weekly	2	1.1	99.9
Monthly	0	0.0	99.9

## Appendix L--Continued

Question <sup>a</sup>	<u>n</u> <sup>b</sup>	Cell %	Cum % <sup>c</sup>
Community Activities (Cont.):			
Other <sup>f</sup>			
None	101	56.7	56.7
Daily	0	0.0	56.7
Weekly	12	6.7	63.4
Monthly	65	36.5	99.9
Approximate Household Annual Income:			
15,000-20,000	12	6.7	6.7
21,000-25,000	20	11.2	17.9
26,000-30,000	53	29.7	47.6
31,000-35,000	43	24.2	71.8
36,000-40,000	16	8.9	80.7
41,000-45,000	12	6.7	87.4
46,000-50,000	10	5.6	93.0
51,000 and Above	12	6.7	99.7

<sup>a</sup> The first five questions pertained to name, address, parents' names, and telephone numbers. This confidential information is not reported here.

<sup>b</sup> Total respondent traditionally schooled population equaled 178.

<sup>c</sup> May not add up to 100% due to rounding.



Appendix L--Continued

## Notes (Cont.)

- d The respondents who answered yes to this question stated that their children had been enrolled in a private day care or pre-school.
- e The respondents who answered yes to this question had younger children who were currently enrolled in private preschool programs.
- f Other activities reported by parents were ballet, dance, gymnastics, and youth group activities associated with church.

APPENDIX M

ANALYSIS OF SPLIT-PLOT DESIGN

## Appendix M-1

Analysis of Split-Plot Design for 8-year-olds

Variable	Source	SS	df	F	PR
PHSCS	<u>Between</u>				
	Gender	46.82	1	.35	.5600
	Error	3761.67	28		
	<u>Within</u>				
	School	6.02	1	.26	.6200
	Gender/Sch	464.82	1	19.97	.0001*
CABS	<u>Between</u>				
	Gender	15.00	1	.28	.5986
	Error	1481.33	28		
	<u>Within</u>				
	School	112.07	1	2.55	.1218
	Gender/Sch	3.27	1	.07	.7873
DOF	<u>Between</u>				
	Gender	79.35	1	3.87	.0592
	Error	574.33	28		
	<u>Within</u>				
	School	4284.15	1	192.75	.0001*
	Gender/Sch	104.02	1	4.68	.0392**
Error	622.33	28			

\* p &lt; .016

\*\* p &lt; .05

## Appendix M-2

Analysis of Split-Plot Design for 9-year-olds

Variable	Source	SS	df	F	PR
PHSCS	<u>Between</u>				
	Gender	81.82	1	.74	.3997
	Error	2209.73	20		
	<u>Within</u>				
	School	2.27	1	.17	.6816
	Gender/Sch Error	1.45 262.27	1 20	.11	.7426
CABS	<u>Between</u>				
	Gender	12.02	1	.31	.5811
	Error	764.36	20		
	<u>Within</u>				
	School	46.02	1	1.49	.2361
	Gender/Sch Error	156.57 616.91	1 20	5.08	.0356**
DOF	<u>Between</u>				
	Gender	59.11	1	2.77	.1118
	Error	427.18	20		
	<u>Within</u>				
	School	1693.84	1	147.23	.0001*
	Gender/Sch Error	34.57 230.09	1 20	3.00	.0984

\*  
p < .016\*\*  
p < .05

## Appendix M-3

Analysis of Split-Plot Design for 10-year-olds

Variable	Source	SS	df	F	PR
PHSCS	<u>Between</u>				
	Gender	205.44	1	1.40	.2537
	Error	2344.44	16		
	<u>Within</u>				
	School	5.44	1	.21	.6510
	Gender/Sch	1.78	1	.07	.7956
CABS	<u>Between</u>				
	Gender	78.03	1	1.67	.2146
	Error	747.44	16		
	<u>Within</u>				
	School	.69	1	.05	.8243
	Gender/Sch	4.69	1	.34	.5655
DOF	<u>Between</u>				
	Gender	164.67	1	6.91	.0183**
	Error	381.56	16		
	<u>Within</u>				
	School	2100.69	1	53.03	.0001*
	Gender/Sch	140.02	1	3.54	.0784
	Error	633.78	16		

\* p &lt; .016

\*\* p &lt; .05

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## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Larry E. Shyers was born on August 16, 1948, in Middletown, Ohio. He is the younger of two sons born to Ed and Ruth Shyers.

In 1966 he graduated from Middletown High School in Middletown, Ohio. He attended David Lipscomb College in Nashville, Tennessee, where he met and eventually married Linda Faye Shearon. In 1970 he graduated from David Lipscomb College with a degree in Bible and began teaching and preaching throughout Central Florida. In 1973 he completed a Master of Arts in Teaching degree at Stetson University in DeLand, Florida, with a major in social studies. In 1981 he completed a Master of Education degree in guidance and counseling at the University of Central Florida and received his Florida license as a Mental Health Counselor. It was also in 1981 that he enrolled at the University of Florida to study toward the doctoral degree in agency, correctional, and developmental counseling.

Larry has been active in a variety of professional organizations including Chi Sigma Iota, American Association for Counseling and Development, American Mental Health Counselors Association, Florida

Association for Counseling and Development, and the Florida Mental Health Counselors Association. He has served as the President of the Florida Mental Health Counselors Association and Government Relations Committee cochairman of the American Mental Health Counselors Association. He has also served on the Government Relations Committee of the American Association for Counseling and Development. He has made numerous professional presentations at local, state, and national levels.

Larry has been instrumental in efforts to license professional counselors in the state of Florida. In 1987 he was appointed to the Florida Board of Clinical Social Work, Marriage and Family Therapy, and Mental Health Counseling representing Licensed Mental Health Counselors. He has served as Chairman of that Board and as its legislative liaison. Because of his experience in professional development, Larry has been a frequent presenter at state and national workshops.

Larry's professional interests include counseling, professional identity issues, and teaching. His hobbies include golf, target shooting, and photography.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



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I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



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