

SELF-ESTEEM OF COLOURED AND  
WHITE SCHOLARS AND STUDENTS  
IN SOUTH AFRICA

Allan Momberg

A thesis, submitted in the Department of Psychology,  
Rhodes University, Grahamstown, in fulfillment of  
the requirements for the degree Master of Arts.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank Dr. A. van der Merwe for generous help in the translation of the questionnaire, as well as the four school-teachers whose comments and criticisms with regard to language comprehension proved to be both relevant and essential. I wish also to thank J. Meyer, C. Groenewald, and J. Louw for obtaining the required samples and administering the inventories at the Universities of Stellenbosch and the Western Cape. Finally, I express my gratitude to my promotor, H.W. Page, whose critical acumen greatly facilitated both the planning and the write-up of this project.

This study was made possible through financial aid from the Human Sciences Research Council and the South African Institute of Race Relations.

## CONTENTS

Summary .....	i
1. Introduction to the Concept of Self-Esteem .....	1
2. The Self-Esteem of the American Negroes in Relation to that of the South African Coloured People .....	35
3. The Measurement of Self-Esteem .....	45
3.1 Problems Inherent in the Measurement of Phenomenological Self-Constructs .....	45
3.2 Types of Self-Esteem Measures .....	52
3.2.1 Q-sorts .....	54
3.2.2 Semantic Differentials .....	57
3.2.3 Likert Scales .....	58
3.2.4 Check Lists .....	59
3.3 The Measure Used .....	59
4. Design of the Present Study .....	63
4.1 The Sample Groups .....	63
4.2 Problems Inherent in the Cross-Cultural Measurement of Self-Esteem .....	66
4.3 Other Measures .....	69
4.3.1 SES .....	70
4.3.2 LSES .....	72
4.4 Administration of Inventories .....	74

5.	Results and Discussion .....	76
5.1	Correlations : SEI, SES, LSES .....	76
5.2	SEI Data .....	78
5.2.1	General .....	78
5.2.2	Analyses According to Race, Language and Educational Level .....	80
5.2.3	Analyses According to Educational Level Only .....	81
5.2.4	Interaction .....	82
5.2.5	Self-Esteem in Four Areas .....	85
5.2.6	Lie Scores .....	85
5.3	Conclusions .....	86
5.4	Implications Arising .....	91
References	.....	95

## Appendices

### 1. Inventories

#### 1.1 SEI

1.1.1	As Administered to Coloured and Afrikaans Pupils .....	101
1.1.2	As Administered to English Pupils ...	105
1.1.3	As Administered to Coloured and Afrikaans Students .....	108
1.1.4	As Administered to Coloured and English Students .....	111

1.2	SES .....	114
-----	-----------	-----

1.3	LSES .....	116
-----	------------	-----

### 2. SEI data

#### 2.1 Raw Scores

2.1.1	Afrikaans Pupils .....	117
2.1.2	Coloured Pupils .....	118
2.1.3	English Pupils .....	120
2.1.4	Afrikaans Students .....	121

2.1.5	Coloured Students .....	123
2.1.6	English Students .....	124

## 2.2 Summary Statistics

2.2.1	Afrikaans Pupils .....	127
2.2.2	Coloured Pupils .....	128
2.2.3	English Pupils .....	129
2.2.4	Afrikaans Students .....	130
2.2.5	Coloured Students .....	131
2.2.6	English Students .....	132
2.2.7	Total Afrikaans Sample .....	133
2.2.8	Total Coloured Sample .....	134
2.2.9	Total English Sample .....	135

## SUMMARY

A measure of the self-esteem of 426 subjects was obtained by means of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. The sample comprised two Afrikaans, two Coloured and two English groups. Each of the above three groups was made up of pupils and students, (i. e. there were six separate sample groups). The major purpose of this study was to ascertain whether or not the Coloureds could be said to differ meaningfully from their White counterparts with regard to their general level of self-esteem. A secondary objective was to investigate the possibility of the Afrikaans and English groups differing in self-esteem. No significant differences were found to exist between any of the three student sample groups. The ranking of the mean self-esteem scores of these groups was : Afrikaans (highest), Coloured, English (lowest). The only groups that differed significantly from one another at the pupil level were the Afrikaans and the Coloureds. Their ranking was : Afrikaans (highest), English, Coloured (lowest). The prediction arising from the hypothesis of this study was that the Coloureds do not necessarily differ from Whites in their general level of self-esteem. This view is held because factors similar to those which are believed to have facilitated the rise in the self-esteem of the American Negroes are now operating in South Africa. It was concluded that this prediction was upheld.

## 1. INTRODUCTION TO THE CONCEPT OF SELF-ESTEEM

Inquiry into the nature of the 'soul' or the 'self' has its roots in antiquity. Some of the earliest views on this topic, in written form at least, are clearly evident in the work of Homer. However, when an attempt is made to assess how far the various currents and cross-currents of opinion about the self have progressed toward scientific knowledge, it can only be maintained that they have not advanced very far at all - despite the centuries of endeavour in this field. There is, in fact, no more unanimity among present-day thinkers as to the precise nature of the self than there was amongst the Greeks.

In her critical review of the self-concept, which included over 400 authors, Wylie (1961) points out that it is implicitly or explicitly assumed by all theorists that the concept of self is not entirely 'realistic', and that this lack of realism may have psychodynamic significance and important behavioural consequences. She states furthermore that the question concerning how consistently and purely phenomenological any theorist can be has not been squarely faced by any of the system-builders, and there is, as yet, no systematic plan in phenomenological personality theories for establishing fruitful behaviour categories.

Wylie concluded after analysing the various studies in terms of validity and reliability of measuring instruments, and the adequacy of research designs for guarding against artifacts, that there is little merit in this work - in fact, the total of substantive findings is very small relative to the amount of effort expended. This, she considers, is due, in part, to the 'scientific shortcomings' of all personality theories that emphasize constructs concerning the self. She holds that these constructs have been stretched to cover so many inferred cognitive and motivational processes that their utility for analytic and predictive purposes has been greatly diminished. She says that such constructs as self-actualization, self-differentiation, and self-consistency have not led to enlightening research, but self-acceptance or self-esteem, particularly when they refer to specific attributes, seem to have yielded more manageable and fruitful research problems.

While more is understood about self-esteem than other aspects of the self, differences of opinion, particularly with regard to its antecedents, still exist. There is, however, one element which has been consistently stressed by all workers in this field. This is the belief that self-esteem is positively related to personal satisfaction and effective human functioning. The indication is that people with high self-esteem are happier and more effective in meeting environmental demands than are persons with low self-esteem, who tend to withdraw from other people and suffer from consistent feelings of distress.

Some of the earliest writings stressing the importance of self-esteem for effective functioning were the 'Literary Psychologists' of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

For them, 'pride' was synonymous with self-esteem, and was seen to be the 'craving to think well of oneself', particularly in its emulative form ; as well as 'the desire for, and pleasure in, esteem, admiration and applause of others', (Lovejoy, 1921). In this sense it was regarded as the chief motive for human behaviour. It was also seen to be the source for social control, since men can channel each others' behaviour by giving or withholding their approval.

Lovejoy's concern with the history of ideas about 'pride' in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries (Lovejoy, 1921, 1961), led him to sketch a general theory of value which he called 'approbateness' :

1. the wish merely to be an object of others' attention and interest.
2. the desire to be the object of others' sympathy, friendliness, affection and love, which need not necessarily be evaluation, but which may be conditioned by evaluations.
3. the desire that others should evaluate oneself highly (Lovejoy, 1961, p. 85).

Thus, when an individual wants to evaluate himself highly, his desire is called 'self-approbativeness'. This desire for a favourable self-evaluation is one of two desires inherent in the motivation of purposive acts: the desire for the valued end of the act ('terminal value'), and the desire to be something in the act ('adjectival value'). This latter desire is the one involved in self-evaluation. In addition to these, Lovejoy distinguishes a desire for superiority or a feeling of superiority. He called this desire 'emulativeness.' He thought this could be satisfied in most men, since, knowing that though some are better than they, others are worse.

Up to the mid-nineteenth century, ideas about the self and ego were developed almost exclusively on the basis of conscious experience - usually that of the author himself. This method of introspection continued to dominate psychology until the second decade of the twentieth century when the functionalist-behaviourist tradition, generated by Watson (1919), became prominent. The opposition to pure introspection, however, did not begin with Watson and his followers. One early opponent was the philosopher C.S. Pierce.

His view of the roots of self-evaluation is consistent with his rejection of the idea that there exists a special faculty of introspection and his assertion that the only way to answer psychological questions is to study objective behavioural events. He views a young child as automatically

and necessarily valuing his own body because it is instrumental to his experiences and to the changes he can make in his surroundings.

Only what it touches has any actual and present feeling ; only what it faces has any actual colour ; only what is on its tongue has any actual taste ... when he wills to move a table, it is doubtless that he thinks that the table is fit to be moved, but whether he thinks of himself as desiring to move it is an arbitrary and baseless supposition without the former proof of an intuitive self-consciousness. The child ... must soon discover by observation that things which are thus fit to be changed are apt actually to undergo this change, after a contact with that peculiarly important body called Willy or Johnny. This consideration makes this body still more important and central, since it establishes a connection between the fitness of the thing to be changed and a tendency in this body to touch it before it has changed (Pierce, 1868, p.27-28).

Then, as the child grows older, his comparisons of his own acts with those of how others see him, convince him of error and fallibility and these result in self-reproach. The child successively reduces the occasions for self-reproach by preparing his subsequent acts so that they "approximate indefinitely toward the perfection of that fixed character, which would be marked by the entire absence of self-reproach" (Pierce, 1905, p.190), i. e. a child with high self-esteem.

The first psychologist to provide major insights and guidelines for the study of self-esteem, was William James. In addition to the fact that he gave the topic broader coverage than any of his predecessors,<sup>1</sup> his writing is a transition-point between older and newer ways of thinking about it. He was militantly objective in his treatment of the problem and strongly criticized earlier notions of it. "Altogether," wrote James, "the Soul is an outbirth of that sort of philosophizing whose great maxim, according to Dr. Hodgson, is 'Whatever you are totally ignorant of, assert to be the explanation of everything else'".

James identified two fundamentally different approaches - one in which the self is regarded as knower, or has an executive function, and the other in which it is regarded as an object of what is known. He gave no value to the self as knower for understanding behaviour, and felt that it should be left to philosophers. The self as an object of knowledge he identified as consisting of whatever the individual views as belonging to himself. This includes a material self, a social self, and a spiritual self. The material self being an extended self which contains, in addition to the individual's own body, his family and possessions. The social self includes the views others hold of the individual, and the spiritual self encompasses the individual's emotions and desires.

<sup>1</sup>Chapter X, 'The consciousness of self', is one of the longest chapters in his two-volume work, Principles of Psychology, 1890.

James did not attempt to say whether the material selves or the social selves were more important, merely that both of them were between the bodily self and the spiritual self. A person has as many different social selves as there are groups about whose opinions he cares, some of which conflict with one another.

For James, the determinant of the level of a person's self-esteem is the position he holds in the world, contingent on his success or failure in terms of his aspirations and values. Each individual's conception or evaluation of his extended self (i. e. social, spiritual, and material selves), is thus an important barometer of self-esteem.

Our self-feeling in this world depends entirely on what we back ourselves to be and do. It is determined by the ratio of our actualities to our supposed potentialities ; a fraction of which our pretensions are the denominator, and the numerator our success ; thus

$$\text{self-esteem} = \frac{\text{success}}{\text{pretensions}}$$

(James, 1890, p. 310-312).

James highlighted the importance of each individual's values in determining his self-evaluation. He stated that while all selves may be logically possible, it is physically impossible to be and do everything, so one must choose a 'self' on which to

stake his salvation ... I, who for the time have staked my all on being a psychologist, am mortified if others know more psychology than I. But I am contented to wallow in the grossest ignorance of Greek. My deficiencies there give me no sense of personal humiliation at all. Had I 'pretensions' to be a linguist, it would have been just the reverse ... With no attempt there can be no failure ; with no failure, no humiliation (James, 1890, p.310-312).

While James believed that achievement is measured against aspiration with valued areas assuming particular significance, he also believed that men achieve a sense of general worth by employing communal standards of success or status. "We may weigh our own Me in the balance of praise and blame as easily as we weigh other people - though with difficulty quite as fairly" (James, 1890, p. 327-328). He saw no reason why man should not pass judgement on himself as objectively and as well as on anybody else. No matter how he feels about himself, whether he is unduly elated or depressed, man may still judge his own worth by measuring it in the outward standards he applies to other men. He saw this self-evaluation as inescapable.

Cooley maintained that all humans are individuals, "a contending bit of physical force, born with the need to assert ourselves and with an instinctive self-feeling ..." (Cooley, 1922, p.177). He introduced the concept of the 'looking-glass self' - which refers to an individual

perceiving himself in the way that others perceive him. He did point out, however, that although the approval and disapproval of fellow men are very powerful determiners of self-esteem, they are not its sole and necessary determiners. In fact,

persons of great ambitions, or of peculiar aims of any sort, lie open to disorders of self-feeling, because they necessarily build up in their mind the self-image that no ordinary social environment can understand or corroborate, and which must be maintained by hardening themselves against immediate influences, enduring or repressing the pains of present depreciation and cultivating in imagination the approval of some higher tribune (Cooley, 1922, p. 258).

Mead's contributions to the understanding of self-esteem are an elaboration of James' social self. He differed from Cooley in that he insisted that the primary basis of the self-concept lay in the capacity of the human organism to see himself as an object in the same light that he sees other individuals. The mechanism by which this is possible being role taking. He argued that insofar as one can take the role of another, he can, as it were, respond to himself from that perspective and so become an object to himself. It is only in such a social process that the self (and the self-concept), as distinct from a biological organism, can arise.

He proposed that there are two general stages of development of the self. In the first of these stages the individual self is constituted simply by an organization of the particular individual toward himself, and toward one another. Mead saw the self as reaching full development by organizing the particular individual attitudes of others into social or group attitudes, thereby becoming an individual reflection of the general systematic pattern of social or group behaviour which he takes toward himself :

The essence of self . . . . is cognitive. It lies in the internalised conversation of gestures which constitutes thinking, and hence the origins and foundations of the self, like those of thinking, are social (Mead, 1934, p.173).

He envisaged self-esteem as depending on the individual's abilities and capabilities as they are realised in the performance of definite functions. But that "genuine superiority . . . rests . . . . (on) the capacities which we have that other people do not have . . . We have to distinguish ourselves from other people and this is accomplished by doing something which other people cannot do, or cannot do as well" (Mead, 1934, p.208). Thus how much of such value or self-esteem anyone has realised, is gauged in Mead's view, by comparison with others on the basis of objective standards of

achievement, and not on the basis of gratuitous affective acceptance or rejection.

For Sullivan (1953), as for Cooley and Mead, the self arises out of social interaction. Unlike Cooley and Mead, however, Sullivan emphasized the interaction of the child with significant others, particularly the mother figure, rather than with society at large. He identified the self-system "as an organization of educative experience called into being by the necessity to avoid or to minimize incidents of anxiety" (p.165), i.e. those feelings arising when an individual expects to be or is rejected or demeaned by himself or others. Elaborating on this, he noted that at a very early age the infant begins to develop a self-concept, which, since he is completely dependent on parents and significant others, is constructed largely out of their reflected appraisals. Sullivan held that the socialization pressures exerted by the parents, and the continual appraisals of others, lead the child to label some tendencies in himself as characteristic of the 'bad me' and others as manifestations of the 'good me'.

Thus the focus on the interpersonal bases of self-esteem, the particular importance of parents, and the importance of the procedures to minimize demeaning events, are Sullivan's general contributions to the study of self-esteem.

Lecky (1945), who identified the self-concept as the nucleus of the personality, defined personality as the "organization of values that are consistent with one another" (p.160). He considered the organization of personality to be dynamic, as it involves a continuous assimilation of new ideas and rejection or modification of old ideas. His theory of 'self-consistency' assumed that all concepts are organized within a unified system, whose preservation is simple. The self-concept, as the nucleus of the personality, plays a key role in what concepts are acceptable for assimilation into the overall personality organization. He held that there is one major motive, that is, the striving for unity. Any threat to this organization of the personality produces feelings of distress. For Lecky, self-esteem is directly proportional to the level of self-consistency held by the individual :

The centre or nucleus of the mind is the individual's idea or conception of himself. If a new idea seems to be consistent with the ideas already present within the system, and particularly with the individual's conception of himself, it is accepted and assimilated easily. If it seems to be inconsistent, however, it meets with resistance and is likely to be rejected. This resistance is a natural phenomenon ; it is essential for the maintenance of individuality (p.246).

Freud (1914, 1920, 1921) asserted that self-love and self-evaluation were synonymous. As the child comes to associate some people or

objects affectionately with his own self-assertion because they are its instruments, so he comes to treat his body in the same way (as the body of a sexual object is treated). This tendency he called 'primary narcissism'. He saw self-loving tendencies of primary narcissism as being reinforced, in 'His Majesty the Baby', by the parents' attitude that the child should have a better lot than theirs.

Once the individual has developed psychologically to the point where his own ego can be an object, Freud postulated that some of the energy of sexual instincts can be withdrawn from the objects and directed into the ego - this he called 'secondary narcissism'. The combination of primary and secondary narcissism he saw as making the ego the principal love object. However, the increasing impact of reality on the normally maturing child reduces his self-love - the thwarting of the child's sexual researches are seen to play an important role here. Through this reality, in the form of parental criticism and that of others in his environment, an ego-ideal is implanted in the child. This ego-ideal is seen to be 'perfect' and becomes the object of love which the ego, because of its demonstrable failures, is not worthy to receive.

While Freud was never precisely explicit as to the nature of these failures, he did say that "Everything we possess or achieve, every remnant of the feeling of omnipotence that experience has corroborated, helps to exalt the self-regard" (Freud, 1914, p.55).

It is evident, from the theories of all the writers discussed so far, that they have emphasized, though each with their idiosyncratic variations, that the purposive acts of individuals are often interactions with the purposes of other individuals, i. e. that purposive action often takes place in the context of the social environment and thus evaluation is made in terms of the standards generated by group consensus. This theoretical standpoint is embodied in what is known as the 'social interactionist' tradition, or 'mirror theories'.

Cooley's metaphor of the 'looking-glass self' points explicitly to this tendency of the self to derive its substance from the social 'reflections' or feedbacks of the various members of the individual's social environment. Mead's conceptualizations of the 'generalized other' and the process of role-taking rooted the emergence and maintenance of the self in social interaction through the individual's assessment and internalization of the evaluative responses of others - thus the individual becomes what others think he is. Sullivan differed in that the credibility and importance of the evaluative reactions of others, for the individual, varies to the extent that 'the others' constitute significant others in the individual's social space : on the evaluations of his family since they usually constitute the first primary group to which the individual belongs. As the social world of the child expands, other reference groups take on importance.

It can be said that by the end of the fourth decade of this century, William James had contributed most to the understanding of self-esteem, since, not only did he have most to say on the topic specifically, but his postulation as to the determination of self-esteem ('the ratio of our actualities to our supposed potentialities'), as will be seen, has been developed into one of the currently used methods in the measurement of this personality variable.

The psychological literature of the past three decades has showed a marked resurgence of interest in personality theories concerning the self, the number of researches which have been inspired by these theories, as well as hypotheses pertinent to them which have been tested. The empirical analysis of these concepts, however, only began in earnest in the 1950's (Wylie, 1968).

Wober (1971) has pointed out that, in common with the predicament of most psychological constructs, the main volume of research on the self and self-esteem has originated in America. From the second to the fourth decades of this century, when the American psychological scene was strongly dominated by the behaviourist and functionalist psychologies, 'mentalist' constructs such as the self were regarded as a complete anathema. Consequently, study in the area of self-esteem received very little attention during this period. Researchers such as Sullivan, Lecky, and Freud, who persisted to write in the

domain of the self, had little to say about the antecedents of self-esteem specifically.

The various points about the bases and conditions of self-esteem which this review has so far covered have been repeated with various shifts of emphasis and changes of definition by more recent writers.

Allport (1955), who preferred the term 'proprium' to 'self', saw it as consisting of those aspects of the individual he regards as of central importance and which contribute to an inward sense of unity - it draws attention to the importance of what others have called ego-involvement. He envisaged the proprium as having the following attributes : awareness of bodily self ; a sense of continuity over time ; ego-enhancement or a need for self-esteem ; ego-extension, or the identification of the self beyond the borders of the body ; the synthesis of inner needs with outer reality - a rational process ; self-image, or the person's perception and evaluation of himself as an object of knowledge ; 'propriate striving' - the motivation to increase rather than decrease tension, to expand awareness, and to seek out challenges ; and the self as knower or as an executive agent. Allport (1961) did, however, in apparent agreement with James, come to believe that the self as knower did not belong in the realm of psychology.

Snygg and Coombs (1949), who popularised the quasi-technical self-concept, held that high or low self-evaluation is dependent on how

the individual's history shows him to be 'adequate' or 'inadequate' in gratifying his individual needs. Although they agreed that the individual's history includes his success or failures in meeting social norms of conduct, they avoided an analysis of the relationship between self-evaluation and social-evaluation by saying that these relations are mere empirical contingencies in which the independent and dependent variables cannot be distinguished. They held that when self-evaluation and social evaluation are equal, the individual will be realistic and his goals and behaviour will be consistent with his culture and with his own possibilities. When self-evaluation is lower than social evaluation, the person will have strong interests, will be gratified by the results of his own behaviour, will be encouraged by social relations to continue his efforts, and will be modest and unassuming until self- and social-evaluation achieve parity. When self-evaluation is above social-evaluation, the behaviour of others becomes threatening to the 'phenomenal self', which results in the individual becoming defensive, and he thus sets high goals in order to prove that his self-evaluation is justified.

Rogers (1951) has defined the self as "an organised, fluid but constant conceptual pattern of perceptions of characteristics and relationships of the 'I' or the 'me', together with values attached to these concepts" (p. 498). He held that the self-concept included only those characteristics of which the individual is aware of and believes himself to exercise control over. Also that there is a basic need to enhance and maintain

the self, and that any threat to the organization of the self-concept produces anxiety. Should these threats not be able to be defended, catastrophic disorganization follows - in which strongly diminished self-esteem is seen to play an important role.

Rogers' views thus have a great deal in common with those of Snygg and Coombs. He does not hold, as most client-centered therapists do, that conflict between the self-concept and the self-ideal is the source of disturbance, but rather as the conflict between the self-concept and 'organismic experiences'.

He maintains that the individual reacts to situations in terms of his unique perceptions of himself and his environment - he thus reacts to 'reality' as he perceives it and in ways consistent with his self-concept. He also lent weight to the importance of interpersonal relations and the general sociocultural setting in which the individual functions, since he sees that they are factors that influence his development and behaviour, and bear significantly on the satisfactions and meaning that the individual finds in living.

Perhaps the most systematic and influential theory of 'social comparison processes' in recent years has been that of Festinger (1954), (Diggory, 1966).

One of Festinger's primary assertions is that there exists in each individual, a drive to evaluate his opinions and abilities - opinions being statements made in the absence of any relevant facts, or even in the absence of the possibility of getting such facts. This evaluation of opinions and abilities, he says, is made in terms of the abilities and opinions of others to the extent that objective and non-social means are not available. The accuracy of such evaluations is dependent on how the individual compares with other individuals.

He held that while effective group pressures operate to promote uniformity of opinion, individuals always seek to maximise their achievement as to their abilities, and that mere social pressure or the desire to conform only makes the person wish that he had more or less ability without altering his real powers. These pressures toward conformity operate so as to segregate and classify people on the basis of ability. Thus if individuals' opinions differ, they can reduce the difference by either changing themselves, or by influencing others to change. However, if there exists a difference in ability, uniformity can only be achieved by choosing to associate with those who differ minimally, or by seeking to improve their abilities by practice and study. Consequently, Festinger admitted that actions caused by discrepancies that relate to abilities are not generally social in nature, but are directed 'against the environment which restrains movement.'

With respect to values and motivations that concern ability, Festinger held that the situation is identical to the social processes that govern opinions.

It is evident that the various writings discussed so far belong to the social interactionist tradition. This broad group of views may be divided into two different sub-types - each with its own theoretical standpoint. They are self-esteem and self-consistency theories.

The central concept underlying the self-esteem theory is that the individual has a need to enhance his self-evaluation and to increase, maintain or confirm his feelings of personal satisfaction, worth and effectiveness, (eg. James, Mead, Allport). Although this need is assumed to be general, it is seen to manifest itself differentially with respect to particular aspects of the individual's self-evaluation rather than to more global feelings about the self. It is also seen to vary with the degree of personal satisfaction or frustration that the individual experiences in specific situations or periods of time. Self-esteem theorists hold that this need varies across individuals - persons with high self-esteem being more satisfied with respect to this need than individuals with low self-esteem.

The crucial question to be asked when comparing these two theories is what predictions they make regarding the individual's reactions to

positive or negative evaluations received from other people.

Proponents of the self-esteem theory believe that an individual's actions, attitudes and his receptivity to information from other people are strongly affected by a tendency to create and maintain a consistent cognitive state with respect to his evaluations of himself (after Lecky, Festinger, Rogers).

The prediction from the self-consistency theorists is that high self-evaluators will react more favourably to approval than to disapproval, and that low self-evaluators will react more favourably to disapproval than to approval. On the other hand, self-esteem theorists predict that individuals with low self-esteem will respond more favourably to positive evaluations from others and more unfavourably to negative evaluations from others as compared to high self-esteem individuals. This follows from the assumption (by self-esteem theorists) that low self-esteem people have greater needs for esteem enhancement and are therefore more satisfied by the approval of others and more frustrated by the disapproval from others.

Jones (1974), has suggested that a stronger case may be made for self-esteem theories. Firstly, because the evidence from experiments which permit testing between the two standpoints provides more substantial support for self-esteem predictions. Secondly, he claims two straightforward extensions of the self-esteem theory can explain

self-consistent interpersonal evaluations. One is the anticipated exposure (in the normal course of relating to others) which tends to make the individual more 'honest' and thus more self-consistent. The second is that people respond more favourably to positive evaluations and less favourably to negative evaluations to the extent that those evaluations are perceived as being uniquely focused on themselves.

Bramel (1968) and Deutsch et. al. (1962) maintain that certain cognitive dissonance phenomena may reflect underlying needs for self-esteem enhancement through social approval. They argue that dissonance is a feeling of personal unworthiness (a type of anxiety) which is related directly to the rejection of the individual by others either in the past or present. The consequences of this anxiety about personal worth are seen to be things such as self-justification and the search for information that will reflect favourably upon the self.

A second explanatory system, as opposed to the 'mirror theories', relies on a different theoretical system to account for the development of self-evaluation. This second explanatory system, which has come to be known as the 'modeling theory' holds that the child acquires most of his behavioural characteristics, and from these his attitudes, through the process of imitating various people in his world. Self-attitudes are seen to develop in the same way as attitudes towards other objects do - through the incorporation of behaviours and attitudes of (significant)

others in the social environment. Bandura considers identification (the term usually associated with this process (Mowrer, 1950), as only one type of imitation that may be classified under the label of 'vicarious processes' (Bandura, 1969, p.119). Thus a child who identifies with a parent, is acquiring self-attributes of another - the characteristic process of all modelling behaviour. According to the modelling theory, the mechanism that links modelling behaviour to self-concept formation is self-reinforcement.

In reviewing some of his own, and others' research, Bandura states that 'people generally adopt the standards for self-reinforcement exhibited by exemplary models, they evaluate their own performances relative to that standard, and then they serve as their own reinforcing agents' (by rewarding themselves to the internalized standards) (1969, p.33).

Bandura defines the self-concept, from the social learning point of view, in terms of the relative frequency of positive to negative reinforcements - a negative self-concept would thus be one that has a high frequency of negative reinforcements.

Thus the hypothesis derived from the 'model theory' is that the parental self-esteem is positively related to that of the child's self-esteem, and that of the mirror theory, is that parental evaluation of

the child is positively related to the child's self-esteem.

At present the available empirical research supports both hypotheses (Wylie, 1968). She has concluded, after an analysis of over 400 studies and research programmes, that there is some evidence, though not free from possible artifacts, that children's self-concepts and their self-evaluations are similar to what they believe their parents, especially their like-sexed parents, think of them. The relation between self-evaluation and social status is not clear - while leaders of clearly defined groups may have on the average a higher opinion of themselves than their followers, there is at best contradictory evidence on the relation between self-evaluation and the attributed social rank of the group or class to which the individual belongs. There are small and usually insignificant correlations between the level of self-evaluation and the resistance to persuasion.

On the other hand, research stemming from behaviouristic psychology supports the contention that the self-concept and self-evaluation develops through modelling behaviour and the internalization of the standards and attributes of the model (eg. Bandura, 1964, 1969; Dollard & Miller, 1941).

Gecas (1974) postulates that the various aspects of the child's self-esteem may be differentially affected by each of the above two processes. He bases this postulation on an earlier study of his (1971), in which he

found that two dimensions of the adolescent self-concept were differentially affected by parental support, i. e., the child's sense of self-worth was more strongly related to the level of parental support than was his sense of power. In addition, he asks under what conditions - eg. age, sex of child, sex of parent, etc. - might one process be more strongly related to the child's self-concept. He cites Bandura (1963) who suggests that the modelling relationship should be stronger for the parent and child of the same sex since there is considerable social pressure exerted on the child to develop sex-appropriate characteristics, which results in pressure on the child to identify with (or model) the same sex parent; and Turner (1970), who maintains that mirroring should be stronger between the parent and child of the opposite sex, as, since identification is less prevalent in cross-sex parent-child relationships, the interaction can be freer and more open. As a result, the child may be more influenced in his self-concept by the evaluative responses of the cross-sexed parent.

It appears, in the light of the support for both the mirror and model theories, that precisely the same postulations as those of Gecas may apply to the concept of self-esteem specifically.

The only definitive and cogent empirical study that investigates and propounds the antecedents of self esteem specifically, is that of Cooper-

smith (1967). His findings have corroborated data that supports both the mirror and model theories.

This study, which spanned six years (1959-1965), was divided into four parts :

Firstly, 1,748 preadolescent, middle-class children (ages 10-12), answered the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (see Chapter Two). The teachers of all the subjects were asked to rate each child on a 14 - item, five-point scale on behaviours presumed to be related to self-esteem. On the basis of this information on subjective and behavioural self-esteem, a sample of 85 subjects, divided into five groups - High (subjective), High (behavioural) self-esteem, Medium-Medium, Low-Low, High-Low and Low-high - were chosen.

Secondly, the 85 subjects were tested on a battery of clinical tests which consisted of the following : Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, Rorschach, TAT (selected cards), and a specially developed Sentence Completion Test. The subjects were also interviewed and rated by the testing clinician.

The third section consisted of a series of five experiments that were presumed to be related to self-esteem : a task to measure level of aspiration ; a variation of the perceptual defense experiment,

involving the presentation of stimuli of high and low effect ; the recall and repetition of success and failure experiences ; susceptibility to pressures toward conformity ; and motor and perceptual reactions to stress. In subsequent studies the same subjects were tested for creativity, prejudice, and social behaviours.

And, fourthly, various experiences and conditions that were associated with the development of the various levels of self-esteem were considered. The information on antecedents was obtained from three sources : an 80-item questionnaire, completed by the mother, which dealt with parental attitudes related to child-rearing ; an on average  $2\frac{1}{2}$  hour interview with the mother ; and thirdly, responses to a series of questions on parental attitudes and practices by the child.

Coopersmith found that a general appraisal of the antecedents of self-esteem can be given in terms of three conditions : total (or nearly total) acceptance of children by their parents ; clearly defined and enforced limits ; and the respect and latitude for individual action that exists within the defined limits. He concludes from his research that children who have higher self-esteem are reared by parents who are concerned and attentive towards their children. They structure the worlds of their children along limits that are rational, practical, and appropriate to the age of the child, are not arbitrary and inflexible, and permit relatively great freedom within the structures they have

established.

Well-defined limits provide the child with the basis for evaluating his present performance as well as facilitating comparisons with prior behaviour and attitudes. When these limits (which enable the child to define the social demography of his environment), and which are drawn up by the parents, form a realistic and accurate depiction of the goals accepted by the larger social community, they serve as a guide to expectations, demands and taboos of that community. These limits form a network (or code of behaviour) which clarifies the ambiguities and inconsistencies of social behaviour and endow it with a sense of meaning and purpose. If such a network is provided early in life, and accurately enough, then it is upheld by behavioural as well as verbal reinforcement. In short, if rational limits are imbued early on in life, the child forms a working definition of his social world and thus the chances of coping rationally in that world are greatly enhanced; and, if he can cope, his self-esteem will be high.

Coopersmith disputes that limits are likely to produce rigid, submissive, and insensitive people. His data has shown that people with high self-esteem who have come from families with highly structured conditions, tend to be more independent and creative. Further empirical evidence has shown that children reared within definite limits

are more likely to be socially accepted as peers and leaders by their associates, and more capable of expressing opinions and accepting criticism.

If limits appear cognitively clear to the child, then he is able to judge for himself whether he has attained a desired goal, made progress or deviated. If, however, these standards are ambiguous, then the child will be more compliant to the will of his peers, be less likely to perceive alternatives, and have lower self-esteem; and, as a result of this, he will be less likely to rely on his own judgement and interpretation of events and their consequences: i. e., "the focus is internal and personal rather than external and social" (p. 239).

However, well-defined, cognitively rational limits are not all that are required to produce high self-esteem. Data obtained by Cooper-smith suggests that combinations of conditions are required - more than one, but less than four ways were established. They are: acceptance, limit definition, respect for the child, and parental self-esteem. There are two combinations of the above four that were found to occur most frequently - high parental self-esteem and acceptance; and a firm limit definition with which is associated a respect for individual expression (findings corroborated by Batesman, 1944; Sears, 1957, and Whiting, 1954).

Coopersmith has also found that children with high self-esteem are more likely than those with low self-esteem to be close to their parents, to confide in them, to respond to punishment they administer, and to be socially skilled and emotionally responsive. This led Coopersmith to conclude that children with high self-esteem are more likely to have a favourable model with which to identify.

The relationship between the parents' self-esteem and that of the child is important, says Coopersmith, since unconscious identification and conscious modelling may underlie the self-evaluation of many individuals : parents with high self-esteem are able to provide their children with a definite idea of what they expect and desire, while the parent with low self-esteem, if he is accepting, although he may provide the child with a negative model for esteem building, may well lead the child to a higher level of self-appraisal than he himself has reached.

The highest and most stable levels of positive self-evaluation, then, should be brought about by a combination of high self-esteem models and an enhancing pattern of treatment (i. e. , acceptance, limit definition, and respect for the child as an individual in his own right.)

Coopersmith has defined self-esteem as "the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself ; it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates

the extent to which the individual believes himself capable, significant, successful and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a personal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that the individual holds toward himself. It is a subjective experience which the individual conveys to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive behaviour" (p. 4-5).

He concluded that the specific determining variables of self-esteem may be conceived of as 'successes', 'values', 'aspirations', and 'defences'.

Successes, states Coopersmith, are surprisingly not significantly determined by the widely held 'notions of the potency of status'. Self-esteem was found not to be related to height and physical attractiveness, and only weakly related to social status. Despite the great weight placed on material wealth, education, and achievement in Western societies, these factors, though significant, were only found to be of limited relevance to the level of self-esteem held by individuals. "The absolute, objective appraisal of capacity, performance, or possession does not have, for the individual, the significance of the psychological appraisal made in a personal context" (p. 243). The bases for judgements of success are seen to lie in acceptance, the possibilities for individual expression and dissent (within limits),

and academic performance as related to the individual's peers.

Values held by individuals were found to be derived principally from the social norms of the individual's own group - that is, they are internalised as self-values. The definition of the appraisal of attainment of these goals, however, is seen to differ from individual to individual. Apparently interpretation and weighing come into play when the individual judges whether or not he has attained the norm or value in question.

Aspirations of individuals are viewed as reflecting personal expectations rather than more general standards or 'vague secret hopes'. High self-esteem people were found to set significantly higher (personal) goals for themselves than were low self-esteem individuals. The former also generally conclude that they are closer to their aspirations than do the latter, who have set lower goals. Results from this long-term study suggest that there are significant differences between socially accepted goals and personally significant goals set by the individuals themselves.

Defenses, too, differ from individual to individual according to the ways in which stresses are reacted to. Those who feel powerful and adequate to deal with threats are less likely to have their confidence shaken than are those who are not sure of their competence and who

are afraid. To this extent meanings (of stress situations) will be differentially 'imposed' on individuals, resulting in different defenses.

The literary psychologists saw self-esteem as the chief motive for human behaviour. James believed it necessary to find a 'self on which to stake his salvation, and Coopersmith found that 'the picture is not a pleasant one for persons with low self-esteem'. Evidence which lends support to the widely held belief that a favourable level of self-esteem is necessary for effective human functioning has been provided in the field of industrial psychology.

Korman (1970) proposed that, all things being equal, persons with high self-esteem are motivated to perform well on a task so as to maintain their self-image of competence, while those with low self-esteem are not motivated to perform well since poor performance is consistent with their image of relative incompetence. He sees self-esteem as consisting of three elements : chronic self-esteem, (a relatively enduring level of self-esteem which persists across various situations) ; task-specific self-esteem, (a feeling of competence for a particular task) ; and socially induced self-esteem.

He hypothesised that these sources of self-esteem determine an individual's level of 'self-perceived competence and ability for the task at hand which directly affects the performance of the task (see Fig 1).

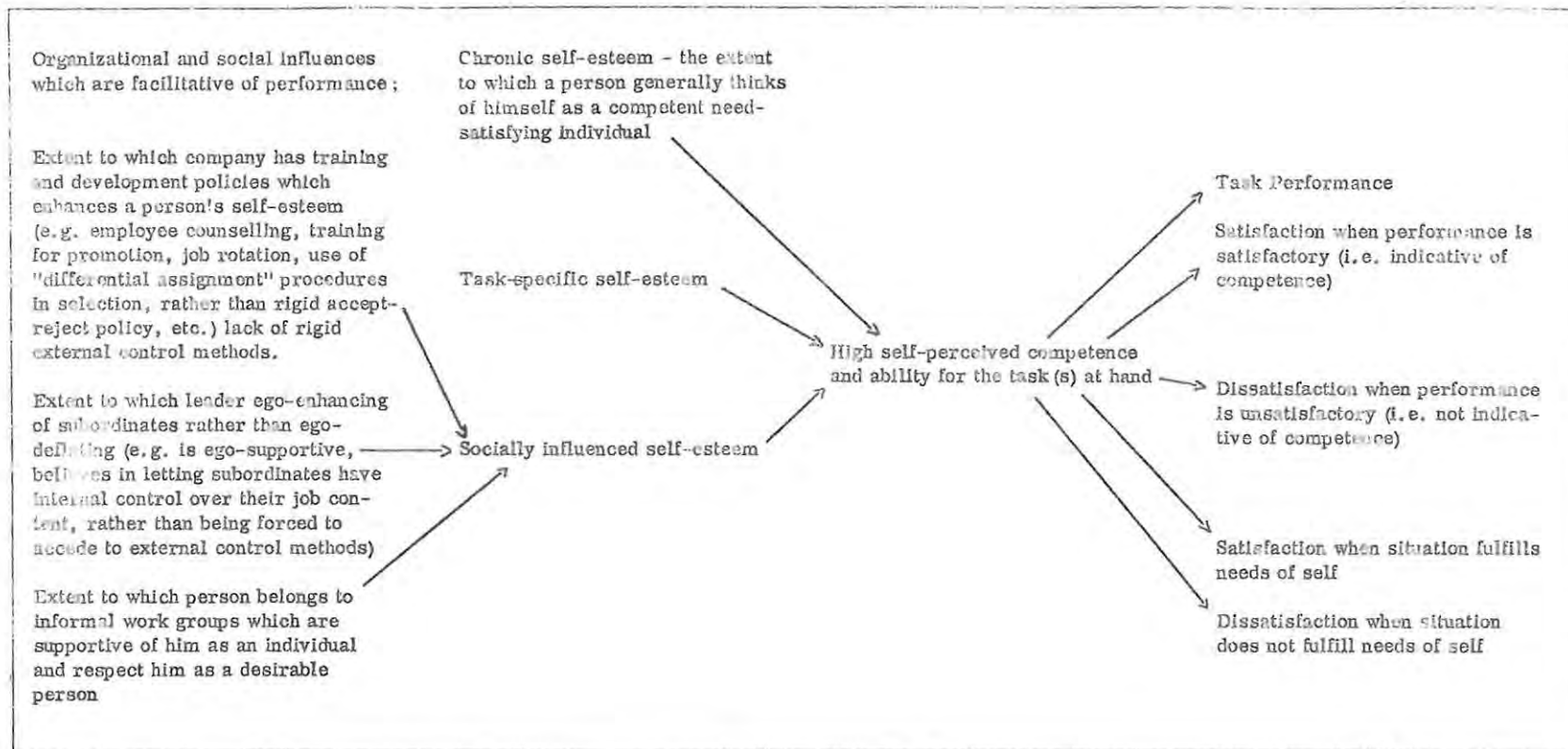


Fig. 1 Outline of model of work behaviour

The results of two studies (Greenhaus & Badin, 1974) confirmed that self-esteem is a significant variable involved in shaping task performance.

The notion that various races or groups differ as to their general level of self-esteem has been discussed and experimentally investigated on a number of occasions (eg. Baughman, 1971 ; Gibson, 1931 ; van der Westhuyzen, 1967 ; and Wendland, 1967). It appears that the level of self-esteem held by any individual is a function of effective performance of that individual. Thus, if any race or class of people can be said to have significantly different levels of self-esteem, then these groups may be hierarchically ranked in terms of performance and effective functioning.

It is the purpose of the present study to determine whether some of the race and language groups in South Africa differ as to their general level of self-esteem.

## 2. THE SELF-ESTEEM OF THE AMERICAN NEGROES IN RELATION TO THAT OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN COLOURED PEOPLE

Traditionally, and as late as the mid 1960's, the view has been held that the American Negro suffers from a deficiency of self-esteem, (Gibson, 1931 ; Kardiner & Ovesey, 1951 ; Grier & Cobbs, 1969). Grambs (1965) states that "the self-esteem of the Negro is damaged by the overwhelming fact that the world he lives in says 'White is right, Black is bad' (p.15).

This point of view has, however, been disputed. "The times have changed and the black's view of himself may indeed be more positive", (Baughman, 1971, p.40). In supporting this point of view Baughman argues that because the child's family life is regarded as the single most important determiner of how he comes to value himself (Coopersmith, 1967), and although, on the average, black family life is more disorganized than white family life (U.S. Riot Commission Report, 1968), it does not necessarily follow that the level of self-esteem among black children should be lower than that of white children.

He argues firstly, that children develop a self-concept on a comparative basis and not in terms of absolute scales - a child is seen to continually compare the way he is treated in comparison to other children, whether

they be his siblings or peer group. Secondly, the child may also compare how he is treated by different people and how other children are treated by the same individuals. Baughman also emphasizes that the black child is reared in an essentially black world and thus his self-esteem is generated by comparisons with their parents and black children. Furthermore, it has been shown that adolescent blacks in the rural south responded consistently in answering questions about themselves, families, schools, etc., by comparing themselves continually to other black families, their own black schools and other black schools. The fact that these communities contained white families and schools did not seem to enter into establishing the framework within which they evaluated themselves and their institutions, (Dahlstrom and Baughman, 1968); i. e. most black children have the foundation of their self-esteem laid in the black community before any meaningful confrontation with the white world.

Baughman postulates that when the black child finds that he does not measure up to his white counterpart in the classroom, he has two psychological patterns open to him : he must either suffer a loss of self-esteem (by interpreting his experience as evidence that he is less adequate than he had been led to believe), or, to protect his self-esteem, he must blame the system for having discriminated against him by

providing him with inferior preparatory experiences. Baughman believes that many of today's black youth will opt for the latter since they are encouraged and supported in this interpretation by many influential voices, both black and white.

There are a number of studies that appear to support Baughman's contention.

In research conducted by MacDonald and Gynther (1965) during 1961-62, the self and the self-ideal of (261) black highschool seniors and their (211) white counterparts from racially segregated schools were measured by means of the Interpersonal Check List. This discrepancy is used as an index of self-esteem (see Chapter III). It was found that the discrepancy between the self and self-ideal of the Negroes differed significantly less than that of the whites ( $p < .0001$ ).

A similar finding was made by Wendland (1967). Her subjects were 685 (mean age 14) negro and white lower and lower-middle class adolescents drawn from a rural area, two villages, and a city in North Carolina. With the Tennessee Self Concept scale, it was found that the self-esteem score of the black children significantly exceeded that of the white children. A further finding of this study was that the MMPI Cynicism Scale score obtained by the Negroes' samples was significantly higher than the whites'. Thus reflecting, says Wendland, that the Negro

interprets his disesteem as a result of discrimination rather than an inadequacy in himself. This raises the question that conceptualizations of the Negro found in older literature may represent unfounded stereotypes and generalizations.

A study by Bridgette (1970), which used the Coopersmith SEI, had 252 subjects drawn from both race groups at a desegregated school, also in North Carolina. In contrast to the above two studies, the whites were found to have a higher self-esteem - a small but significant difference (approximately 2 points higher than that of the Negroes on the SEI). Bridgette, found, however, that when the effect due to IQ (the white mean score was 20 points above that of the Negroes) was statistically removed, the racial difference in SEI scores was no longer significant. He also points out that the desegregation (which occurred three months prior to testing), had not gone smoothly - there had been overt conflict, and several black students had either been expelled or suspended.

Further support for Baughman's contention has been supplied by Donaldson (1974) and Stroback (1972), who both found the self-esteem of blacks to be higher than that of whites - the differences were not significant and the latter's finding was true only for black females.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Information supplied by Coopersmith  
- personal communication.

It appears then that the self-esteem of the American Negro is not as deficient as it was thought to be, and is in many cases comparable to, or higher than, that of White Americans. The major reason given for this change (Baughman 1971 ; & Kvaraceus 1965) is that previous self-conceptions of the blacks, based on unfounded stereotypes and generalizations, have begun to be 'put right' - largely as a result of factors including the preachings of various Black Power organizations, influential voices (both black and white), and a growing body of empirical evidence.

There are a number of distinct parallels between the situation of the American Negroes (with reference to the change in their self-esteem) and the coloureds of South Africa :

A marked characteristic of South African society is that of colour. Worth, in most forms in South Africa, is contingent on the possession of a white skin. With the hierarchical stratification and preoccupation with lower and higher status levels, white skin colour is invariably associated with less blemish, discredit and stigma than the darker complexion of the Coloureds. As a rule, Whites from the lower socio-economic levels are somehow regarded as superior to blacks from higher socio-economic and cultural levels. This state of affairs is most likely to produce, amongst the blacks, self-depreciation and low self-esteem.

MacCrone (1937) states that of all ethnic groups in Southern Africa, the stereotype formed of the Cape Coloured is the most unfavourable. While the stereotype formed of the African includes such components as 'good-natured' and 'hospitable', that of the Coloured only embraces adverse terms, viz., noisy, quarrelsome, fond of gambling, dishonest, treacherous, dirty and superstitious. It is hardly surprising then, that traditionally the Coloureds should be thought to have lower self-esteem than their white counterparts.

Secondly, the similarity of Black Power and other self-esteem enhancing factors must be taken into consideration :

Black Power and its concomitant ideologies have, for some eight years now, had an impact, not only on the student and pupil population, but also in the party-political sphere in South Africa (van der Merwe, 1972 & Adam, 1971). Various white political parties now preach the doctrine of "full citizenship" for the Coloureds and Asians of South Africa, (Mann 1962) has indicated that the non-white groups of South Africa are more inclined toward 'full democracy in all circumstances' than are the whites.

The chairman of the newly-appointed Government commission which is investigating the present situation of the Coloured people has stated : "I don't think the commission was appointed to maintain the status quo." <sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Star, Johannesburg, May 13, 1974

The students of the (Coloured) University of the Western Cape have been by far the most successful of all non-white groups in South Africa in terms of the immediate granting of demands made (i. e. that their University be staffed with members of their own race group).

The above are all factors which are likely to bring about a change in the general level of self-esteem of the Coloureds.

On the basis of the distinct similarities between the Negroes and the Coloureds described above and since this situation in the United States is believed to have precipitated a rise in the general level of the Negroes' self-esteem, it is hypothesised that the self-esteem of the Coloureds is now no longer necessarily lower than that of their white South African counterparts.

There have been a number of studies of a sociological nature on the Coloureds (e.g. Cilliers, 1963, 1964, 1971; Dickie-Clark, 1966; and Patterson, 1963) which, though they do not mention self-esteem specifically, do give some clues as to the nature of their self-concept. An important finding of these studies has been that the Coloureds, as a result of their close integration into the economic, religious, and political structure of the dominant white pattern, have assumed the social and cultural characteristics of the dominant white western society (Cilliers 1963). Dickie-Clark (1966) in a study, which, among

other things, obtained stereotypes of the Coloureds (by asking them what they thought of themselves as a group), found one of the favourable stereotypes to be "Try to live like Whites".

Research of a psychological nature in the field of self-esteem, however, has been sparse. Mann (1957) researching amongst the Coloured population in Durban with regard to the concept of the Marginal Man, concluded that "the Coloureds are more likely to be in a marginal situation between their own group and the Whites, than between the Africans and the Whites" (p. 262).

The fact that the Coloureds appear to be culturally and socially similar to the white community, that they desire to operate as free individuals within that society and that this desire appears to be rapidly gaining credence in white political circles, also point to the possibility that their self-esteem has risen.

As far as has been ascertained, the only study to have measured the self-esteem of the Coloureds has been that of van der Westhuyzen (1967). His sample consisted of 75 Whites, 75 Coloureds and 75 Indians. The Coloureds and Indians were said to represent almost the entire Std. 9 and 10 girl population of the four largest Coloured and Indian schools in or near Johannesburg, Transvaal, and to mirror the entire range of material circumstances of their respective groups. The white subjects

were described as a fair cross-section of the white senior girl population in Johannesburg, with under-representation from the top socio-economic bracket. These groups were compared in respect of their self-esteem scores, measured by the Rosenberg self-esteem scale (with simplified scoring involving only True or False responses). A chi square of 25.69 (14 degrees of freedom) indicated race group differences significant at the 5% level - inspection of the intermediate calculations revealed lower self-esteem scores among the Coloureds and Indians than among the Whites. This, van der Westhuyzen explains in terms of their distinctive milieu (i. e. the oppression and derogation of the Coloureds by the Whites, leads to depersonalization, depression and low self-esteem).

It is, however, contended that these results are somewhat dated (because of the intervening factors present during the past eight years), and that many Coloureds today do not have a lower self-esteem than their white counterparts.

A study by Lobban (1970) which studied, among other things, the self-attitudes of urbanized African highschool pupils (mean age 20.5) in the Johannesburg Soweto township, appears to corroborate the above point of view. While the subjects of Lobban's study are Africans and not Coloureds, her findings are nevertheless relevant to the situation

of the Coloureds :

Firstly, because both groups are discriminated against and thus any factors which may be said to concern changes in, or awareness of, the bases of discriminatory practices, are relevant to both groups. Secondly, there has been, to some extent, a polarization, particularly at the student level, between the non-whites - seen in the formation of the South African Students Organization, which is composed of all non-white ethnic units. The data obtained by Lobban indicates that the subjects' evaluation of themselves was the closest of all evaluations to their ideal self and that the discrepancy between themselves and their ideal self occurred at the level of their objective, material situation at the time. (Other groups against which they evaluated themselves were urban and rural Africans; Africans in independent African countries; American Negroes; and English and Afrikaans South Africans). A further finding, of direct importance to the rationale underlying the hypothesis of the present study, is that the reason for their largely positive self-attitudes is that "the majority of the subjects clearly blamed the South African discriminatory system and not themselves for their lack of successes" (p. 34).

### 3. THE MEASUREMENT OF SELF-ESTEEM

It is widely held that self-esteem is both a central personality variable and an important determiner of human behaviour, (q.v.). Despite the conceptual prominence of self-esteem, it has proved difficult to define operationally. In the light of the above difficulty, it is necessary to investigate the problems entailed in selecting an appropriate measure of self-esteem, as well as the weaknesses inherent in the measures themselves.

#### 3.1 Problems Inherent in the Measurement of Phenomenological Self-Constructs

There are several features of Coopersmith's definition of self-esteem, which appears to have considerable credibility (Robinson and Shaver, 1970), that have methodological implications.

Firstly, there exists in the individual a relatively enduring level of self-esteem which, although it may fluctuate from time to time as a result of specific instances and environmental changes, reverts to its customary level once conditions again become "normal".

A test-retest reliability of 0.70 over a 3 year period obtained from a preadolescent sample by Coopersmith (1967) suggests that at some time preceeding middle childhood the child arrives at a general appraisal of his worth, which remains relatively constant over a period of several years.

Secondly, if it is argued, as does Wylie (1961, 1968), that self-esteem is a strictly phenomenological variable, then problems regarding the validity of the measurement instruments are involved - since, according to Coopersmith's definition, self-esteem results from an evaluation of the self as an "object", which in many cases is only open to inspection and evaluation by the particular individual concerned. Thus observer ratings of an individual's behaviour are largely irrelevant to the validity of a self-esteem scale. The only instance when such ratings are relevant occur when the respondent is evaluating himself in a similar manner to the evaluations others make of him. Coopersmith's (1967) Behaviour Rating Form which obtains a measure of self-esteem by teachers rating subjects in a 14 item, 5 point scale on behaviours which are presumed to be related to self-esteem, provides an example of this procedure. However, it is not sufficient to establish the validity of a scale designed to measure self-esteem (regard) as opposed to self-description, since regard depends largely on the varying standards and unique accesses to characteristics which the individual has of himself

(e.g. honesty).

A further implication of this definition is that since self-esteem is based on attitudes toward the self, which may be conscious or unconscious, the measurement techniques need not be limited to conscious self-reports. Thus projective measures may also be used.

Wylie (1961) has outlined four steps which are needed in order to establish construct validity of a self-concept measure :

- (1) Make observational, including mathematical analyses of the measuring processes in order to determine what variables, other than the construct in question, may be influencing the results.
- (2) Ascertain whether or not there are inter-correlations among measures presumed to index the same construct.
- (3) Make internal item analyses and factor analyses of an instrument to determine how many basic processes must be postulated to account for response variance on the instrument as a whole.
- (4) Cronbach and Meehl (1955) have suggested that, in the absence of suitable validating criteria, an examination be made of the results obtained from studies in which responses on the instrument in question are related to other stimulus and response variables. Positive findings from such a

study offer support simultaneously to the construct validity of the instrument and to the theory behind the study.

- (5) In general, such investigations would involve :
- (a) successful prediction of group differences, and
  - (b) studies of predicted changes over occasions (especially after controlled experimental intervention)

It must be borne in mind, however, that such findings offer ambiguous support at best, since the ratio of unknown to known variables does not preclude alternate interpretations. It is, therefore, not acceptable to by-pass the validity procedures of types (1) and (2) above. The appearance of face validity coupled with studies of type (4) will never suffice to establish the construct validity of a newly devised instrument (Wylie, 1961, p. 25-26).

There are now some 200 measures of self-esteem and related concepts such as "adjustment" or "competence", but few offer more than face-validation, most of them only having been used in one study.

A distinct problem encountered with self-esteem measures is that of subjects trying to put themselves across in a favourable light. Crowne and Marlow (1960) who, on finding correlations with K and L scales measured by MMPI, suggest that a quality of defensiveness or attempt to put the self in a favourable light may exist. They define this as social desirability - the need to obtain approval by responding in a culturally

appropriate and acceptable manner. The question may be asked whether this tendency will carry over to self-reports on other instruments. Data obtained from a study by Pervin and Lilly (1967), initiated to investigate this problem, indicates that there is a clear relationship between social desirability, as measured by the Marlow-Crown Social Desirability Scale, self ratings on the semantic differential, and self-ideal self discrepancies on the semantic differential. Correlations obtained indicated that ratings on the semantic differential can be considerably influenced by the social desirability factor. Since few of the approximately 200 scales offer more than face validity, it would appear that the above may be a strong detractor from the efficacy and validity of these scales.

Wylie (1961), in her critical review of the measurement of self-constructs, states that, while the subjects' anonymity may be a desirable control (a precaution which many investigators have not taken), the influence of this factor on the validity of responses in self-report tests has not been specifically demonstrated.

Wylie levels a number of criticisms at the measurement techniques of phenomenological constructs of the self. They include the following, most of whose influences have not been specifically demonstrated.

Firstly, lack of rapport. She cites Jouard & Lasakow (1958), who found a significant correlation between subject's reports of how much

they like their parents and their reports of how much they disclosed of themselves to their parents. These results, she says, indicate the importance of the role of rapport in self-disclosure.

Secondly, the possibility that it may be more socially acceptable to reveal oneself in certain areas than others, even when the factor of the self-favourability of the individual item reports is held constant. Also, areas of item content may be differentially revealed (although item self-favourability is constant) since they are either more or less congruent with the subject's self-esteem.

Thirdly, the importance of the form of the instrument. Cronbach (1946, 1950) and others working in different areas in psychology have called attention to the importance of irrelevant response determiners - e.g. acquiescence response sets, halo effect, the tendency to check one end of the range or one range of a scale predominantly or exclusively.

A study by Wylie (1957) found that open-ended essays describing one's self and one's ideal for one's own conduct were not codable for a number of the characteristics on which she had data from other instruments (and which other writers, e.g. Diller, 1954), have found to be important areas of the self concept. This suggests that open-ended self-reports may omit important aspects of the self-concept.

Wylie also points out that when the subject's mode of reporting is circumscribed in any way, particularly in forced-choice measures, there is no way of knowing to what extent the subject is free to give an accurate expression of his conscious cognition or feeling.

Further criticisms of measurement techniques are the effect of self expectation on subject's responses. There have been marked variations from study to study in the particular directions given to subjects to define a concept which was assigned the same table (e.g. ideal self). Also there often appears to be, within the work of single investigators, a wide gap between what subjects are literally told, and the set which the experimenter infers he has induced in the subjects (e.g. Cohen 1959, Cohen et. al. 1957).

Finally, there are problems related to statistical procedures, particularly those involving two part indices, (e.g. self-minus-ideal discrepancies). These are factors such as the degree of variance contributed by each part to the variance in scores on the dual indices, and how much is independantly contributed by each part to the correlation between the dual index and theory relevant behaviour.

It is important to note that for the majority of published scales no information regarding reliability is mentioned. Furthermore, when such information is provided, it is usually of the inter-judge or split-



half type rather than the test-retest kind. This is an important problem in research where a change in self-esteem is predicted over time (e.g. following experimentally induced failure, or after counselling), since, if the hypothesis is not supported consistently, it is difficult to ascertain whether the predictions were unconfirmed, or if the scale used was unreliable.

### 3.2 Types of Self-Esteem Measures

The earliest measure, which claimed to tap self-esteem, was Maslow's (1942) "Social Personality Inventory for College Women". He concluded after numerous clinical and research projects, that the feeling of dominance is synonymous with a feeling of superiority, self-esteem, ego level, ego strength ascending, and a feeling of power or drive to power feeling or ascendancy. Dominance included being self-confident, self-assured, unconventional, having a tendency to 'use' people, being secure, less religious, adventurous, and having an autonomous code of ethics. This instrument consisted of 52 questions which were obtained in the following manner - 140 subjects were rated, after several clinical interviews, for dominance on a 7 point scale. 200 questions thought to be relevant to dominance were put to the subjects.

Correlations between the clinical interview ratings and the questions from the initial inventory were obtained. The most significant items (52) formed the present inventory. Items were weighted by factor analysis. Maslow pointed out that this measure was only valid for middle class women students. He cautioned after further testing, that an error rate of 1 in 20 could be expected.

Raimy (1948) appears to be the first investigator to have developed a scheme for coding interviews with respect to expressed attitudes towards the self. In this method, everything the subject said between two counselor responses was counted as a unit. Four categories were used for classifying units : positive self-attitude, negative self-attitude, ambivalent self-reference and informational questions. Various and more complex systems for coding interviews have been devised, e.g. Stocks (1949), Lipkin (1954) and Rosenman (1955). However, with the advent of pencil and paper measures of self-esteem, the popularity of the above method lessened considerably - since pencil and paper tests can measure many more subjects in a far shorter space of time and less qualified experimenters are required.

The pencil and paper tests used in survey studies which purport to measure self-esteem may be divided into the following types - Q-sorts, semantic differential scales, Likert-type scales and check lists.

3.2.1 The Q-sort is one of the most commonly used techniques for measuring self-regard, though it is not quite as popular for assessing self-esteem. In the typical application of this method, a large number of personality-descriptive items are sorted into piles by the subject. The number of cards to be placed in each pile is usually stipulated so that a quasi-normal distribution is attained. Numbers may also be assigned to each item according to its placement so that the results obtained may be compared with other subjects sorting under the same instructions or with the results obtained by the same subject sorting with different instructions.

The set of Q-sort items which has been used most extensively to tap self-esteem is that of Butler and Haigh (1954). Subjects are required to sort the 100 cards into nine piles either according to the degree they were "like me" or in another sort, according to the degree "I would most like within myself to be" or, in a third sort, according to the degree to which they characterize the "ordinary person". The number of items to be placed in each pile is stipulated. The statements, drawn from 'available therapeutic protocols' (reworded for clarity), are mostly very general assertions and are not situationally specified, e.g. I am shy, confused, a failure, disturbed, hopeless, unreliable, worthless, optimistic, impulsive, rational, poised, tolerant.

A novel form of Q-sorting has been developed by Block (1961). The "Adjective Q-set", as it is called, employs easily understood adjectives, which are 'sorted' by a numbering technique as opposed to physical sorting. It is based on a forced-rectangular rather than a forced-normal distribution.

In the majority of Q-sorts, self-esteem is assessed by the degree of discrepancy between the self and self-ideal of the individual - the greater the discrepancy the lower the self-esteem and vice versa. A further measure may also be obtained by comparing the individual's self-description with that of the "healthy" individual as prescribed on the basis of clinical judgements.

There are, however, several problems associated with measurement techniques that use the difference between a respondent's "actual" or "present" self and his "ideal" or "aspired" self as an index of self-esteem.

Swinehart (1961) states that the major weakness in the above approach is the frequent failure to establish a baseline for comparisons in measuring the discrepancy. The absolute size of the discrepancy usually being taken as a measure of self-esteem without regard for the subject's satisfaction with his "actual" self-evaluation or the acceptability of a

given discrepancy as the subject perceives it. He points out that self-acceptance does not necessarily imply high self-esteem since it may, in fact, be based on a realistic recognition of some falling short of an ideal. If this holds true, he says, extremely low actual-ideal discrepancies on rating scales are likely to reflect defensiveness rather than high self-esteem.

Sundland (1962) points out that due to the interrelatedness between items which constitute Q-sorts, investigators have obtained spurious results due to an overestimation of the correlation coefficient and the degrees of freedom of their Q-sorts.

Other criticisms of the Q-sort method range from the fact that mere correlations between self and ideal do not reveal important differences in patterning (i. e. two people with the same self-ideal correlation coefficient may have very different self-descriptions), to the time-consuming nature of such tests (which poses problems of recall).

Swinehart (1961) maintains that a good measure based on actual-ideal discrepancies should include some assessment of the importance of each self-evaluative dimension for the subject, the "actual" and "ideal" positions on each of these dimensions and the acceptability of each position to the subject. They should also include the acceptability

of discrepancies of various sizes on each dimension, and the subject's estimation of his ability to reduce the size of unacceptable discrepancies.

3.2.2 While developing the semantic differential technique, which was originally intended to measure the meaning of an object or event to a person rather than his attitude towards it, Osgood and his co-workers discovered three general factors of meaning that are measured by this technique - "evaluative", "Potency", and "activity". They postulated that if an attitude toward the self is conceived of as self-evaluation, then the semantic differential scales that load high on the evaluative factor may be used to measure attitudes toward the self.

This method requires a subject to rate the self on a number of seven-point bipolar scales, thus indicating both the direction and intensity of his feelings about himself on several dimensions. Discrepancy scores between self and ideal-self are calculated in much the same way as in the Q-sort method. Thus the usual problems associated with dimension selection and weighting, and the use of discrepancy scores are faced by researches using this method.

Pervin and Lilly's (1967) findings (q.v.) that a source of small

self-ideal discrepancies may be due to the need for social approval are particularly relevant here since these findings are based on research with semantic differential scales.

3.2.3 A popular method of measuring self-esteem and other aspects of the self-concept is through the use of five or seven point Likert-type scales. Here the respondent is presented with self-descriptive statements and is asked to rate their applicability to himself, usually along the dimension "never ... most of the time" or "very unlike me ... very much like me". Integral values are assigned to each scale point and the total scores are usually obtained by simple summation. Statements may be worded positively or negatively to avoid acquiescence.

A criticism of the Likert-type scales is that the total number of items may be considerably more salient to some individuals than others.

Shaw and Wright (1967) have pointed out that :

The 'undecided' category is often considered as a zero or neutral point of an item, and by analogy, the zero point of a scale might be taken as the attitude score corresponding to the score that would be obtained if the individual checked 'undecided' for every item in the scale. However, this interpretation is ambiguous, since such a score could be

achieved by checking the undecided category for all items, by checking 'strongly agree' for half of the items and 'strongly disagree' for the other half, or through some similar combination of agree/disagree responses (p.24).

3.2.4 These same criticisms may be levelled at Check lists. This method is similar to the Likert method except that they do not allow for distinctions of degree on each item - only acceptance or rejection is indicated. Scoring is also accomplished by the simple summation of the checks.

### 3.3 The Measure Used

It is thus clear that, before being able to ascertain whether or not the Coloureds and the Whites differ with regard to their general level of self-esteem, a number of factors concerning the means of obtaining the required measures of self-esteem had to be considered. They are :

Firstly, the number of subjects. To be able to make any meaningful statement about the self-esteem of the Afrikaans, Coloured and English groups, a minimum sample of about 100 subjects per language and race group is required. Since the total sample comprised over 400 subjects and the study was a short term one, the feasibility of using

interviews and projective techniques was ruled out.

Secondly, the measures used would have to be able to be applied effectively to different race and language groups.

Thirdly, the possibility of subjects giving socially desirous responses would have to be countered.

And fourthly, the measures must be considered to have acceptable validity and reliability.

On the basis of the above criteria, the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) was considered to be by far the most appropriate measure to be used in this study.

The SEI has both a high reliability and high validity. There have been over 150 studies with a total of over 40,000 subjects which have used the SEI. Fullerton (1972) reports a split-half reliability figure of .87 and Taylor and Feitz one of .90. Test retest reliabilities of .88 over five weeks and .70 over three years (Coopersmith, 1967, p.10) have been reported, while that given by Fullerton (1972) over a 12 month interval is .64. On the basis of the findings of various studies, Coopersmith reports that the SEI scale has considerable construct validity. These studies have shown that the SEI scores are related to

creativity, academic achievement, resistance to group pressures, willingness to express unpopular opinions, perceptual constancy (all Coopersmith, 1967); perceived reciprocal liking (Simon and Bernstein 1971); perceived popularity (Simon 1972); general and test anxiety (Many, 1973); selection of difficult tasks (Goodstadt and Kipinis 1971); effective communication between parents and youth (Matheson 1973); and family adjustment (Matheson 1973).<sup>1</sup>

The SEI is self-administering and takes only 10-15 minutes to complete. Robinson and Shaver (1970), in their review of some of the more important self-esteem measures, have said "it has been used in extensive research and found to have considerable validity" (p. 59). One criticism which may be levelled at it, however, is that high correlations with social desirability have been found. This has, to some extent, been counteracted with the 8-item lie scale.

The SEI is a check list (see Appendix I). Most of the 50 items were based on items selected from the Rogers and Dymond (1954) scale (an overall measure of self-regard of the Q-sort type). Five psychologists classified them as indicative of high or low self-esteem. Ambiguous items or items about which there was disagreement, were eliminated. The items were then tested for comprehensibility by 30 children, (the SEI was originally designed for children from ages 8-10,

<sup>1</sup> Above information supplied by personal communication with Coopersmith, July 1974.

but it has been used often, with minor changes, on adults). A further eight items, which make up a Lie Scale (which measures the degree of defence - social desirability leanings), have been added. The items are generally short statements and are answered 'like me' or 'unlike me' (see Appendix 1). The 50 items are concerned with the subject's self-attitudes in four areas : those relating to peers, parents, academic life and personal interests.

#### 4. DESIGN OF THE PRESENT STUDY

##### 4.1 The Sample Groups Chosen

In order to ascertain whether or not the Coloureds differ with regard to self-esteem from their white counterparts, the following six sample groups were chosen to be compared with one another : Firstly, the entire standard four classes of Kingswood College (English Medium), St. Mary's School (Coloured), and Laërskool P.J. Olivier (Afrikaans Medium). All schools are located in Grahamstown, Cape Province. And, secondly, subjects consisting mainly of first and second year students at the Universities of Stellenbosch (Afrikaans), Rhodes (English), and University of the Western Cape (Coloured).

It was decided to use the standard 4 classes as one set of the sample group for two reasons : Firstly, they would fall in the age group 10-12 years - an age at which the personality has been relatively well-formed, but before the onset of adolescence, characterized by rapid internal and external change which very likely may result in marked fluctuations in self-esteem. And, secondly,

because it was decided to investigate the possibility of cross-cultural differences in self-esteem existing between pre-and post-adolescents.

The primary factor governing the choice of the second sample set (namely the post-adolescents) was that of finding a cohesive group of adults that would be prepared to submit themselves as subjects for a research project. An obvious choice was university students. The choice of university students, though restricted in terms of socio-economic standard and level of education, was considered to be acceptable because the University of the Western Cape, being the only Coloured university in South Africa, has approximately 97% of all full-time Coloured (university) students. The two white universities chosen were considered to be sufficiently representative of white Southern African students. Since the possibility that differences in self-esteem might exist between the English and Afrikaans sections of the White group could not be excluded, it was decided to include samples of both in the different sample sets.

The standard 4 sample from St. Mary's School was considered to be entirely representative of all socio-economic levels of the Coloured community of Grahamstown (as evidenced by the Headmistress and two teachers as well as the Headmaster of the Coloured senior school). The total sample comprised of 66 children (33 males and 33 females), divided

into A and B streams. There were no absentees.

Similarly, P.J. Olivier sample was considered to be as representative of the white Afrikaans community at large (by the same criteria). A total sample of 48 subjects (29 females, 19 males), also subdivided into A and B streams, was obtained. There were five absentees, all males, three of whom were from the A stream.

The Kingswood sample, however, was considered not to be represented in the lower class, and under-represented in the lower-middle sector. A sample of 42 subjects (33 male, 9 female) also divided into A and B streams was obtained. There were no absentees.

The sample of English-speaking university students consisted of 160 Psychology I students, (78 first year females, 51 first year males, 22 second year females and 9 second year males). The sample was obtained from all those present at a Psychology I lecture, and was considered to be representative of Rhodes students since each of the following faculties/ departments were represented by more than 10 subjects - Arts, Social Science, Physical Education, Journalism, Commerce and Science.

The Afrikaans-speaking student sample comprised 69 subjects, (4 female first years, 13 female second years, 11 female from third, fourth and fifth years, 11 male first years, 14 male second years, and

16 males from third, fourth and fifth years). The male sample (N=41), which was drawn from a university residence, consisted of all those students, who, having played sport in the afternoon, had dinner later than the rest of the members of that residence (the residence had a total of 182 male students). The female sample consisted of the first 28 students that came into the lounge for evening coffee in a women's residence (which had a total of 152 residents). Both residences were described as typical of Stellenbosch residences (Buro vir Studente-voorligting), and contained students from all university departments and year groups.

In order to obtain a sample at the University of the Western Cape, the names of 90 of the 300 second year students were chosen by means of calculating a constant interval - thus giving each student an equal chance for selection. Each of the 90 students were asked, by post, whether or not they would be prepared to act as subjects in a pencil and paper research programme. 29 positive responses were obtained, (17 males, 12 females - Arts, N = 17, Fine Arts I, Law 2, Education 2, Science 3, Commerce 4). A further 12 subjects (9 male, 3 female) from a Sociology I tutorial group, (no absentees).

#### 4.2 Problems Inherent in the Cross-Cultural Measurement of Self-Esteem

#### 4.2 Problems Inherent in the Cross-Cultural Measurement of Self-Esteem

One of the major problems faced in a study of self-esteem across cultures is that of cross-cultural equivalence and the application of methods to various cultures. Since the data relevant to the present study was obtained by the questionnaire method, an important task was to ensure that the measure used could safely be said to extract the same information from the different racial and language groups.

Since some of the sample groups were Afrikaans-speaking (Coloureds and Whites), it was necessary to translate the SEI. This was accomplished by means of the "back-translation technique". This method, which has received more research attention than any other, and is also the one most frequently used, is considered, at present, to be the best (Brislin and Thorndike, 1973). It involves three steps :

- (1) the translation of the original by a bilingual
- (2) the ('target') translation is then translated back into the original language (back-translation) by another bilingual
- (3) the original version is then compared with the back-translation, thus allowing inferences to be made about the quality of the 'target'.

In order to satisfy the above criteria, the following procedure was adopted. The SEI was translated by an Afrikaans linguist. Copies of this translation were then scrutinized by the Headmaster of a Coloured senior school (Grahamstown), and two Coloured teachers, one of whom was the Standard 4 master and thus had a thorough knowledge of the 10-12 age group vocabulary. A number of adjustments were made to those statements which were considered to be at too high a level for the Coloured pupils - 15 statements were altered. The translated inventory (original translation) plus the 15 changed items were then back-translated by three Coloured school teachers, all of whom were considered to be fully bilingual by the author and the Headmaster of the Coloured senior school. A further back-translation was obtained from a (white) teacher who taught in both English and Afrikaans and was considered fully bilingual by the author. All of those involved in the back-translation had qualifications in both languages at the higher level from teacher training colleges. The four back-translations were then compared with the original versions of the SEI by the author and a B.A. graduate (English), asking whether the meanings of the statements were : (1) precisely the same, (2) virtually the same, (3) ambiguous and (4) not the same. It was found by both scrutineers that none of the four back-translations had statements in categories (3) and (4) above, and not more than four in category (2). The translations were thus considered

to be adequately translated. It was decided to use the original translation on the Afrikaans and Coloured university students and the translation with the 15 simplified statements on the Coloured and Afrikaans pupils - in light of the fact that the original translation was thought to contain items above the level of the 10-12 year age group.

The Coloureds form, by and large, part of that section of the South African population (which includes, of course, the English and Afrikaans white community) that represents the western way of life in this country. "They are mainly western in culture, social life, religion and language, and are closely integrated in the western economy of South Africa", (Cilliers, 1963, p. 24).

Since the problems of questionnaire translation are considered to have been satisfactorily dealt with, and in the light of the cultural equivalence of Coloured and Whites, it is held that the considerations surrounding cross-cultural equivalence are not significant factors that need be accounted for in the SEI analysis of the different language and race groups.

#### 4.3 Other Measures

It was originally intended to use the Behaviour Rating Form (qv.) as a second measure of self-esteem. However, since the raters would

have to be drawn from different language and race groups, it was felt that any differences which might be found between the samples could be attributed to raters having different affiliations. A further reason for not using the BRF was that it would be difficult to find raters who could be considered to have the required knowledge of the adult subjects.

In order to obtain further data that could lend credibility to the measurements obtained on the SEI, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and the Low Self-Esteem Scale were administered to the 160 subjects from Rhodes University, (who also completed the SED). It is argued that significant associations between the three measures would indicate such credibility. A further reason for using the Rosenberg Scale arises from the fact that van der Westerhuyzen (1967) used this measure in his study on the self-esteem of Coloureds and Whites and thus more direct comparisons between this and the present study could be made.

4.3.1 Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale This scale (see Appendix 1) which purports to measure attitudes towards the self along a favourable to unfavourable dimension, was designed according to Rosenberg's (1965) conception of self-esteem :

When we speak of high self-esteem we shall simply mean that the individual respects himself, considers himself worthy, he does not necessarily consider himself better than

others, but he definitely does not consider himself worse, he does not feel that he is the ultimate in perfection but, on the contrary, recognizes his limitations and expects to grow and improve (p.16).

The scale consists of 10 items (similar in nature to those of Coopersmith's), and are of the Likert type. Four responses are allowed : strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree.

Using the Guttman procedure, the reproducibility of this scale was 72% for Rosenberg's sample of 5,024 students. He also cites (p. 30) Sitber and Tippet who found a test-retest reliability of .85 over a two-week interval.

Several attempts were made to ensure validity :

- (1) fifty young adult 'normal volunteers' employed by the National Institute of Mental Health filled out the self-esteem scale and were independantly rated by ward nurses on the Leary Scales. A significant (negative) association was obtained between self-esteem scores and depression as judged by the nurses, (the judgement of the nurses was such that high self-esteem scorers were somewhat more likely than low scorers to 'be able to criticise the self', thus supporting Rosenberg's contention of recognised limitation).
- (2) In a larger survey (N = 5,024), a significant (negative)

correlation between self-esteem and depressive effect was reported.

- (3) A significant (negative) correlation was obtained between self-esteem and a number of psychosomatic symptoms.
- (4) There was a significant (positive) correlation between self-esteem and choice as a class leader in a sociometric study with 272 high school seniors.

#### 4.2.2 Low Self-Esteem Scale (Hunt, Singer and Cobb, 1967).

This scale was originally intended to be part of an inventory to measure various manifestations of depression. Singer (1964) noted, in a review of the literature, that a central dimension in the syndrome of depression is lowered self-esteem.

Most of the (11) items (see Appendix 1) were selected from a previous study by Grinker et. al. (1961) and were converted to five-point, Likert-type scales. The responses allowed are very untrue, somewhat untrue, neither true nor untrue, somewhat true, very true. Index construction was gauged by factor-analytic results (Grinker, et. al., 1961), and by the face validity of the items. Most of the items of the depression inventory (in which one of the variables was self-esteem), have been included in a card-sort measure. A factor analysis of the inventory revealed factors corresponding to most of the affective dimensions, (one of which was self-esteem). This inventory was vali-

dated and tested for reliability using psychiatric outpatients and normal samples, all of whom were between the ages of 35-59, were married and were blue-collar workers.

The test-retest reliability over a three to four week interval was .72 for the low self-esteem index. The mean inter-item correlation for the low self-esteem scale is .32.

In a current longitudinal study of blue-collar workers, who lost their jobs due to a plant closing, interviewer ratings of self-esteem are correlated with the card sort self-esteem index. Preliminary analysis suggests that these correlations vary from a low of .10 to a high of .50 with the correlations tending to increase with time since the plant closed, (Cobb et. al., 1966).

Diagnostic summaries from clinical case records for the patient sample were coded for mention of depression by a trained staff member. It was found that the mean scores on the low self-esteem and retardation indices discriminated significantly between patients diagnosed as depressed, and the normal sample. These indices appear to have significant concurrent validity, (Hunt et. al., 1967).

#### 4.4 Administration of Inventories

The administration of the inventories at Kingswood and St. Mary's were precisely the same. Subjects were told by the experimenter that the questions to be answered bore no relation to schoolwork or intelligence and it was emphasized that the results would be confidential and they were thus asked not to write their names on the questionnaires. Subjects were then asked to read the instructions which were printed on the top of the first page and to indicate, by raising their hand, if any problems were encountered. Once the experimenter had made sure, by asking, whether or not the instructions were understood, the subjects were again assured of their anonymity and thus requested to be as honest as was possible and to make sure that they did not leave out any answers. They were then informed that there was no time limit and that they should remain silent until all had finished. The SEI was administered to the A and B forms separately - there was no communication between the classes as the testing took place during one period.

The only difference with administration with the P.J. Olivier sample was that the A and B forms wrote the test at the same time and in the same room.

The experimenter for all the pupil-sessions was the author. In all cases the class teacher remained in the classrooms, but was occupied with marking or similar business.

The test conditions and instructions at Rhodes and the University of the Western Cape were the same as the above except for the following : at Rhodes the experimenter (the author) was the only person present other than the subjects - who were tested at the same time and place ; at the University of the Western Cape the experimenters were a sociology lecturer and a research worker (Buro vir Sosiaal-Wetenskaplike Navorsing) - both white, and the second year subjects were tested at a different time and venue from those of the Sociology I subjects.

At the University of Stellenbosch the males were tested under the normal conditions - the experimenter was a student advisor. The conditions of the female subjects differed, though instructions were the same - they answered the questionnaires in their rooms by themselves. The experimenter was a final year psychology student.

The differences in the testing conditions were not considered sufficient to influence the results obtained in any way.

## 5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The SES and LSES, administered only to the Rhodes sample (N = 157), were used so as to lend greater credibility to the SEI measure. Spearman Rank correlation coefficients of 0.65 or above, between the SEI, LSES and SES respectively, were considered significant ( $p \leq 0.01$ ), and were taken as indicating that the same variable had been tapped.

The measure used on all sample groups was the SEI. Scores obtained by this method are seen to be indicative of the evaluation that the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself. The decision as to whether or not the various sample groups can be said to differ meaningfully from one another is dependent on the probability level associated with the t-values of the groups compared, (probability cut-off point :  $p \leq 0.05$ ). Groups that did not differ from one another as described above were assumed not to differ meaningfully, i. e. they were seen to hold similar levels of self-esteem.

### 5.1 Correlations : SEI, Self-Esteem Scale (SES), Low-Self-Esteem Scale (LSES)

The Spearman Rank Correlation coefficients between the SEI and the

two other measures of self-esteem used in this study were computed.<sup>1</sup> The subjects comprised the total white English-speaking university sample, (N = 157 - three of the subjects failed to complete all three inventories). It is evident (see Table I) that particularly high correlations for both the SES and the LSES, with the SEI, were obtained.

Table I

Scales	Spearman's R	Variance of R
SEI/LSES	0.964	0.08
SEI/SES	0.970	0.08

## 5.2 SEI Data

5.2.1 General The results of this study are summarised in Table 2. The mean self-esteem score obtained by all the Coloured subjects (61.87) differs considerably from that of the total white sample (68.11). This difference is significant at the 0.001 level (see Table 3).<sup>2</sup> The difference in the mean scores obtained by the white pupil sample (63.91) and their Coloured counterparts is also significant ( $p < 0.01$ ). However,

<sup>1</sup> All SES and LSES scores were multiplied by 2.5 and 10 respectively so as to give maximum possible score on each scale = 100.

<sup>2</sup> Two-tailed tests were used throughout.

there is no significant difference between the mean scores of the Coloured

Table 2

Groups and Subgroups	Testing Location	No. S's	Mean	SEI Scores Std. Dev.	Mean Lie <sup>1</sup>
Afrikaans : Pupils	Gtn.	48	66.00	13.38	4.58
Students	S'bosch	69	71.88	13.36	5.96
Total	-	117	69.47	13.62	5.39
Coloureds : Pupils	Gtn.	66	57.03	13.90	3.74
Students	B'ville.	41	69.65	14.21	5.37
Total	-	107	61.87	15.26	4.36
English : Pupils	Gtn.	42	61.52	16.63	6.43
Students	Gtn.	160	68.46	13.77	6.28
Total	-	202	67.02	14.64	6.31
All Whites Pupils	-	90	63.91	15.06	-
Students	-	229	69.75	13.13	-
Total	-	319	68.11	13.92	-

<sup>1</sup> Lie Scale : 1 = Most defensive  
8 = Least defensive

students (69.659) and those of the white students (69.75) (see Table 3).

Table 3<sup>1</sup>

Groups	t	p	df
All subjects : Col's vs. Whites	3.913	p < 0.01	424
Pupils : Col's vs. Whites	2.911	p < 0.01	154
Students : Col's vs. Whites	0.043	N.S	268

<sup>1</sup> Probability cut-off point  
p ≤ 0.05

#### 5.2.2 Analyses according to race, language and educational level

Since the total sample was drawn from two widely differing educational levels, and as the white sample consisted of two different language groups, it was decided to analyse the results on the basis of race and language differences as well as educational level (i.e. age).

Table 4

Groups	t	p	df
Pupils			
Col's vs. Eng. Wh.	1.516	N.S.	106
Col's vs. Afr. Wh.	3.455	p < 0.01	112
Eng. vs. Afr. Wh.	1.414	N.S.	88

(Cont)

Table 4 (Cont)

Groups	t	p	df
Students			
Col's vs. Eng. Wh.	0.355	N.S.	199
Col's vs. Afr. Wh.	0.825	N.S.	108
Eng. vs. Afr. Wh.	1.590	N.S.	227

Looking at Tables 1 and 4, it will be seen that when the six sample groups are compared with their respective counterparts according to race, language, and level of education, then the only significant difference in mean self-esteem scores is that between the Coloured and the Afrikaans-speaking white pupils ( $p < 0.01$ ).

5.2.3 Analyses according to educational level only. In order to assess whether or not any differences in self-esteem existed between pre-adolescents and young adults, the scores of the pupils and students were compared within language and race groups. The SEI scores obtained by the pupils and students within each language and race group (see Table 2) show that significant differences were found between all the groups (see Table 5) - the largest occurring between the Coloured Students and pupils ( $p < 0.001$ ).

Table 5

Pupils vs. Students	t	p	df
Coloureds	4.529	p < 0.001	105
Afrikaans	2.342	p < 0.05	115
English	3.243	p < 0.01	200

5.2.4 Interaction. Interaction of population groups (Coloured, English, and Afrikaans) and educational level (pupils and students) was assessed in an analysis of variance, (2 x 3 with replicates). However, before being able to conduct the analysis, the problem of unequal numbers in the cells had to be considered.

When the numbers of cases per cell do not differ greatly, procedures such as those suggested by Kirk (1968, p.200-208) can be followed. In this instance, where one of the sample groups (i.e. Rhodes students) was approximately three times the size of each of the remaining five groups, it seemed advisable and correct to limit the number of observations in each of the six sample groups to 41 (the number of subjects in the smallest sample). This was accomplished by selecting an equal (or nearly equal) number of the subjects from the first subjects in each sample sub-category. Six new samples, each

containing 41 observations, were obtained, e.g. P.J. Olivier - the first 11 females and 10 males from the A class, and the first 10 females and 10 males from the B class.

It is argued that, had the decision been made (prior to testing) to obtain equal observations in each of the six sample groups, the process of selection would have been precisely the same.

Since the inventories were collected in (seating) rows and then sorted for sex, the final order was considered to be random.

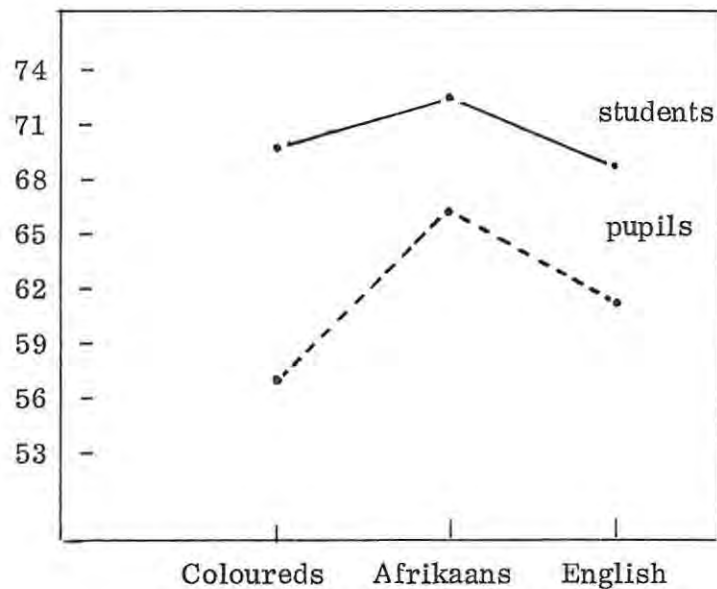
The mean SEI scores of the six 'new' samples differed with their originals by less than 0.232 except perhaps for Rhodes, which was (-) 3.033. The standard deviations in all groups differed by 0.464 or less.

Table 6

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Educational Level	1	3824.797	3824.797	19.519	<0.001
Population Groups	2	1374.569	687.285	3.507	<0.05
Interaction	2	781.008	390.504	1.993	N.S.
Error	240	47028.878	195.954		
Total	245	53009.252	216.364		

As can be seen when looking at Table 6, the main effects due to the education level (age) variable is considerable, ( $p < 0.001$ ) while variability caused by the different race groups, though significant, ( $p < 0.05$ ), is noticeably smaller. The assessment of the joint effects (i. e. the interaction) of the education level and different population groups did not prove to be significant (see Tables 6 and 7). The joint effects were found to be additive, as is born out by a graphic representation of the mean scores (see Table 7).

Table 7



5.2.5 Self-esteem in four areas : peers, parents, academic life, and personal interests. Since the scores obtained by the Afrikaans, Coloured, and English pupil groups and the respective student samples in the above four categories were so similar in terms of their proportion to the total self-esteem score (see Appendix 2.2.1/6), no further analyses were conducted in this area.

5.2.6 Lie Scores

Table 8

Groups	t	p	df
Pupils			
Col's vs. Eng. Wh.	1.065	NS	106
Col's vs. Afr. Wh.	0.356	NS	112
Eng. vs. Afr. Wh.	0.674	NS	88
Students			
Col's vs. Eng. Wh.	0.426	NS	199
Col's vs. Afr. Wh.	0.251	NS	108
Eng. vs. Afr. Wh.	0.177	NS	227

As can be seen from the t-scores in Table 8, there are no

significant differences between the lie scores of the Afrikaans, Coloureds or Whites at both the pupil and student level.

### 5.3 Conclusions

The major purpose underlying the use of two additional measures of self-esteem (i. e. the SES and LSES) was to lend greater validity and credibility to the data obtained by means of the SEI. Since particularly high correlations between both the SEI and SES (0.970) and SEI and LSES (0.964) were obtained and since all three measures purport to measure the same factor (i. e. self-esteem) it is considered, with reasonable surity, (apart from the other forms of validity put forward in Chapter III) that the variable that was tapped was self-esteem.

Inspection of the initial analysis of the data (i. e. the total Coloured sample versus the total white sample) appeared to refute the hypothesis that Coloureds do not necessarily have lower self-esteem than their white counterparts (the difference between these two groups was significant at the 0.001 level). However, more detailed analyses of the data revealed that this was not in fact the case.

When subjects were divided according to educational level (age) and compared with regard to race, the picture presented is somewhat

different.

The differences between the scores of the white pupils (63.91) and the Coloured pupils (57.03) was significant ( $p < 0.01$ ).

However, when the white pupil sample was divided into its respective language groups, the Coloureds were only found to differ significantly with their Afrikaans-speaking white counterparts.

At the student level, no significant differences were found between the total white sample and the Coloured sample. Once the white student sample had been divided according to language, the Coloureds were found to have a higher mean self-esteem score than the white English-speaking student sample, though smaller than the Afrikaans-speaking white group.

The large and significant differences found between pre-adolescents and young adults within all language and race groups appears to indicate that a part, if not a significant part, of the initial difference found between the total Coloured and total white samples may be attributed to the difference shown in educational (i. e. age) level. The analysis of variance revealed that the major source of variance was due to the age factor ( $p < 0.001$ ), while that of the population groups was only significant at the 0.05 level. This, and the fact that the interaction of

the age and population group variables proved to be additive, appears to support the above point of view.

It appears then, that the hypothesis put forward in this study is fully supported at the student level, but that significant differences in self-esteem do still exist at the pupil level - though only between the Afrikaans-speaking pupils and the Coloured pupils. The fact that the Coloured pupils do not have a lower mean self-esteem score than their English-speaking counterparts indicates that overall racial differences in self-esteem at the pupil level are not particularly large. The difference between mean self-esteem scores of Coloured and English-speaking pupils found by van der Westhuyzen (1967) was significant at the 0.05 level. Thus, since there were no significant differences found between the same groups in this study, the indication is that the level of the Coloureds' self-esteem has in fact risen.

An artifact inherent in the Coloured pupil sample of this study can be said to account for lower self-esteem scores than might have been the case had this sample been drawn from a more representative group :

A study by Ridd and Edmonstone (1972) found the Coloured community of Grahamstown not only to be economically deprived but also structured in such a way so that it inhibits spontaneous

regeneration and progress. Despite the fact that education is controlled by the elected Coloured Representative Council, there is little political activity and discussion - what there is, is limited to election periods. The very low correlations, and sometimes even lack of correlation, between economic circumstances and mobility indices found in their study indicate the Coloured people's inability to extricate themselves from their deprived situation. They also found, among other things, isolation of this community from other Coloured communities, and other racial groups at the local level, feelings of inferiority with regard to privileged groups, lack of confidence and self-respect, dejection, lack of hope and demoralization - facts vitally important for a healthy development of self-esteem.

It is significant that the proportion of the four sub-divisions to the total self-esteem scores of all the sample groups were found to be very similar. It would be expected, where there are significant differences in self-esteem according to race, that there would be a disparity between race groups in the make-up of self-esteem in terms of personal interests, peers, home-parents, and academic life. The deprived and derogated racial group should score proportionally lower, e.g. in the academic sphere, since they are aware, particularly in South Africa, that their standard of education is not on a par with that of their White counterparts. This, however, was not found to be the

case.

The lie scores obtained by all three student samples are high and hardly differ from one another, thus indicating honest and not 'socially desirable' responses. However, while the lie scores of the three pupil groups do not differ significantly from one another, the English speaking pupils score is the only high one. The indication is that the Afrikaans pupils gave somewhat socially desirous responses, and the Coloured pupils appear to be defensive with regard to their self-esteem. The latter's defensive reaction is perhaps to be expected, particularly when bearing in mind their socially depressed state. Also, since they were fully aware that the inventories were to be analysed by whites. The apparent defensive nature of the Afrikaans pupils does not appear to have a credible explanation.

There is a possibility that the method used for selecting subjects for the Coloured student sample (i. e. 30 of the subjects came from positive responses in the post) may have given rise to this group being composed of subjects with selected self-esteem levels. However, the lie score of this group would not appear to support this argument. Furthermore, there is not a significant difference between the scores of the 'postal response' subjects and the remainder of the subjects who comprised a full tutorial group.

#### 5.4 Implications Arising

Traditionally, the Coloureds of South Africa have been thought of as people with low self-esteem (q.v.). Van der Westhuyzen (1967) reported that the self-esteem of Coloured and English speaking white pupils differed significantly. In the U.S.A., the self-esteem of the Negro, traditionally low, has risen to become much the same as their white counterparts. This change is thought to have come about mainly as a result of the preachings of Black Power and the like.

In South Africa, similar movements for the past eight years have begun to influence South African Blacks. Results obtained in this study appear to indicate that a trend similar to that in the U.S.A. has begun to affect the South African Coloured community :

Firstly, the Coloured student sample did not differ significantly from the white group with regard to self-esteem, in fact, the Coloureds exhibited a higher mean self-esteem score than their white English-speaking counterparts.

At the pupil level, their scores did not differ significantly from the English-speaking pupils. Without taking into consideration the depressed state of the Coloured pupil sample used in this study, it

appears that the trend in the U.S.A. is also evident at the pupil level.

While the sample groups chosen in this study may not be representative of the Coloured community as a whole, the indication is that their level of self-esteem is rising, if it has not already become equivalent to that of the Whites. The indication, from results obtained by Lobban (1970), is that the self-esteem of (urban) Africans is also rising. It is therefore apparent that there are distinct similarities between the rise of the American Negroes' self-esteem, and the apparent increase of the self-esteem of South African Blacks.

Perhaps the most important and relevant question arising from these similarities is whether or not Black-White relations in South Africa will follow the same pattern that emerged in the United States in the 1960's : Nineteen sixty-eight saw the culmination of the frustrations of the Negroes manifested in the form of severe racial strife. The inquiry conducted by the National Advisory Committee on Civil Disorders (1968) concluded that the root cause of this strife was from the Negroes' aspirations being thwarted.

The Negroes have had various 'roles' in American society. Firstly, as slaves, then as 'second-class' citizens, and finally for the past few decades, as citizens with 'theoretical' equal rights and

opportunities. This 'equality' did not work in practice because of the persisting negative attitudes held towards Negroes by white Americans. The introduction of the Civil Rights Bill (1958) raised the Negroes' expectations and aspirations. For the first time, Blacks felt that true equality in education, social life, and job opportunities was within their grasp - as evidenced by the rise in their self-esteem. However, the negative attitudes of the Whites prevailed, as did discrimination. With increased self-esteem and the negative attitudes persisting, frustrations escalated and violence eventually erupted.

It appears that a rise in the self-esteem and aspirations of discriminated groups is dependent on two inter-related variables. Firstly, factors generated within the group itself : e.g. Black Power movements which encourage individuals to make more positive evaluations of their self-esteem. And secondly, those attitudes, held by the discriminating group, which serve to reinforce these positive evaluations : e.g. Civil Rights bills and other anti-discriminatory legislation. The South African Government appears intent on introducing such reinforcers - it is now their stated policy to move away from discriminatory legislation.

The findings of this study indicate that an internally generated reappraisal of self-esteem has taken place amongst the Coloureds.

Lobban (1970) has found a similar trend amongst urban Blacks. Whether or not the South African Government does do away with discriminatory legislation is now of little relevance. The mere fact that it has been publically acknowledged by the white government that South Africa must move away from racial discrimination should be sufficient to reinforce this rise in the Blacks' self-esteem and aspirations.

There are two implications arising from the above. Firstly, the ability of white South Africans to adopt more realistic attitudes towards Blacks will decide whether or not the Blacks' will be allowed to strive for their aspirations. Secondly, if rising expectations of Blacks are not met, confrontation seems inevitable.

## REFERENCES

- Allport, G.W. Becoming : basic considerations for a psychology of personality. New Haven : Yale Univ. Press, 1955
- Adam, H. Modernizing racial domination : South Africa's political dynamics. Univ. Calif. (Berkeley). Press, 1971.
- Adam, H. (Ed.) South Africa : sociological perspectives. London Oxford Univ. Press, 1971.
- Bandura, A. Transmission of patterns of self reinforcement through modelling. J. abnormal soc. psychol., 1964, 69, 1, 1-9.
- Bandura, A. Principles of behavioural modification. N.Y. : Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1968.
- Bandura, A. Ross, D. & Ross, S. A comparative test of the status envy, social power, and secondary reinforcement theories of identification learning. J. abnormal. soc. psychol., 1963, 67, 527-534.
- Baughman, E.E. Black americans. N.Y. : Academic Press, 1971.
- Baughman, E.E. & Dahlstrom W.G. Negro and white children : a psychological study in the rural south. N.Y. : Academic Press, 1968.
- Block, J. A comparison of the forced and enforced Q-sorting procedures. Educational and psychological measurement, 1956, 61, 481-493.
- Bramel, D. Dissonance, expectation, and the self. In Abelson et. al. (Eds.). Theories of cognitive consistency : A sourcebook. Chicago : Rand McNally, 1968.
- Bridgette, R.E. Self-esteem in negro and white southern adolescents. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation cited in Baughman (1971) op. cit., p.52-55.
- Brislin, R.W., Lonner, W.J., and Thorndike, M.M. Cross-Cultural research methods. N.Y. : Wiley, 1973.

- Campbell and Fiske (1955), cited in Robinson and Shaver (1970),  
op. cit. p.50.
- Cilliers, S.F. The Coloureds of South Africa : A factual survey.  
Cape Town. Banner, 1963.
- Cilliers, S.P. Wes-Kaapland : 'n Sosio-ekonomiese studie.  
Univ. van Stell., Kosmo, 1964.
- Cobb et. al. (1966) cited in Robinson and Shaver (1970) op. cit.,  
p.112.
- Cohen (1957) and Cohen et. al. (1959) cited in Wylie (1961) op.  
cit., p.34.
- Cooley, C.H. Human nature and the social order. N.Y. :  
Scribner's, 1922.
- Coopersmith, S. A method for determining types of self-esteem.  
J. abnormal soc. psychol., 59, 87-94.
- Coopersmith, S. The antecedents of self-esteem. San Francisco :  
W.H. Freeman, 1968.
- Cronbach, L.J. (1946, 1950) cited in Wylie (1961) op. cit. p.50.
- Crowne and Marlow (1960) cited in Pervin and Lilly (1967) op. cit.,  
p.845.
- Dahlstrom, W.G. and Baughman, E.E. Social learning and personality  
development, N.Y. Holt, Rinehardt and Winston, 1963.
- Deutsch, M., Katz, I. and Jensen, A.R. (Eds.) Social class, race,  
and psychological development. N.Y. : Holt, Rinehardt and  
Winston, 1968.
- Dickie-Clark, H.F. The marginal situation, Routledge and Keegan  
Paul, London 1966.
- Diggory, J.C. Self-evaluation : Concepts and studies. N.Y. : 1966.
- Diller, L. Conscious and unconscious self-attitudes after success  
and failure. J. of personality, 1954, 23, 1-12.

- Dollard, J. & Miller, N.E. Social learning and imitation. New Haven, Conn. : Yale, 1941.
- Freud, S. (1914, 1920, 1921). Cited in Diggory (1966) op. cit., p.21-31, 99-101.
- Festinger, L. A theory of cognitive dissonance. Chapter in Hollander et. al. (Eds.), (1965) op. cit.
- Gecas, V. The development of self-concept in the child : mirror theory versus model theory. J. soc. psychol., 1974, 92, 67-76.
- Gibson, C.F. Concerning colour. Psycho-anal. review, 1931, 18, 413-425.
- Grambs, J.D. (1965). The self-concept : basis of re-education of negro youth. Chapter in Kvaraceus et. al. (1965), op. cit.
- Greenhaus, J.H. & Badin, J.J. Self-esteem, performance, and satisfaction : some tests of a theory. J. app. Psychol., 1974, 59, 6, 722-726.
- Grier, W.H. & Cobbs, P.M. Black Rage. N.Y. : Basic Books, 1965.
- Grinker (1961) cited in Robinson et. al., op. cit., 1970, p.111-113.
- Hollander, H.H. & Hunt, J. Current perspectives in social psychology. N.Y. : McGraw-Hill, 1965.
- James, W. Principles of Psychology. N.Y. : Holt and Co. 1890. Vols. VI and VII.
- Jones, S.C. Self and interpersonal evaluations : esteem theories versus consistency theories. Psychol. Bull., 1973, 79, 3, 185-199.
- Kardiner, A. & Ovesey, L. The mark of oppression : explorations in the personality of the American Negro. N.Y. : Norton, 1951.
- Kirk, R.E. Experimental design : procedures for the behavioural sciences. Calif., Brooks/Cole, 1969.

- Korman, A.K. Task success, task popularity, and self-esteem as influences on task living. J. app. Psychol., 1968, 52, 484-490.
- Kvaraceus, W.C., Gibson, J.S., Patterson, F., Seasholes, B., & Grambs, J.D. Negro self-concept : Implications for school and citizenship. N.Y. : McGraw-Hill, 1965.
- Lecky, P. Self-consistency : a theory of personality, N.Y. : Island Press, 1945.
- Lindley, D.V. & Miller, I.C.P. Cambridge elementary statistical tables. Cambridge : Cambridge Univ. Press, 1970.
- Lobban, G. The effect of the position of Africans in South African society. Hons. dissertation, Univ. of Witwatersrand, Unpublished, 1970.
- Lovejoy, A.C. Reflections on human nature. Baltimore. John Hopkins Press. 1961.
- MacDonald, R.L. & Gynther, M.D. MMPI norms for Southern adolescent Negroes. J. soc. Psychol., 1962, 58, 277-282.
- Macrone, I.D. A quantitative study of race stereotypes. S.A.J. Science, 1937, 33, 1104-1111.
- Mann, J.W. The problem of the marginal personality. Ph.D. thesis, Univ. of Natal, unpublished, 1957.
- Mann, J.W. Race linked values in South Africa. J. soc. Psychol, 1962, 58, 31-41.
- Mann, J.W. Rivals of different rank. J. soc. Psychol., 1963, 61, 11-27.
- Maslow, A.H. Self-esteem (dominance feeling) and sexuality in women. J. soc. Psychol., 1942, 16, 259-294.
- Mead, G.H. Mind, self and society. Chicago : Univ. of Chicago Press, 1934.

- Mowrer (1950) cited in Bandura (1968) op. cit., p.16-18.
- Osgood (1937) cited in Robinson et. al. (1970) op. cit., p.55-56.
- Patterson, S. Colour and culture in South Africa. London :  
Routledge and Keegan Paul, 1953.
- Pervin, L.A. & Lilly, R.S. Social desirability and self-ideal ratings on the semantic differential. Educ. Psych. meas., 1967, 27, 845-853.
- Pierce, C.S. (1868) cited in Diggory (1966) op. cit., p.10-13, 96.
- Raimy, V.C. Self-reference in counselling intervies. J. consult. Psychol., 1948, 12, 153-163.
- Robinson, P. & Shaver, P.R. Measures of social psychological attitudes. Michigan : Institute for Social Research, 1970.
- Rogers, C.R. (1951) cited in Wylie (1961) op. cit., p.20, 44, 58.
- Rogers, C.R. & Dymond, R.F. (Eds.). Psychol-therapy and personality change. Chicago : Univ. of Chicago Press, 1954.
- Rosenberg, M. Society and the adolescent self-image. Princeton : Princeton Univ. Press, 1965.
- South African Institute of Race Relations : A survey of race relations in South Africa, 1971 and 1974 (eds.) Johannesburg SAIRR.
- Shaw and Wright (1967) cited in Robinson et. al. (1970) op. cit. p. 57-58.
- Singer (1968) cited in Robinson et. al. (1970) op. cit. p.111-113.
- Snygg and Coombs (1944) cited in Diggory (1966) op. cit. p. 53, 61, 107.
- Spence, J.T., Underwood, B.J., Duncan, C.P. & Cotton, J.W. Elementary statistics. N.Y. : Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968.
- Sullivan, H.S. (1953) cited in Coopersmith (1968) op. cit. p.32-35.

- Sundland, D.M. The construction of Q-sorts. Psychol. Review., 1962, 69, 1, 62-64.
- Swinehart, J. (1961) cited in Robinson et. al. (1970) op. cit.p.49.
- United States Riot Commission Report. Report of the National Advisory Committee on Civil Disorders. N.Y. : Bantam Books, 1968.
- van der Merwe, H. & Welsch, R. Student perspectives in South Africa. C.T. Abe Bailey Institute, 1971.
- van der Westhuyzen, W.I. Some correlates of feelings of depression in three ethnically distinct student groups. Ph.D. Thesis, Univ. of Wits., Unpublished, 1967.
- van der Westhuyzen, W.I. Depression and low self-esteem in a cross cultural context. Med. Proc. (S.A.) 1969, 15, 22, 383-386.
- Wendland (1967) cited in Baughman (1971) op. cit., p.48-52.
- Wober, M. Explorations on the concept of self-esteem. Int. J. Psychol., 1971, 6, 2, 147-155.
- Wylie, R. The self-concept. Lincoln : Univ. of Nebraska Press, 1961.
- Wylie, R. The present status of self theory. In Borgatta, E.F. & Lambert, W.W. (Eds.), Handbook of personality theory and research. Chicago : Rand McNally, 1968.

1.1.1. SEI

MERK ASSEBLIEF ELKE STELLING OP DIE VOLGENDE MANIER :

Indien die stelling beskryf hoe jy gewoonlik voel plaas 'n regmerkie in die kolom "Soos ek", (ja).

Indien die stelling nie beskryf hoe jy gewoonlik voel nie, plaas 'n regmerkie in die kolom "Nie soos ek nie", (nee).

	(JA) SOOS EK	(NEE) NIE SOOS EK NIE
1. Ek spandeer baie tyd om dinge te verbeel	_____	_____
2. Ek is vol vertroue met myself.	_____	_____
3. Ek wens dikwels dat ek iemand anders was.	_____	_____
4. Dit is maklik om van my te hou.	_____	_____
5. Ek en my ouers geniet dikwels dinge saam.	_____	_____
6. Ek bekommer my nooit oor enigiets nie.	_____	_____
7. Ek vind dit moeilik om voor die klas op te tree.	_____	_____
8. Daar is baie dinge omtrent myself wat ek sou verander as ek kan.	_____	_____
9. Ek kan tot 'n besluit kom sonder veel moeite.	_____	_____
10. Ek wens ek was jonger.	_____	_____
11. Dit is pret om saam met my te wees.	_____	_____
12. Tuis voek ek nie op my gemak nie.	_____	_____
13. Ek doen altyd die regte ding.	_____	_____
14. Ek is trots op my werk.	_____	_____
15. Iemand moet my altyd vertel wat om te doen.	_____	_____
16. Dit neem 'n lang tyd voordat ek gewoon raak aan iets nuuts.	_____	_____
17. Ek is dikwels jammer oor dinge wat ek doen.	_____	_____
18. Mense van my eie ouderdom hou baie van my.	_____	_____

1.1.1. SEI (cont)

	(JA) SOOS EK	(NEE) NIE SOOS EK NIE
19. My gevoelens raak my ouers ook aan.	_____	_____
20. Ek is nooit ongelukkig nie.	_____	_____
21. Ek doen my beste.	_____	_____
22. Ek word gou moedeloos.	_____	_____
23. Ek kan gewoonlik vir myself sorg.	_____	_____
24. Ek is nogal gelukkig.	_____	_____
25. Ek sou eerder wou meng met mense jonger as ek.	_____	_____
26. My ouers verwag te veel van my.	_____	_____
27. Ek hou van almal wat ek ken.	_____	_____
28. Ek hou daarvan dat my onderwyser my vra om iets te doen.	_____	_____
29. Ek verstaan myself.	_____	_____
30. Ek vind my lewe nogal moeilik.	_____	_____
31. In my lewe is alles deurmekaar.	_____	_____
32. Mense volg gewoonlik my idees.	_____	_____
33. Tuis bestee niemand veel aandag aan my nie.	_____	_____
34. Daar word nooit met my geraas nie.	_____	_____
35. Ek doen nie so goed op skool as wat ek sou wou nie.	_____	_____
36. Ek kan tot 'n besluit kom en daarby hou.	_____	_____
37. Ek hou regtig nie daarvan om 'n seun/dogter te wees nie.	_____	_____
38. Ek het 'n swak opinie van myself.	_____	_____
39. Ek hou nie daarvan om saam met ander mense te wees nie.	_____	_____

1.1.1. SEI (cont)

	(JA) SOOS EK	(NEE) NIE SOOS EK NIE
40. Ek wou dikwels my ouerhuis verlaat.	_____	_____
41. Ek is nooit skaam nie.	_____	_____
42. Ek voel dikwels onsteld op skool.	_____	_____
43. Ek skaam my dikwels vir myself.	_____	_____
44. Ek is nie so aantreklik soos die meeste mense nie.	_____	_____
45. As ek iets het om te se, se ek dit gewoonlik.	_____	_____
46. Mense vind altyd fout met my.	_____	_____
47. My ouers verstaan my.	_____	_____
48. Ek praat altyd die waarheid.	_____	_____
49. Grootmense laat my voel dat ek nie goed genoeg is nie.	_____	_____
50. Ek gee om wat met my gebeur nie.	_____	_____
51. Ek doen niks wat reg is nie.	_____	_____
52. Ek voel sleg as iemand met my raas.	_____	_____
53. Die meeste mense hou nie van my as wat hulle van anders hou nie.	_____	_____
54. Ek voel asof my ouers verwag dat ek beter moet doen.	_____	_____
55. Ek weet altyd wat om vir mense te se.	_____	_____

1.1.1. SEI (cont)

	(JA) SOOS EK	(NEE) NIE SOOS EK NIE
56. Ek raak dikwels teleurgesteld op skool.	_____	_____
57. Dinge hinder my gewoonlik nie.	_____	_____
58. Mense glo nie dat ek iets reg kan doen nie.	_____	_____

1. Ouderdom :
2. Geslag :
3. Geboorteplek en Tuisdorp :
4. Beroep van Ouers/Bewaarders :
  - Vader :
  - Moeder :
5. Standerd :

1.1.2 SEI

PLEASE MARK EACH STATEMENT IN THE FOLLOWING WAY :

If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a tick ( ) in the column marked "LIKE ME".

If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a tick in the column marked "UNLIKE ME".

There are no right or wrong answers.

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
1. I spend a lot of time daydreaming.	_____	_____
2. I'm pretty sure of myself.	_____	_____
3. I often wish I were someone else.	_____	_____
4. I'm easy to like.	_____	_____
5. My parents and I have a lot of fun together.	_____	_____
6. I never worry about anything.	_____	_____
7. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.	_____	_____
8. I wish I were younger.	_____	_____
9. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.	_____	_____
10. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.	_____	_____
11. I'm a lot of fun to be with.	_____	_____
12. I get upset easily at home.	_____	_____
13. I always do the right thing.	_____	_____
14. I'm proud of my work.	_____	_____
15. Someone always has to tell me what to do.	_____	_____
16. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.	_____	_____
17. I'm often sorry for the things I do.	_____	_____
18. I'm popular with people of my own age.	_____	_____
19. My parents usually consider my feelings.	_____	_____

1.1.2 SEI (cont)

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
20. I'm never unhappy.	_____	_____
21. I'm doing the best work that I can.	_____	_____
22. I give in very easily.	_____	_____
23. I can usually take care of myself.	_____	_____
24. I'm pretty happy.	_____	_____
25. I would rather mix with people younger than I am.	_____	_____
26. My parents expect too much of me.	_____	_____
27. I like everyone I know.	_____	_____
28. I like to be called on in class.	_____	_____
29. I understand myself.	_____	_____
30. It's pretty tough to be me.	_____	_____
31. Things are all mixed up in my life.	_____	_____
32. People usually follow my ideas.	_____	_____
33. No one pays much attention to me at home.	_____	_____
34. I never get reprimanded.	_____	_____
35. I'm not doing as well at school as I'd like to.	_____	_____
36. I can make up my mind and stick to it.	_____	_____
37. I really don't like being a boy/girl.	_____	_____
38. I have a low opinion of myself.	_____	_____
39. I don't like to be with other people.	_____	_____
40. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.	_____	_____
41. I'm never shy.	_____	_____
42. I often feel upset at school.	_____	_____
43. I often feel ashamed of myself.	_____	_____
44. I'm not as nice looking as most people.	_____	_____

1.1.2 SEI (cont)

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
45. If I have something to say, I usually say it.	_____	_____
46. People pick on me very often.	_____	_____
47. My parents understand me.	_____	_____
48. I always tell the truth.	_____	_____
49. My superiors make me feel I'm not good enough.	_____	_____
50. I don't care what happens to me.	_____	_____
51. I'm a failure.	_____	_____
52. I get upset easily when I'm scolded.	_____	_____
53. Most people are better liked than I am.	_____	_____
54. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.	_____	_____
55. I always know what to say to people.	_____	_____
56. I often get discouraged at school.	_____	_____
57. Things don't usually bother me.	_____	_____
58. I can't be depended on.	_____	_____

Age :

Sex :

Hometown :

Parents' /Guardian Occupation :

Mother :

Father :

Standard/Form :

1.1.3 SEI

PLEASE MARK EACH STATEMENT IN THE FOLLOWING WAY :

If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a tick ( ) in the column "LIKE ME".

If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a tick in the column "UNLIKE ME".

There are no right or wrong answers.

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
1. I spend a lot of time daydreaming.	_____	_____
2. I'm pretty sure of myself.	_____	_____
3. I often wish I were someone else.	_____	_____
4. I'm easy to like.	_____	_____
5. My parents and I have a lot of fun together.	_____	_____
6. I never worry about anything.	_____	_____
7. I find it very hard to talk in front of a class.	_____	_____
8. I wish I were younger.	_____	_____
9. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.	_____	_____
10. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.	_____	_____
11. I'm a lot of fun to be with.	_____	_____
12. I get upset easily at home.	_____	_____
13. I always do the right thing.	_____	_____
14. I'm proud of my work.	_____	_____
15. Someone always has to tell me what to do.	_____	_____
16. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.	_____	_____
17. I'm often sorry for the things I do.	_____	_____
18. I'm popular with people of my own age.	_____	_____

1.1.3 SEI (cont)

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
19. My parents usually consider my feelings.	_____	_____
20. I'm never unhappy.	_____	_____
21. I'm doing the best work that I can.	_____	_____
22. I give in very easily.	_____	_____
23. I can usually take care of myself.	_____	_____
24. I'm pretty happy.	_____	_____
25. I would rather mix with people younger than myself.	_____	_____
26. My parents expect too much of me.	_____	_____
27. I like everyone I know.	_____	_____
28. I like to be called on in class.	_____	_____
29. I understand myself.	_____	_____
30. It's pretty tough to be me.	_____	_____
31. Things are all mixed up in my life.	_____	_____
32. People usually follow my ideas.	_____	_____
33. No one pays much attention to me at home.	_____	_____
34. I never get reprimanded.	_____	_____
35. I'm not doing as well at university as I'd like to.	_____	_____
36. I can make up my mind and stick to it.	_____	_____
37. I really don't like being a man/woman.	_____	_____
38. I have a low opinion of myself.	_____	_____
39. I don't like to be with other people.	_____	_____
40. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.	_____	_____
41. I'm never shy.	_____	_____

1.1.3 SEI (cont)

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
42. I often feel upset at university.	_____	_____
43. I often feel ashamed of myself.	_____	_____
44. I'm not as nice looking as most people.	_____	_____
45. If I have something to say, I usually say it.	_____	_____
46. People pick on me very often.	_____	_____
47. My parents understand me.	_____	_____
48. My superiors make me feel I'm not good enough.	_____	_____
49. I always tell the truth.	_____	_____
50. I don't care what happens to me.	_____	_____
51. I'm a failure.	_____	_____
52. I get upset easily when I'm scolded.	_____	_____
53. Most people are better liked than I am.	_____	_____
54. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.	_____	_____
55. I always know what to say to people.	_____	_____
56. I often get discouraged at university.	_____	_____
57. Things usually don't bother me.	_____	_____
58. I can't be depended upon.	_____	_____

Age :

Sex :

Hometown :

Parents'/Guardian's Occupation :

Mother :

Father :

Faculty :

Year of study :

Marital status :

1.1.4 SEI

MERK ASSEBLIEF ELKE STELLING OP DIE VOLGENDE MANIER :

Indien die stelling beskryf hoe jy gewoonlik voel, plaas 'n regmerkie in die kolom "Soos ek".

Indien die stelling nie beskryf hoe jy gewoonlik voel nie, plaas 'n regmerkie in die kolom "Nie soos ek nie".

Daar is geen verkeerde antwoorde nie.

	SOOS EK	NIE SOOS EK NIE
1. Ek spandeer baie tyd aan lugkastele bou.	_____	_____
2. Ek is baie selfversekerd.	_____	_____
3. Ek wens dikwels dat ek iemand anders was.	_____	_____
4. Dit is maklik om van my te hou.	_____	_____
5. Ek en my ouers geniet dikwels dinge saam.	_____	_____
6. Ek bekommer my nooit oor enigiets nie.	_____	_____
7. Ek vind dit moeilik om voor 'n klas op te tree.	_____	_____
8. Ek wens ek was jonger.	_____	_____
9. Daar is baie dinge omtrent myself wat ek sou verander as ek kan.	_____	_____
10. Ek kan tot 'n besluit kom sonder veel moeite.	_____	_____
11. Dit is pret om saam met my te wees.	_____	_____
12. Tuis raak ek maklik onsteld.	_____	_____
13. Ek doen altyd die regte ding.	_____	_____
14. Ek is trots op my werk.	_____	_____
15. Iemand moet my altyd vertel wat om te doen.	_____	_____
16. Dit neem 'n lang tyd voordat ek gewoon raak aan iets nuuts.	_____	_____
17. Ek is dikwels jammer oor die dinge wat ek doen.	_____	_____
18. Ek is gewild onder mense van my eie ouderdom.	_____	_____

1.1.4 SEI (cont)

	SOOS EK	NIE SOOS EK NIE
19. My ouers neem gewoonlik my gevoelens in ag.	_____	_____
20. Ek is nooit ongelukkig nie.	_____	_____
21. Ek lewer my uiterste.	_____	_____
22. Ek gee baie maklik toe.	_____	_____
23. Ek kan gewoonlik vir myself sorg.	_____	_____
24. Ek is nogal gelukkig.	_____	_____
25. Ek sou eerder wou meng met mense jonger as ek.	_____	_____
26. My ouers verwag te veel van my.	_____	_____
27. Ek hou van almal wat ek ken.	_____	_____
28. Ek hou daarvan dat hulle op my nommer druk in die klas.	_____	_____
29. Ek verstaan myself.	_____	_____
30. Ek vind my lewe nogal moeilik.	_____	_____
31. In my lewe is alles deurmekaar.	_____	_____
32. Mense volg gewoonlik my idees.	_____	_____
33. Tuis bestee niemand veel aandag aan my nie.	_____	_____
34. Ek word nooit berispe nie.	_____	_____
35. Ek doe nie so goed op universiteit as wat ek sou wou nie.	_____	_____
36. Ek kan tot 'n besluit kom en daarby hou.	_____	_____
37. Ek hou regtig nie daarvan om 'n man/vrou te wees nie.	_____	_____
38. Ek het 'n swak opinie van myself.	_____	_____
39. Ek hou nie daarvan om saam met ander mense te wees nie.	_____	_____
40. Ek wou dikwels my ouerhuis verlaat.	_____	_____
41. Ek is nooit skaam nie.	_____	_____

1.1.4 SEI (cont)

	SOOS EK	NIE SOOS EK NIE
42. Ek voel dikwels onsteld op universiteit.	_____	_____
43. Ek skaam my dikwels vir myself.	_____	_____
44. Ek is nie so aantreklik soos die meeste mense nie.	_____	_____
45. As ek iets het om te se, se ek dit gewoonlik.	_____	_____
46. Mense pik dikwels op my.	_____	_____
47. My ouers verstaan my.	_____	_____
48. Ek praat altyd die waarheid.	_____	_____
49. My meerderes laat my voel dat ek nie goed genoeg is nie.	_____	_____
50. Ek gee nie om wat met my gebeur nie.	_____	_____
51. Ek is 'n mislukking.	_____	_____
52. Ek raak maklik onsteld as ek berispe word.	_____	_____
53. Die meeste mense is meer gewild as ek.	_____	_____
54. Ek voel gewoonlik asof my ouers my aanpor.	_____	_____
55. Ek weet altyd wat om vir mense te se.	_____	_____
56. Ek raak dikwels teleurgesteld op universiteit.	_____	_____
57. Goed hinder my gewoonlik nie.	_____	_____
58. Daar kan nie op my staat gemaak word nie.	_____	_____

1. Ouderdom :
2. Geslag :
3. Geboorteplek en Tuisdorp :
4. Beroep van Ouers/Bewaarders :  
     Vader :
- Moeder :
5. Huwelikstaat :
6. Jaar van studie :
7. Faculteit :

1.2 SES

PLEASE INDICATE YOUR RESPONSE TO EACH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS BY PLACING A CROSS (X) OPPOSITE THE APPROPRIATE DESCRIPTION.

1. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly agree
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_ Agree
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
- 4. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly disagree

2. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I'm a failure.

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly agree
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_ Agree
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
- 4. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly disagree

3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly agree
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_ Agree
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
- 4. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly disagree

4. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly agree
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_ Agree
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
- 4. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly disagree

5. I am able to do things as well as most other people.

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly agree
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_ Agree
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
- 4. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly disagree

6. I wish I could have more respect for myself.

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly agree
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_ Agree
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
- 4. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly disagree

1.2 SES (Cont)

7. I take a positive attitude towards myself.

1. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly agree
2. \_\_\_\_\_ Agree
3. \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
4. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly disagree

8. I certainly feel useless at times.

1. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly agree
2. \_\_\_\_\_ Agree
3. \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
4. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly disagree

9. On the whole I'm satisfied with myself.

1. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly agree
2. \_\_\_\_\_ Agree
3. \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
4. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly disagree

10. At times I think I'm no good at all.

1. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly agree
2. \_\_\_\_\_ Agree
3. \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
4. \_\_\_\_\_ Strongly disagree

1.3 LSES

PLEASE INDICATE YOUR RESPONSE BY AWARDING A NUMBER BETWEEN 1 AND 5 TO EACH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ACCORDING TO THE CRITERIA SET OUT BELOW :

- 1 for very untrue
- 2 for somewhat untrue
- 3 for neither true nor untrue
- 4 for somewhat true
- 5 for very true

- |   |       |
|---|-------|
| 1. I am a quick thinker   | _____ |
| 2. When I do a job, I do it well.   | _____ |
| 3. I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.                                     | _____ |
| 4. I am usually alert.  | _____ |
| 5. When I make plans ahead, I usually get to carry out things the way I expected. | _____ |
| 6. I sometimes feel that my life is not very useful.                              | _____ |
| 7. I am good at remembering things.   | _____ |
| 8. I feel as though nothing I do is any good.                                     | _____ |
| 9. I feel the future looks bright.  | _____ |
| 10. I am a useful person to have around.  | _____ |

\* \* \* \*

2.1.1 ALL AFRIKAANS PUPILS

## SUBSCALE SELF-ESTEEM ANALYSIS

		GS	SSP	HP	A	GSE	LS	AGE
1	001M	36	10	12	12	70	7	12
2	002M	20	10	12	10	52	7	11
3	003M	40	8	8	8	64	5	12
4	004M	46	16	16	12	90	6	12
5	005M	38	12	14	16	80	2	11
6	006M	46	14	16	14	90	3	12
7	007M	26	8	12	14	60	6	12
8	008M	40	10	12	10	72	4	11
9	009M	32	8	10	8	58	5	14
10	010M	36	10	8	12	66	6	13
11	011M	36	12	14	14	76	2	11
12	012F	38	12	14	8	72	2	12
13	013F	32	8	10	10	60	3	12
14	014F	28	16	16	14	74	5	11
15	015F	36	8	10	8	62	2	12
16	016F	26	12	6	14	58	4	12
17	017F	24	8	10	6	48	7	11
18	018F	40	12	6	10	68	1	11
19	019F	36	10	14	8	68	2	12
20	020F	36	10	16	10	72	2	12
21	021F	36	12	14	8	70	4	11
22	022F	46	8	16	14	84	7	12
23	023F	34	14	14	10	72	4	13
24	024F	34	14	8	12	68	3	11
25	025F	44	14	16	12	86	5	11
26	026F	46	8	14	16	84	6	12
27	027F	34	12	6	6	58	3	13
28	028M	42	6	12	12	72	4	11
29	029M	20	6	6	8	40	6	12
30	030M	34	10	8	8	60	6	14
31	031M	32	12	10	8	62	7	12
32	032M	38	10	10	12	70	5	13
33	033M	36	12	14	12	74	4	12
34	034M	30	4	12	12	58	4	12
35	035M	46	10	12	8	76	7	11
36	036F	24	4	10	10	48	5	14
37	037F	26	2	12	6	46	6	12
38	038F	20	8	2	4	34	7	12
39	039F	24	6	12	6	48	6	12
40	040F	34	12	16	8	70	6	11
41	041F	40	8	8	10	66	2	12
42	042F	34	12	16	12	74	5	14
43	043F	30	12	10	12	64	6	11
44	044F	18	4	10	4	36	7	12
45	045F	42	12	16	12	82	2	12
46	046F	40	12	16	10	78	6	11
47	047F	44	6	14	14	78	3	12
48	048F	30	4	10	6	50	3	12

2.1.2 ALL COLOURED PUPILS

## SUBSCALE SELF-ESTEEM ANALYSIS

		GS	SSP	HP	A	GSE	LS	AGE
1	001F	32	10	4	12	58	2	14
2	002F	18	8	8	8	42	4	12
3	003F	32	10	10	10	62	4	14
4	004F	28	12	12	12	64	4	12
5	005F	36	12	14	12	74	4	15
6	006F	26	10	10	12	58	3	13
7	007F	36	10	10	12	68	2	14
8	008F	24	12	8	6	50	5	12
9	009F	26	10	10	12	58	5	14
10	010F	22	10	10	10	52	4	14
11	011F	22	10	8	8	48	5	13
12	012F	26	6	10	12	54	5	14
13	013F	28	6	12	12	58	4	11
14	014F	38	14	8	14	74	5	13
15	015F	32	12	12	10	66	4	13
16	016F	36	10	12	14	72	5	13
17	017F	24	6	10	10	50	5	13
18	018M	14	6	12	6	38	5	12
19	019M	32	4	6	6	48	1	13
20	020M	22	8	10	6	46	7	12
21	021M	30	10	10	14	64	3	12
22	022M	26	10	12	6	54	6	12
23	023M	34	8	8	10	60	5	13
24	024M	34	12	14	14	74	1	13
25	025M	30	4	10	12	56	3	13
26	026M	30	10	10	14	64	3	11
27	027M	10	8	8	12	38	4	12
28	028M	30	8	8	12	58	2	14
29	029M	14	8	4	8	34	1	12
30	030M	22	6	2	6	36	4	13
31	031M	16	10	10	6	42	3	13
32	032M	16	6	8	8	38	3	13
33	033F	32	12	10	10	64	5	14
34	034F	34	14	12	16	76	5	11
35	035F	16	8	8	12	44	5	12
36	036F	20	14	10	14	58	5	13
37	037F	38	10	14	16	78	4	13
38	038F	36	6	12	4	58	4	15
39	039F	28	12	12	14	66	1	12
40	040F	34	8	8	6	56	3	12
41	041F	28	6	10	12	56	5	12
42	042F	36	16	12	16	80	2	11
43	043F	30	14	12	16	72	3	11
44	044F	34	8	8	12	62	2	13
45	045F	40	16	12	16	84	2	11
46	046F	44	14	14	8	80	3	11
47	047F	32	12	12	10	66	3	13
48	048F	22	8	12	8	50	4	14
49	049M	22	12	8	8	50	4	14
50	050M	14	8	4	4	30	4	11
51	051M	22	4	6	14	46	5	14
52	052M	26	6	8	6	46	2	12
53	053M	42	12	10	16	80	3	12
54	054M	34	10	8	12	64	4	12
55	055M	28	14	10	14	66	2	12
56	056M	34	10	10	14	68	5	13
57	057M	22	10	8	12	52	3	14
58	058M	16	6	8	6	36	5	13

2.1.2(cont.)

59	059M	18	2	8	8	36	6	16
60	060M	16	2	0	12	30	4	14
61	061M	28	8	8	8	52	7	12
62	062M	44	14	14	16	88	3	12
63	063M	22	6	4	4	36	5	13
64	064M	28	10	10	8	56	6	13
65	065M	24	14	12	10	60	1	12
66	066M	30	8	10	12	60	1	16

2.1.3 ALL ENGLISH PUPILS

## SUBSCALE SELF-ESTEEM ANALYSIS

		GS	SSP	HP	A	GSE	LS	AGE
1	001M	32	10	16	10	68	7	11
2	002M	30	6	12	2	50	8	12
3	003M	40	12	12	14	78	4	11
4	004M	34	8	14	4	60	6	11
5	005M	18	8	12	4	42	6	12
6	006M	38	14	16	8	76	8	11
7	007M	38	10	16	4	68	8	12
8	009M	22	6	16	10	54	8	10
9	009M	38	14	14	12	78	3	12
10	010M	18	10	6	4	38	7	11
11	011M	46	12	14	6	78	6	11
12	012M	32	12	8	6	58	6	11
13	013M	24	6	16	6	52	8	11
14	014M	34	12	16	10	72	5	12
15	015M	30	8	14	6	58	7	12
16	016M	32	10	12	12	66	7	12
17	017M	26	10	14	2	52	7	12
18	018F	32	8	12	8	60	4	11
19	019F	26	2	10	4	42	8	10
20	020F	24	4	8	8	44	7	11
21	021F	36	6	14	8	64	8	12
22	022M	40	12	16	14	82	4	11
23	023M	42	12	16	14	84	6	12
24	024M	32	4	12	10	58	7	11
25	025M	14	2	10	6	32	8	13
26	026M	36	10	14	10	70	7	12
27	027M	12	6	8	2	28	8	12
28	028M	40	16	16	6	78	8	11
29	029M	38	6	16	12	72	8	11
30	030M	22	8	10	4	44	4	11
31	031M	28	14	10	6	58	8	11
32	032M	44	6	14	10	74	6	12
33	033M	40	8	16	14	78	4	11
34	034M	44	16	16	12	88	6	12
35	035M	20	6	12	2	40	8	12
36	036M	44	16	10	12	82	4	11
37	037M	42	10	14	14	80	7	11
38	038F	44	16	16	14	90	8	12
39	039F	36	10	10	4	60	4	11
40	040F	32	8	10	2	52	6	11
41	041F	22	4	12	2	40	3	12
42	042F	20	0	12	4	36	8	11

2.1.4 ALL AFRIKAANS STUDENTS

## SUB SCALE SELF-ESTEEM ANALYSIS

		GS	SSP	HP	A	GSE	LS	AGE
1	001M	44	14	10	12	80	7	21
2	002M	48	16	14	14	92	3	21
3	003M	42	10	8	8	68	5	20
4	004M	52	14	16	12	94	6	20
5	005M	22	6	14	8	50	5	20
6	006M	36	12	14	6	68	4	20
7	007M	40	16	14	10	80	6	20
8	008M	46	8	12	12	78	6	20
9	009M	44	10	14	10	78	6	19
10	010M	44	10	14	6	74	7	20
11	011M	46	10	16	12	84	2	21
12	012M	40	10	14	12	76	7	20
13	013M	50	16	12	10	88	5	20
14	014M	38	2	12	6	58	4	20
15	015F	40	14	12	10	76	5	20
16	016F	36	14	14	4	68	8	20
17	017F	30	12	16	10	68	7	20
18	018F	38	8	14	4	64	7	20
19	019F	46	10	16	10	82	8	19
20	020F	42	8	16	10	76	7	20
21	021F	44	16	14	16	90	3	19
22	022F	42	10	16	14	82	5	19
23	023F	20	6	12	6	44	7	19
24	024F	38	8	14	8	68	7	19
25	025F	36	8	16	14	74	4	19
26	026F	44	6	14	10	74	6	19
27	027F	38	8	16	12	74	8	19
28	028M	48	12	16	16	92	2	20
29	029M	46	12	10	6	74	6	19
30	030M	40	14	14	12	80	6	19
31	031M	50	10	16	14	90	6	20
32	032M	44	16	14	16	90	4	20
33	033M	28	16	6	2	52	5	19
34	034M	32	14	14	8	68	7	19
35	035M	44	12	14	10	80	6	20
36	036M	42	12	16	12	82	6	20
37	037M	48	14	14	10	86	7	19
38	038M	32	16	16	12	76	6	19
39	039F	32	12	10	2	56	5	18
40	040F	30	12	16	6	64	7	21
41	041F	30	6	12	2	50	4	18
42	041F	36	6	16	2	60	7	18
43	042F	40	14	14	14	82	6	20
44	043F	28	8	14	4	54	8	21
45	044F	24	6	14	6	50	8	20
46	045F	38	9	10	10	66	7	21
47	046F	36	12	14	14	76	8	22
48	047F	26	6	6	4	42	6	19
49	048F	36	12	8	8	64	3	21
50	049F	26	6	12	8	52	6	21
51	050F	32	8	14	8	62	6	20
52	051F	34	8	8	6	56	6	20
53	052F	44	10	16	10	80	7	23
54	053M	26	14	14	4	58	7	21
55	054M	44	12	14	8	78	6	21
56	055M	44	14	16	10	84	7	21
57	056M	30	6	6	4	46	6	21
58	057M	38	16	14	12	80	8	22

2.1.4(cont.)

59	058M	42	16	16	6	80	5	21
60	059M	34	10	10	10	64	4	21
61	060M	44	16	14	6	80	7	22
62	061M	46	8	12	14	80	3	23
63	062M	48	14	16	6	84	7	23
64	063M	36	8	16	8	68	8	22
65	064M	48	16	16	10	90	6	22
66	065M	34	14	10	10	68	8	22
67	066M	46	16	12	8	82	7	22
68	067M	24	6	10	4	44	7	23
69	068M	44	12	16	10	82	5	22

2.1.5 ALL COLOURED STUDENTS

## SUBSCALE SELF-ESTEEM ANALYSIS

		GS	SSP	HP	A	GSE	LS	AGE
1	001M	26	14	12	8	60	4	22
2	002M	36	8	14	8	66	5	19
3	003M	38	6	10	6	60	4	19
4	004M	44	12	16	12	84	5	22
5	005M	24	8	8	6	46	5	29
6	006M	30	10	4	6	50	5	20
7	007M	46	16	10	8	80	6	20
8	008M	26	2	4	12	44	8	20
9	009M	28	10	12	8	58	7	20
10	010M	48	14	14	12	88	5	34
11	011M	50	12	14	12	88	6	19
12	012M	46	16	16	14	92	4	41
13	013M	42	14	16	10	82	2	21
14	014M	32	10	14	8	64	4	21
15	015M	48	14	14	8	84	8	19
16	016M	32	14	2	6	54	7	24
17	017M	46	12	16	16	90	4	18
18	018F	36	6	14	6	62	6	20
19	019F	32	4	12	6	54	4	20
20	020F	28	6	8	4	46	7	21
21	021F	40	12	12	12	76	5	21
22	022F	40	14	14	6	74	7	20
23	023F	48	8	16	10	82	4	20
24	024F	36	14	16	10	76	8	19
25	025F	46	14	10	8	78	6	19
26	026F	38	12	12	6	62	8	21
27	027F	52	14	16	6	88	2	22
28	028F	42	6	6	6	60	5	21
29	029F	32	14	10	8	64	8	20
30	030M	36	12	14	8	70	8	20
31	031M	40	10	12	10	72	6	18
32	032M	32	12	16	12	72	4	30
33	033M	24	4	6	2	36	7	19
34	034M	34	8	4	8	54	6	19
35	035M	40	12	12	10	74	6	20
36	036M	42	16	12	6	76	5	27
37	037M	34	16	14	8	72	6	18
38	038M	40	12	12	10	74	3	20
39	039F	42	12	14	10	78	1	18
40	040F	44	14	14	10	82	5	19
41	041F	46	14	14	10	84	4	18

2.1.6 ALL ENGLISH STUDENTS

## SUBSCALE SELF-ESTEEM ANALYSIS

		GS	SSP	HP	A	GSE	LS	AGE
1	001F	46	14	12	8	80	6	19
2	002F	34	16	10	6	66	5	20
3	003F	44	14	16	8	82	6	18
4	004F	24	10	16	2	52	7	19
5	005F	24	14	16	4	58	7	19
6	006F	36	12	14	2	64	7	20
7	007F	34	16	10	2	62	6	18
8	008F	40	14	16	6	76	6	19
9	009F	36	16	6	12	70	8	18
10	010F	32	8	2	4	46	7	23
11	011F	38	12	16	4	70	5	19
12	012F	44	8	12	12	76	6	19
13	013F	44	12	14	8	78	5	20
14	014F	50	14	14	10	88	6	20
15	015F	28	10	16	12	66	7	20
16	016F	44	16	12	14	86	5	19
17	017F	40	8	16	4	68	8	20
18	018F	44	16	6	10	76	3	19
19	019F	48	14	6	12	80	8	20
20	020F	40	12	14	8	74	8	19
21	021F	30	10	16	10	66	6	18
22	022F	36	6	12	6	60	8	19
23	023M	38	12	14	4	68	6	20
24	024M	44	16	16	10	86	3	19
25	025M	46	12	16	4	78	7	21
26	026M	30	6	12	4	52	7	20
27	027M	34	14	6	10	64	7	19
28	028M	48	12	12	12	84	4	23
29	029M	34	8	12	8	62	6	21
30	030M	20	10	2	4	36	7	22
31	031M	42	6	4	8	60	7	20
32	032M	38	14	12	10	74	8	29
33	033M	30	8	14	6	58	6	19
34	034M	44	16	16	8	84	7	20
35	035M	26	4	12	10	52	7	20
36	036M	26	10	8	6	50	7	18
37	037M	30	8	6	0	44	6	17
38	038M	44	16	12	8	80	7	19
39	039M	28	8	10	4	50	7	21
40	040M	32	8	6	4	50	8	20
41	041M	44	14	12	8	78	4	18
42	042M	46	12	16	4	78	5	18
43	043M	30	12	16	4	62	4	21
44	044M	38	10	10	10	68	7	20
45	045M	42	12	16	8	78	8	19
46	046M	46	14	14	8	82	8	19
47	047M	46	14	12	4	76	7	20
48	048M	28	10	16	4	58	7	20
49	049M	30	14	8	4	56	4	19
50	050M	22	12	8	4	46	7	20
51	051M	18	8	6	8	40	6	21
52	052M	20	12	14	4	50	6	21
53	053M	42	8	14	8	72	8	20
54	054M	46	16	16	6	84	7	20
55	055M	48	14	6	6	74	7	20
56	056M	32	10	10	12	64	8	19
57	057M	42	14	16	10	82	6	19
58	058M	46	12	14	12	84	7	19

2.1.3(cont.)

50	C59M	26	10	4	4	44	2	21
60	C60M	42	14	14	6	76	7	20
61	C61M	22	8	0	2	32	8	21
62	C62M	36	8	6	6	56	7	21
63	C63M	44	10	0	2	56	7	20
64	C64M	40	10	12	8	70	5	21
65	C65M	52	12	16	14	94	7	19
66	C66M	46	12	10	8	76	7	20
67	C67M	30	12	14	6	62	8	19
68	C68M	42	16	14	8	80	8	19
69	C69M	36	14	14	2	66	6	20
70	C70M	44	14	14	10	82	5	19
71	C71M	44	16	16	6	82	4	20
72	C72M	42	8	2	4	56	7	21
73	C73M	26	2	6	4	38	6	18
74	C74M	46	16	10	8	80	7	20
75	C75M	42	14	6	12	74	5	20
76	C76M	40	8	16	0	64	8	19
77	C77M	42	12	6	6	66	3	19
78	C78M	42	16	16	6	80	6	19
79	C79M	46	16	6	12	80	5	19
80	C80M	44	16	16	10	86	7	19
81	C81M	30	12	14	6	62	8	19
82	C82M	40	16	16	14	86	3	18
83	C83F	40	16	12	8	76	4	19
84	C84F	28	6	12	4	50	7	18
85	C85F	32	14	16	10	72	4	19
86	C86F	42	14	14	8	78	7	18
87	C87F	34	4	14	10	62	6	18
88	C88F	38	14	8	10	70	7	18
89	C89F	28	16	14	2	60	5	19
90	C90F	44	12	12	4	72	8	17
91	C91F	42	16	14	12	84	5	18
92	C92F	40	10	14	4	68	7	18
93	C93F	38	14	2	8	62	6	18
94	C94F	34	16	10	6	66	6	17
95	C95F	34	16	10	6	66	7	19
96	C96F	46	16	16	2	80	8	18
97	C97F	40	16	16	8	80	6	19
98	C98F	40	14	16	12	82	5	18
99	C99F	28	10	12	6	56	7	18
100	100F	34	10	16	10	70	6	18
101	101F	34	8	16	2	60	5	18
102	102F	46	16	2	6	70	6	19
103	103F	36	14	10	2	62	6	18
104	104F	30	8	16	8	62	6	18
105	105F	24	8	14	2	48	7	18
106	106F	42	14	12	12	80	6	19
107	107F	42	14	16	10	82	6	19
108	108F	32	14	2	12	60	4	19
109	109F	48	14	8	10	80	7	22
110	110F	30	12	16	10	68	6	19
111	111F	36	16	12	4	68	7	19
112	112F	48	16	16	12	92	7	19
113	113F	26	12	16	10	64	6	18
114	114F	32	4	8	10	54	3	19
115	115F	42	6	12	12	72	6	19
116	116F	40	14	12	14	80	7	28
117	117F	34	16	12	6	68	7	18
118	118F	22	4	14	4	44	6	18
119	119F	26	12	16	8	62	4	19
120	120F	36	10	16	0	62	6	19
121	121F	42	16	16	8	82	6	19
122	122F	46	14	16	6	82	5	17
123	123F	40	10	16	12	78	5	18
124	124F	42	8	14	6	70	6	19
125	125F	28	16	10	2	56	7	19
126	126F	30	10	16	10	66	8	20

2.1.C(cont.)

129	129F	42	10	10	4	66	8	19
130	130F	48	10	4	8	70	5	18
131	131F	38	12	16	12	78	4	19
132	132F	6	2	0	0	8	6	18
133	133F	46	16	16	14	92	4	26
134	134F	32	12	16	8	68	7	18
135	135F	44	16	16	12	88	7	22
136	136F	40	16	16	6	78	8	19
137	137F	42	16	16	8	82	7	18
138	138F	40	16	14	12	82	7	18
139	139F	34	12	16	8	70	6	18
140	140F	20	10	6	8	44	8	19
141	141F	36	12	10	6	64	6	18
142	142F	48	16	12	8	84	3	20
143	143F	16	8	16	2	42	7	18
144	144F	40	12	16	16	84	7	18
145	145F	24	8	12	2	46	6	18
146	146F	34	14	16	8	72	8	19
147	147F	42	6	14	4	66	7	19
148	148F	46	16	14	10	86	3	19
149	149F	48	16	16	12	92	8	18
150	150F	30	12	16	4	62	6	18
151	151F	34	16	12	2	64	7	19
152	152F	44	14	14	6	78	6	18
153	153F	40	10	14	4	68	8	18
154	154F	38	10	16	6	70	8	18
155	155F	44	12	12	4	72	7	19
156	156F	46	14	14	6	80	7	18
157	157F	44	16	16	12	88	6	18
158	158F	34	16	12	4	66	7	18
159	159F	34	16	8	12	70	7	26
160	160F	38	12	16	8	74	7	18
161	161F	28	14	14	4	60	8	18

## SUMMARY STATISTICS

2.2.1 ALL AFRIKAANS PUPILS

	SUM	MEAN	VARIANCE	STD DEV	SUM SQRS
GENS	1650.00	34.38	58.15	7.63	59452.00
SOC S	468.00	9.75	10.66	3.26	5064.00
HOMP	560.00	11.67	11.80	3.44	7088.00
ACAD	490.00	10.21	9.06	3.01	5428.00
GNSE	3168.00	66.00	179.06	13.38	217504.00
LIES	220.00	4.58	3.27	1.81	1162.00
AGES	573.00	11.94	0.74	0.86	6875.00

TABLE 2 SUMMARY STATISTICS

2.2.2 ALL COLOURED PUPILS

	SUM	MEAN	VARIANCE	STD DEV	SUM SQRS
GENS	1820.00	27.58	61.85	7.86	54208.00
SOCS	620.00	9.39	10.46	3.23	6504.00
HOMP	624.00	9.45	8.19	2.86	6432.00
ACAD	700.00	10.61	11.81	3.44	8192.00
GNSE	3764.00	57.03	193.26	13.90	227224.00
LIES	247.00	3.74	2.19	1.48	1067.00
AGES	845.00	12.80	1.36	1.17	10907.00

## SUMMARY STATISTICS

2.2.3 ALL ENGLISH PUPILS

	SUM	MEAN	VARIANCE	STD DEV	SUM SQRS
GE'IS	1342.00	31.95	81.85	9.05	46236.00
SOC S	378.00	9.00	16.24	4.03	4068.00
HOMP	542.00	12.90	7.84	2.80	7316.00
ACAD	322.00	7.67	16.76	4.09	3156.00
GNSE	2584.00	61.52	276.65	16.63	170320.00
LIES	270.00	6.43	2.64	1.63	1844.00
AGES	479.00	11.40	0.39	0.63	5479.00

## SUMMARY STATISTICS

2.2.4 ALL AFRIKAANS STUDENTS

	SUM	MEAN	VARIANCE	STD DEV	SUM SQRS
GENS	2660.00	38.55	58.22	7.63	106504.00
SDCS	762.00	11.04	12.78	3.57	9284.00
HOMP	920.00	13.33	7.37	2.72	12768.00
ACAD	618.00	8.96	13.37	3.66	6444.00
GNSE	4960.00	71.88	178.46	13.36	368680.00
LIFS	411.00	5.96	2.31	1.52	2605.00
AGES	1400.00	20.29	1.53	1.24	28510.00

## SUMMARY STATISTICS

2.2.5 ALL COLOURED STUDENTS

	SUM	MEAN	VARIANCE	STD DEV	SUM SQRS
GENS	1566.00	38.20	57.16	7.56	62100.00
SPCS	458.00	11.17	13.40	3.66	5652.00
HOMP	486.00	11.85	14.68	3.83	6348.00
ACAD	346.00	8.44	9.50	3.08	3300.00
GNSE	2856.00	69.66	201.98	14.21	207024.00
LIES	220.00	5.37	3.09	1.76	1304.00
AGES	878.00	21.41	21.20	4.60	19650.00

## SUMMARY STATISTICS

2.2.6 ALL ENGLISH STUDENTS

	SUM	MEAN	VARIANCE	STD DEV	SUM SQRS
GFNS	5958.00	37.01	66.11	8.13	231060.00
SOCS	1958.00	12.16	11.80	3.43	25700.00
HDMP	1954.00	12.14	18.41	4.29	26660.00
ACAD	1152.00	7.16	12.48	3.53	10240.00
GNSE	11022.00	68.46	189.51	13.77	784884.00
LIES	1011.00	6.28	1.83	1.35	6641.00
AGES	3106.00	19.29	2.91	1.71	60386.00

## SUMMARY STATISTICS

2.2.7 TOTAL AFRIKAANS SAMPLE

	SUM	MEAN	VARIANCE	STD DEV	SUM SQRS
GEN SELF	4310.00	36.84	61.95	7.87	165956.00
SOC SELF	1230.00	10.51	12.22	3.50	14348.00
HOME PAR	1480.00	12.65	9.78	3.13	19856.00
ACADEMIC	1108.00	9.47	11.89	3.45	11872.00
G ESTEEM	8128.00	69.47	185.61	13.62	586184.00
LIESCALE	631.00	5.39	3.14	1.77	3767.00
AGE	1973.00	16.86	18.22	4.27	35385.00

## SUMMARY STATISTICS

2.2.2 TOTAL COLOURED SAMPLE

	SUM	MEAN	VARIANCE	STD DEV	SUM SQRS
GFN SELF	3386.00	31.64	86.40	9.30	116308.00
SOC SELF	1078.00	10.07	12.22	3.50	12156.00
HOME PAR	1110.00	10.37	11.93	3.45	12780.00
ACADEMIC	1046.00	9.78	11.95	3.46	11492.00
G ESTEEM	6620.00	61.87	232.78	15.26	434248.00
LIESCALF	467.00	4.36	3.14	1.77	2371.00
AGE	1723.00	16.10	26.53	5.15	30557.00

## SUMMARY STATISTICS

2.2.C TOTAL ENGLISH SAMPLE

	SUM	MEAN	VARIANCE	STD DEV	SUM SQRS
GEN SELF	7300.00	35.96	73.19	8.55	277296.00
SOC SELF	2336.00	11.51	14.29	3.78	29768.00
HOMF PAR	2496.00	12.30	16.27	4.03	33976.00
ACADEMIC	1474.00	7.26	13.33	3.65	13396.00
G ESTFEM	13606.00	67.02	214.19	14.64	955204.00
LIESCALF	1281.00	6.31	1.99	1.41	8485.00
AGE	3585.00	17.66	12.64	3.56	65865.00

