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A Study of the Overachievers and Underachievers at Shelbyville High School

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A STUDY OF THE OVERACHIEVERS AND UNDER-ACHIEVERS AT SHELBYVILLE HIGH SCHOOL

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Without the patience, cooperation, and guidance of all of the above, this study could not have been conducted.

CHAPTER I

Introduction

The cold war and the need for highly trained manpower in our industrial society have focused attention on school achievement. Because students are human beings with varied backgrounds, intelligence, and abilities, we have come to know that not all students reach equal levels of achievement. In most schools such students find themselves classified by one method or another as "overachievers," "achievers," and "underachievers."

The United States Office of Education has stated that there are twenty to thirty per cent of our able students in high school who are not measuring up to their potentials. Many researchers substantiate this fact, and also that boys outnumber girls approximately two to one in failing to attain their proper academic levels.

Numerous approaches have been made to study the over-achiever and the underachiever. Robert L. Curry states, "This problem is not limited to a particular intellectual ability group but is found within all ability levels."[1]

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[1]Robert L. Curry, "Certain Characteristics of Under-achievers and Overachievers," Peabody Journal of Education, Vol. XXXIX, (July, 1961), pages 41-45.

E. Paul Torrance says,

> In determining overachievement and underachievement, educators usually fail to take into account the relationship between the capacities and needs of the individual and the ability of the environment to provide outlets for these capacities and needs.[2]

He finally concludes the following concerning what the underachiever is made of:

> A scared imagination, and unused memory, tabooed sensations, an interrupted thought, a rejected question, a forbidden daydream, an unexpressed idea, an unsought judgment, an unpainted picture, an unsung song, a safely hidden poem, unused talents...These make an underachiever.[3]

It is assumed the converse of each of his statements would apply to the overachiever.

Less ethereal observers point out that there are differences in what kinds of pupils are overachievers and underachievers. Underachievers tend to be more negative in their evaluation of others than are achievers. They tend to show a higher degree of hostility and have feelings of inferiority. They demonstrate behavior considered to be less mature than that shown by their achieving classmates. Furthermore, in general, underachievers tend to have higher I. Q. scores and lower scores on tests of creative thinking than their overachieving classmates.

It is evident even at this point that the problem of "overachievement" or "underachievement" is unlimited as to what particular intellectual ability group is affected and

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[2]E. Paul Torrance, "Who is the Underachiever?," N. E. A. Journal, Vol. LI, (November, 1962), page 20.

[3]Torrance, loc. cit.

that factors other than intellectual ability are associated with successful academic achievement.

In other words, "underachievement" and "overachievement" are not simple to define, discover, or evaluate. The causes in all probability are varying and many.

Need for and purpose of the study.--

Since Shelbyville, Illinois, High School is not atypical among the schools of today in this part of the country, it has been recognised that there were overachievers, achievers, and underachievers within the senior class. Because of this cognizance, it behooved the writer to attempt to identify these students and to view through a statistical study a few variables that might be causal factors of underachievement and overachievement. In so doing, the educational, social, and emotional needs of each of these students might be more nearly fulfilled.

Statement of the problem.--

When this writer was searching for a problem for study, she discussed the possibilities of such with the Shelbyville Superintendent of Schools. After much deliberation, he expressed his anxiety concerning, "Who are the underachievers and why do they underachieve?" This proposed question was accepted with some elaboration by the writer. It was possible to see some useful outcomes of such a study.

The next step therefore, was to phrase a working null hypothesis in order to help bring the scope of this problem into focus. It finally centered attention as follows:

Null hypothesis: 1) There are no significant differences between the underachieving seniors at Shelbyville High School and a control group, and 2) There are no significant differences between the overachieving seniors at Shelbyville High School and a control group with regard to the following variables:

a. Access to a car.
b. Study habits.
c. Going steady.
d. Eating breakfast.
e. Presently holding a job.
f. Ordinal position.
g. Both parents working.
h. Personality characteristics.

Description of the population.--

Shelbyville schools are organized into Unit District Number Four which consists of five elementary schools, one junior, and one senior high school. The junior high school contains grades seven and eight and is the "feeder" school for the four-year high school.

The high school is located in Shelbyville which is a town of approximately five thousand people. The community is mainly agricultural with some manufacturing enterprises.

The population used for this study was the one hundred twenty-eight members of the senior class of 1965 at Shelbyville High School. This class was selected for this study with the assumption that the bulk of these students would graduate and that there were overachievers and underachievers in this class.

To solve the problem set up by the null hypothesis required a statistical formula by which the overachievers and underachievers could be identified.

It was necessary to first draw a representative sample at random from the population to be used as the control group. According to Garrett "a random sample is one in which (1) every person in the population has the same chance of being drawn or of being included, and in which (2) no single choice forces or determines another choice."[4] The class roll was alphabetized and then every fifth member was drawn for this random sample. This resulted in twenty-six students who were categorized as the achievers or control group and believed to be a true cross section of the population.

The overachievers and underachievers were then selected. To determine who these would be, the students' raw scores on the verbal and abstract reasoning portion of the Illinois Statewide Test and the six semester grade-point averages were converted to T scores. The overachievers were those whose T score for the raw score obtained on the Illinois Statewide Test was ten or more points below the T score derived from the raw score on the six semester grade-point averages. The underachiever was one whose T score for the raw score obtained on the Illinois Statewide Test was ten or more points above the T score derived from the raw score on the six semester grade-point averages.

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[4]Henry E.Garrett, Elementary Statistics (New York: Longmans, Green and Co., Inc., 1956), page 90.

The results on the T score conversion produced twelve overachievers and thirteen underachievers.

Sources of data.--

All researchers have their unique methods of collecting data for a study. The data used to test this hypothesis were derived principally from a questionnaire designed by the writer. Other data came from the students' cumulative folders.

The study habits of these students were inventoried by use of "An Inventory of Study Habits and Techniques" taken from Record of Activities and Experiments with Programmed Units by T. L. Engle, Leonard J. West, and Ohmer Milton.[5]

The fourth instrument used was a personality record sheet which was an opinionaire designed by the National Association of School Principals.

The accumulation of information pertinent to the problem was necessary before this study could get underway. The instruments were administered on February 24, 1965, to the entire class.

Methods of treatment of the data.--

In a research study, an experiment is set up to test a hypothesis, or to answer a question that arises from the hypothesis. "In testing a hypothesis, experimental factors or variables are tried out at various strengths in the different

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[5]T. L. Engle, Leonard J. West, Omer Milton, Record of Activities and Experiments with Programmed Units (Chicago: Harcourt, Bruce and World, Inc., 1951), page 37.

experimental groups; and the net effect of these factors upon behavior is checked against their absence in a "control group."[6]

In this study, the various sorts of differences between the overachievers and the control group and between the underachievers and the control group were examined by one of two methods. The difference between two means was selected as the tool to test the significance of the relationship on two of the variables: study habits and personality characteristics. It should be explained at this point how the means for these two variables were determined. The study habits inventory, a copy of which appears in the appendix, was divided into five areas of study efficiency. Area A had a possible score of twenty-three correct answers; Area B, nine; Area C, twelve; Area D, ten; and Area E, six. The correct answers in each area were counted for each group (overachievers, control, and underachievers) to determine the total score for each group. This total was then divided by the number in each group to determine the mean.

The means for the personality characteristics were tabulated from an opinionaire a copy of which also appears in the appendix. Each personality characteristic was weighted from left to right, from one to five points. Each student marked the square that he felt best fitted him and this determined his score on that characteristic. All scores for each characteristic were added and then divided by the number of

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[6]Garrett, op. cit., page 89.

students in each group. This determined the means for the personality characteristics.

All other variables were tested for significance of relationship by the difference between two percentages. In each method a critical ratio, designated as t value in this study, was computed and evaluated against the one per cent and five per cent levels of probability as the criterion of significance as designated in Table II of Garrett's Elementary Statistics.[7]

When the five per cent level of significance was accepted it meant that the researcher could possibly be wrong once in twenty trials. Likewise if the one per cent level of significance was accepted, it meant the risk of being wrong would occur only once in a hundred trials.

If the null hypothesis was rejected, it was asserted that the difference obtained was significant and that it indicated the existence of a true difference greater than zero. If the null hypothesis was accepted, it was conceded that there was no reason to suspect from the data of this study that the true difference was not zero.

Limitations.--

The causative factors of underachievement and overachievement are probably manifold as was substantiated by other research. It was convincing to this researcher that the factors which might be causative, seemed quite important when they did occur, yet they occurred so infrequently that

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[7]Garrett, op. cit., page 150.

it was impossible to substantiate them statistically. This was probably due to the fact that the sampling used was small.

Also, because the population for this study was small, generalizations for other or larger groups was not intended.

Definitions.--

For research to be understood, the reader and the researcher must find common ground for terminology. With this in mind an attempt will be made to clarify terms used in this study.

The control group used was defined as a random sample taken from the entire senior class at Shelbyville High School. A random sample is one in which (1) every person in the class had the same chance of being included and in which (2) no single choice forced or determined another choice.

Seniors, as referred to by the author, mean the group of students who were in their fourth year of senior high school or a member of the 1965 graduating class.

The personality characteristics used, since each were analyzed separately, bear some clarification as they were defined to the students.

Motivation meant inducement or ability to instigate action.

Habit of attention or devotion to any useful pursuit or work was the explanation to be used for industry.

To have initiative meant to lead, to start, or to be the first to start action.

Another term, integrity, meant uprightness of character--honesty, truthfulness, reliability.

The students questioned apathetic and vacillating which were two words used to describe characteristics. Apathetic was defined as without emotion or feeling and vacillating meant wavering, changeable, or fluctuating.

It was believed that the remaining terms on the personality opinionaire were self-explanatory.

When the students answered the question, "Do you eat breakfast regularly?," to qualify that they ate breakfast, their intake of food in the morning had to meet one of these three patterns:

I Light Breakfast	II Medium Breakfast	III Heavy Breakfast
Fruit Bread Milk or cocoa	Fruit Cereal or eggs Bread Milk or cocoa	Fruit Cereal Main dish (eggs and ham, pancakes, etc.) Bread Beverage (milk or cocoa)

CHAPTER II

Related Research

What have other researchers found? Are there differences or likenesses of underachievers and overachievers? It is the purpose of this author in this chapter to attempt to answer these questions.

From much of the research covered by this writer, many factors were found which might restrict or enhance the academic achievement of the teenager. Many studies have been made throughout the United States regarding high school students and automobiles. Perhpas nothing conclusive has been proved, but the results of these studies tend to point out interesting relationships involving car ownership and adverse results on scholarship.

In the August, 1960, Overview an article appeared which stated that one-fourth to one-third of the senior high school students in rural-suburban areas were driving to school and the figure would rise to one-half. In that same year the Purdue Opinion Poll revealed that thirty-two per cent of the sophomore, junior, and senior boys owned automobiles. Not too many years ago, parents of high school students were rarely asked to sign any forms with regard to student driving. Now it is a common gesture to have to sign permits to allow the son or the daughter to drive to school.

Marshall O. Donley, Jr., in "Autos, Report Cards, and Safety" says, "When a parent signs a request that his son or daughter be allowed to drive, he may be affecting the grades on the report card he will be asked to sign later in the year."[1]

In the early part of 1959 a survey at Madison High School in Rexburg, Idaho, was published. The survey covered a study of the relationship between student driving and grades. This study was based on the four year grade average of a senior class and showed that there were no straight "A" students who drove a car. The Rexburg survey went on to show that fifteen per cent of the "B" students drove, forty-one per cent of the "C" students, and seventy-one per cent of the "D" students, and eighty-three per cent of the failing students all drove cars.[2]

Following the Rexburg study, a few other high school principals have announced that surveys in their schools also show a dramatic relationship between grades and driving. Principals in all parts of the country--north to south, east to west--have said they believe that grades and driving are closely related. Often cited by these principals as an example of this relationship are the students who did not finish school because of maintaining a car. This story, related several times, has the same theme. The students, usually

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[1]Marshall O. Donley, Jr., "Autos, Report Cards, and Safety," NEA Journal, Vol. XLVIII, No. 6 (September, 1959), page 29.

[2]Donley, loc. cit.

male and often already doing poorly in school buy or make a down payment on a car and fail academically.

His failure can be accounted for in this way. After the down payment is made, the student is soon working part time to keep up the payments, to buy gas, or to make repairs. The class work suffers; often he is asleep at his desk. When the principal or the counselor points this out and that the student should decide between his car or his schoolwork, he almost invariably chooses to keep the car, and we have another drop out.

"Parents who do not wisely regulate their teenager's use of the car are endangering his high school grades, his future, and maybe his life."[3] This was the main finding of a study of the automobile's influence on teenage behavior. Conducted by the Allstate Insurance Companies in cooperation with thirty selected high schools throughout the United States and Canada, the study revealed some startling facts concerning the academic, driving, and social habits of twenty thousand junior and senior students.

Confirming the car-grade situation, the study pointed out that the amount of car usage had a direct relationship to academic standing. Driving a car did not in itself have an adverse effect on grades, but when the car driving infringed on school work, then serious problems developed.

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[3]Gerald Kaminski, "Cars vs. Grades," Safety Education, Vol. XL, No. 1 (September, 1960), pages 20-22.

"Grades started to suffer when the car was used more than two days out of the five-day school week. Those who used the car at least four days were more than twice as likely to be "D" or worse students than the two-day users. The best records were made by students who confined their car use strictly to weekends. The poorest students are those who drive their own cars, according to the study."[4]

He continued to say:

> Holding a job to support a car affected the teenager's attitude toward school, and the curtailment of study time created by the job-car combination led to a vicious cycle. Of students spending six dollars or more per week on car support, only one per cent were "A" students, while among those who spend three dollars or less the ratio of "A" students was four times as high.[5]

Other findings of the grade-car relationship were:

> Good students who yield to the car craze suffer the sharpest drop in grades.
>
> The longer a car is owned, the less the chance of a boy's being a good student.
>
> By far the greatest scholastic damage occurs when the high school junior obtains a car.
>
> Among students with neither car nor job, there are twice as many "A" and "B" students as among students having jobs and cars.
>
> Poorer students showed more of a tendency to use a car in going to and from school.
>
> The more evenings a car is used, the more likely that grades will fall.[6]

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[4]Kaminski, loc. cit.

[5]Ibid., p. 21

[6]Ibid., p. 21

It was also found in this same study that parents who tried to use the promise of a car as an incentive to boost lagging grades and interests were likely to find their efforts backfiring. Lack of interest in school work plus a car usually made for scholastic disaster.

Allstate President Branch concluded, "In a significant number of cases, grades were going down long before the car entered the picture and the car tended only to 'grease the skids.'"[7]

In an indirect way, even the following concerning absenteeism and cars also effects academic status:

> An investigation of the school attendance records reflected the influence of automobile ownership on absenteeism. Drivers averaged 2.51 days absent per semester, with 28.6 per cent of their number achieving perfect attendance. The non-drivers averaged 1.36 days absent and 50.8 per cent maintained perfect attendance. The results indicated that drivers exhibited nearly twice the record of absenteeism, and nearly half the record of perfect attendance.[8]

In every realm of comparison used in this study, the results favored the non-driver. Generally speaking, automobiles and positive performances were incompatible.

Also in the summer of 1959, a study was made to determine what effect automobile ownership was having on the behavior of high school boys at Mishawaka High School, Mishawaka, Indiana.

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[7] Ibid., p. 22

[8] Ibid., p. 22

"It was found that drivers in this school compiled a considerably lower grade average than did their non-driving counterparts."[9]

Another noteworthy result related to scholarship achievement. "The non-drivers averaged forty-four positions higher than drivers in class ranking. Among drivers only nineteen per cent ranked in the upper one-fourth. In tabulating the mean scores of I. Q. results, it was discovered that drivers scored 7.5 points lower than non-drivers. Therefore, the non-drivers, as a whole, could conceivably be expected to achieve higher grades scholastically."[10]

Fortunately, all "coins" have two sides. According to the Donley study mentioned earlier, cars are not affecting grades in all high schools. Nor can cars be blamed for all dropouts, or all failures. Some failures would occur if some students walked or rode a pogo stick.

In Artesia, New Mexico, according to that principal "just as many of the high-achieving students drive as the poorer ones. His study showed that 27 per cent of his "A" students drove, 20 per cent of the "B" students, 23 per cent of the "C" students, 21 per cent of "D" students, and 23 per cent of the failures."[11]

A similar contradiction of the Rexburg findings resulted from a survey made at Tenatly, New Jersey, High School. In

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[9]Robert Smith, "On Student Driving," School Board Journal, Vol. CXL, No. 4, (April, 1960), pages 22-23.

[10]Ibid., page 22

[11]Ibid., page 23

this case, about 25 per cent of the top students drove to school more or less regularly. In Stanford, Connecticut, more students are driving than ever, yet a higher percentage of them are going on to college.

There appear to be answers to these contradictions and these answers seem to be in the social and economic level of the community. In towns such as Tenafly, Artesia, and others where two or three car families are common and where many parents are college graduates, a relationship between grades and driving is less likely to exist.

Students in these towns are given cars and supplied with money to support them thus they do not have to use their spare time they might have on a job necessary to support a car. Also, these students are motivated to get into college or business schools and consequently cars or rarely anything else would deter them.

From the foregoing research, the writer believes the concensus of opinion of research shows that car ownership or free accessibility to a car are not compatible with high academic achievement.

Study Habits.--

Webster defines study as a process of acquiring knowledge by one's own efforts. In the research references it was found that the methods of acquiring knowledge were numerous. Some people preferred to work under pressure; they liked to have a deadline and they liked tests. Others liked to leave

a lot of time for their work and enjoy a slow pace of study. Often people are seen in meditation or even reading as they walk along a sidewalk. Temperatures of study rooms make differences for study for some people. There were those who liked to work long periods of time without a break; others liked short periods and frequent breaks. We have seen the dawdler who is slow to warm up or those who get to work very quickly. For some, it is important to have all the facts in front of them before they can organize their work and others can accomplish "wonders" with a few facts.

Today if a student with intellectual ability has difficulty we assume his difficulties are due to an emotional conflict, whereas, it is possible that his learning difficulty might be due to his study habits.

Under the assumption that there were no significant differences between the study habits of underachievers and overachievers as compared to a control group, this author referred to research studies to attempt to discover the findings.

Daniel P. Morton attempted to answer the question, "Does achievement in ninth grade General Science relate more closely to study habits than intelligence, reading ability, and aptitudes?"

Five general science sections in the high school at Hibbing, Minnesota, constituted his population for this study. Each student rated himself and was rated by others five times.

Under these circumstances the following conclusions were drawn:

> This investigation did not find study habits, as measured by Instructor rating, more closely associated with achievement than intelligence, reading ability, and aptitudes. As rated by other students, the study habits of boys were a statistically significant predictor of science achievement; as rated by the instructor, their study habits neared significance negatively. The difference between Instructor rating and Student rating of study habits of boys was significant beyond the one per cent level; the difference was not significant for girls.[12]

A study made during World War II of superior college students referred for specialized training showed that "these students had been making their "A's" and "B's" more by strength of intellect than by efficient study skills. When these same students were asked to read and take notes, their "work rate" was only ninety-three words per minute and the quality of their notes was little better than average."[13]

Another study of several thousand high school students showed that there is rapid forgetting after reading. "Within two weeks after the first reading only twenty per cent was remembered of what was known immediately after reading."[14]

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[12]David P. Norton, "The Relationship of Study Habits and Other Measures to Achievement in the Ninth-Grade General Science," Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. XXVII (March, 1959), page 211.

[13]F. P. Robinson, "Study Skills of Soldiers in A.S.T.P.," Schools and Society, Vol. LVIII (1943), pages 398-399.

[14]F. P. Robinson, "Study Skills for Superior Students in Secondary School," The Reading Teacher, Vol. XV, No. 1 (September, 1961), pages 29-33 quoting "Studies in Retention," Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. XXX (1939) pages 641-656.

In brief, Mr. Robinson concludes from his findings, "the average and superior student in high school and college is inefficient in his reading and study skills. He tends to excel other students in grades mostly because of differences in intellectual ability and not because of better reading and study methods."[15]

Sister Josephina, C.S.J., in her study entitled, "Comparing Study Skills of Gifted and Average Pupils," based her study on these assumptions:

> Underlying achievement is the ability to develop a set of study habits which, when used efficiently, guarantee maximum returns. Study habits or skills become the vehicle by which the gifted, using his superior ability, may reach the successful mastery of a desired learning. It matters little that he can read well if he does not know and apply the basic reading skills, the tools of research, and the needed discipline to gather, synthesize, organize, and present his data.[16]

The achievement of the gifted and average pupils in a study skills test was analyzed and evaluated. From the results she concluded, "Retardation in study skills ability (the discrepancy between the expected and the actual achievement) resulted for both groups. Yet in actual performance, the gifted were more retarded than were the pupils of average ability."[17]

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[15]F. P. Robinson, "Study Skills for Superior Students in Secondary Schools," The Reading Teacher, Vol. XV, No. 1 (September, 1961) page 33.

[16]Sister Josephina, C.S.J., "Comparing Study Skills of Gifted and Average Pupils," Social Education, Vol. XXIV, No. 8 (December, 1960), page 367.

[17]Ibid.

From a study entitled, "Study Techniques of Those Superior Students," done by David Danskin and Collins W. Burnett[18] facts from further studies were gleaned. C. W. Brown used a sixty-four item study habits questionnaire and found that:

> (1) Percentages of failing students reporting the use of correct study habits is as large as percentages found among successful students and (2) large percentages of both failing and successful students fail to make use of many efficient study techniques.[19]

In a study of a highly selected group of soldiers assigned to A.S.T.P. training, inquiry showed "that they had as many, if not more, poor study habits than the average freshman in college. Their average work rate (reading and taking notes) was a low eighty-three words per minute. Their notes were no better than the average college student; they did poorly on a test of tables and graphs."[20]

At the University of Pennsylvania, two researchers analyzed the reading skills of twenty-two Phi Beta Kappa prospects. "They found a wide range of reading ability among the students

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[18]David G. Danskin, Collins W. Burnett, "Study Techniques of Those Superior Students," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XXXI (December, 1952), page 181.

[19]David G. Danskin, Collins W. Burnett, "Study Techniques of Those Superior Students," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XXXI (December, 1952), page 181, quoting "The Study Habits of Failing and Successful Students in the First Two Years of College," Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. IX (1941), pages 205-209.

[20]David G. Danskin, Collins W. Burnett, "Study Techniques of Those Superior Students," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XXXI (December, 1952) page 181, quoting "Study Skills of Soldiers in ASTP," School and Society, Vol. LVIII (1943) pages 398-399.

and concluded from their evidence that good students are typically not efficient readers."[21]

Mr. Danskin and Mr. Burnett concluded from their findings:

> The fact that students in this study who made good grades did so with average or below average learning techniques seems to indicate that the knowledge and use of higher level work skills would enable them to attain greater scholastic achievement. This is another reason to support the idea that how to study courses at the college level should not be limited to students with low academic standing.[22]

The concluding study by Mary L. McLane on "Improving Study Habits" was an experiment to see whether by applying newly acquired knowledge of the learning process, they could raise their grades in one or more of the subjects they were studying. During the course of the project the class studied laws of learning, experiments in learning, recommended study techniques, how to take notes, and how to review and prepare for examinations. Following this, the students were asked to submit themes in which they outlined their progress.

> Thirty students reported improved grades in at least one subject, six analysed their failure to raise any grade, six said they had kept the same grades but charted a course for improvement in the future, and two pointed out that, although their respective grades were not raised,

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[21]David G. Danskin, Collins W. Burnett, "Study Techniques of Those Superior Students," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XXXI (December, 1952), page 181 quoting "The Reading Habits of Superior College Students," Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. XVI (1948), pages 198-201.

[22]David G. Danskin, Collins W. Burnett, "Study Techniques of Those Superior Students," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XXXI (December, 1952), page 181.

they knew they had improved somewhat and felt they were getting more out of their courses.[23]

The author concluded, "A systematic attempt to develop better study habits can be both interesting and practical. Students become more aware of their learning problems and how to correct their techniques when they consciously set out to analyze and improve learning."[24]

The research covering study habits and their relationship to academic achievement are varying but for the most part the opinions were that achievement is due to intellectual ability rather than superior study habits.

Going Steady.--

The term steady dating has no universally accepted definition. It may mean one thing in one section of the country and another in other sections. The term varies in meaning with the age of the young people. In grammar school, children have "secret" steadies. Actually the two may do no dating at all, but they are "going steady" because they "like" each other. In some high schools going steady represents social success and is accorded social recognition and status. Therefore, many people of high school age go steady although they do not intend to become engaged or marry. On most college campuses, students may be dating steadily but they are not likely to call their dating with any one person "going steady"; they consider "going steady" to be high school terminology. Some

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[23]Mary L. McLane, "Improving Study Habits," Social Education, Vol, XXIII, No. 7 (November, 1959), page 336.

[24]Ibid.

of the differences that exist in the patterns of steady dating are in part due to differences in definition at different levels.

> Data from our study of the dating experiences of three-thousand college students show that two-thirds of these students had dated while they were in junior high school, ninety-five per cent had dated while they were in senior high school, and ninety-eight per cent in college. As to the extent of the dating with different people, twenty-one per cent of the women and fifteen per cent of the men had dated at least fifteen different people during their high school years, and forty-one per cent of the women and twenty-seven per cent of the men had dated at least fifteen different people while in college.[25]

In another study of dating patterns among high school people in Ohio, Lowrie found that "in general the earlier the individual began to date the more frequently they dated. He also found that the girls dated more frequently than the boys of the same age, girls tending to date boys somewhat older than themselves."[26]

> Data indicates that the young people who went to college actually did little steady dating in junior and senior high school. Only one in four had had two or more steadies in high school and less than one in five had had two or more steadies in college.
>
> The pattern of steady dating among young people who have finished high school but who do not go to college may or may not be different from that of college young people. People who do not plan to go to college may be inclined to go steady with the ones they do date, since their school life ends with high school and they will soon be earning their living and hence be free to marry early.[27]

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[25]Judson T. Landis, Mary G. Landis, Building A Successful Marriage, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1948), page 56.

[26]Ibid., quoting Samuel H. Lowrie, "Factors Involved in the Frequency of Dating," Marriage and Family Living, Vol. XVIII, No. 1 (February, 1956), page 50.

[27]Judson T. Landis, Mary G. Landis, op. cit., pages 58-59.

This theory seems to be supported by a Purdue Opinion Panel Poll which found that twice as many of the girls whose mothers had a grade school or high school education were going steady as the girls whose mothers had a college education. This same report also found that more girls whose mothers had not gone to college married or became engaged in high school than girls whose mothers were college educated.[28]

August B. Hollingshead in his book, Elmtown's Youth, gives an analysis of the way the social system of a Middle Western Corn Belt community organizes and controls the social behavior of high-school-aged adolescents reared in it. It is a study of seven hundred thirty-five adolescent boys and girls, of which three hundred and ninety were high school students and three hundred forty-five had withdrawn from school.

> In the high school group eighteen per cent reported steady dating, but in the withdrawee group fifty-three per cent of the girls and twenty-one per cent of the boys were "going steady." This differential between the two groups is traceable to the tendency of the lower class withdrawee girls to marry in their teens, whereas the girls in high school, who are in the main members of higher ranking class groups than the withdrawee girls, postpone marriage until the late teens and early twenties.[29]

In no source of research could the writer find specific reference to steady dating and its influence on overachievement or underachievement. It is inferred in the above quoted. The advantages and disadvantages of steady dating were always in terms of economic, social or moral implications.

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[28]The Purdue Opinion Panel, (Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University, February, 1956), page 4a.

[29]August B. Hollingshead, Elmtown's Youth, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1949) page 424.

Eating Breakfast.--

"Life within doors has few pleasanter prospects than a neatly arranged and well provided breakfast table." Hawthorne said that. Most mothers today would consider this statement quite outdated for in the modern home the breakfast is more like a parade. Each member just allows himself enough time to rush through "something" to eat and run or bypasses the breakfast entirely.

The March, 1964, N. E. A. Journal had this to say concerning American school children and nutrition:

> Despite the widespread idea that everyone in the United States is well fed, nutrition problems do exist among American school children and their families at the present time. Some pupils may be so hungry and conscious of their empty stomachs that they have little time for thinking about anything else. Others may dread coming to school each day because they are called "fatties" and are subjected to the jeers and unkind remarks of their classmates. Some may be perennial absentees because of continual infections and below-par health related to poor dietary practices. You may also have teen-age girls who are literally starving themselves to stay thin; youngsters with dental decay which could result from poorly selected foods.[30]

Inadequate breakfasts, according to research, tend to result in inadequate intakes of nutrients for the whole day. Only one child in five made up in the other meals of the day the nutrient deficiency caused by a poor breakfast.

One of the most important studies done on this subject was the "Iowa Breakfast Studies." One-half to two-thirds of the 1188 Iowa school children whose food habits were studied

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[30]Mary C. Egan, "Nutrition," N. E. A. Journal, Vol. LIII, No. 3 (March, 1964) page 62.

had predominantly poor breakfasts. The results of this study showed that the omission of breakfast was demonstrated to result in poorer attitudes toward school work and to detract from scholastic attainments. Twelve to fourteen year old boys were restless and inattentive in the late morning hours when they had eaten no breakfast."[31]

A nutrition education program in Springfield, Illinois, alerted this community to the health hazards of improper food habits. The program was an outgrowth of a nutrition survey conducted by a committee of parents, home economists, and school officials. After evaluating the information gathered by the survey, the committee announced that "teachers observed a definite connection between better diets and better study habits. Eighty-one per cent of the children indicated they would drink milk in the morning if it were available. Because of generally poor breakfast habits, the committee said milk should be offered to all children before school as well as at the afternoon recess."[32]

Breakfast, priced at ten cents, was served to approximately one hundred fifty students each morning at Teague School in Fresno, California. This program developed as a result of a survey by the school nurse and administration. It showed that about one third of these students did not eat breakfast.

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[31]Iva Bennett, "Why Breakfast Is Important," Practical Home Economics, Vol. VI, No. 1 (September, 1960), page 10.

[32]Jackson E. Isbell, "Poor Diet Habits," Nutrition and Health, Vol. II, No. 1 (January-February, 1959) page 1, quoting Alice Powers, "Food Survey Sparks Nutrition Campaign," School Lunch Journal (September, 1958).

"The children are more alert; they have better study habits; the discipline problems are reduced in the school"[33] were the conclusions drawn after this program was instigated.

Henry Clay Lindgren in his book, Mental Health in Education, reiterates Maslow's basic needs as bodily needs: hunger, sex, the need to breathe, to eliminate waste; safety, love, self-esteem, and self-actualization. He concludes the paragraph by saying, "It is worth nothing that Maslow feels that it is difficult for individuals to meet needs adequately at the end of the list--needs for self-esteem and self-actualization for example--if needs at the head of the list are unmet. This is why the child who is undernourished is a poor learner."[34]

A newspaper article titled "Teens Try Balanced Diet, Do Better School Work" appeared August 31, 1964, in the Decatur Herald.

> Results of a nine-week study conducted last fall by South Houston High School was released today. It showed forty-four per cent of those students who followed a prescribed diet improved their grades.
>
> Only twenty per cent of those students in a second group who adhered to their own regular diet showed grade improvement.
>
> . . . The participating students ate breakfast and lunch at school. Their parents prepared an evening meal specified by the school and the Texas Gulf Bakers Council, which also took part in the project.

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[33]Louis Monteleone, "Breakfast at School Gives Pupils a Taste for Learning," The Nation's Schools, Vol. LXXII, No. 1 (July, 1963), page 38.

[34]Henry Clay Lindgren, Mental Health in Education (New York; Henry Holt and Company, 1954), page 65.

> . . . . We did everything scientifically. The basis of the whole study was a balanced diet, the right food in the proper quantities.[35]

These Houston, Texas, school officials say there is definitely a link between what a teen-ager eats and how he fares on his report card as a result of this experiment.

University of Nebraska food and nutrition experts conducted tests which proved that when breakfast is skipped, schoolwork "loses out."

The specialists said:

> Breakfast should supply a person with at least one fourth of his daily calorie and body-building protein allowance, plus a good share of the required allowance of Vitamin C.
>
> Persons should not shy away from a substantial breakfast under the theory that it will result in increased weight. Breakfast skippers frequently double their usual intake of calories by nibbling on high-calorie snacks.
>
> If you want your child to do well in his school work, better make sure that he has a good breakfast daily.[36]

"Studies show that people who eat an adequate breakfast tire less easily, react faster mentally, and can perform more physical work than those whose breakfasts are meager," says Marion E. Lowenberg. She continues to relate, "So the child who has eaten a good breakfast has a basis for doing better in school than the child who eats no breakfast or an inadequate one. The truth of the saying, 'As they eat, so they learn,' has been demonstrated by scientific experiment.[37]

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[35] The Decatur Herald and Review, August 31, 1964.

[36] The St. Louis Globe-Democrat, November 19, 1964.

[37] Marion E. Lowenberg, "As They Eat So They Learn," National Parent-Teacher, Vol. L, No. 8 (April, 1956) pages 7-9.

Presently holding a job.--

From the frontier days to the present, the American economy has seen a need for the labor of youth. Conversely, youth needs work for it provides an income which is much needed by them to keep cars "running," "compete" with friends, and to participate in commercialized recreation.

> The demand of the retail trades' services for part-time employees synchronizes well with the high school students' needs and desires. Since very few town families have enough work at home to occupy a high-school-aged youngster, three or four hours in the afternoon or evening and all day Saturday, the typical youngster has several hours of free time on his hands. During these same afternoon and early evening and Saturday hours the business peak in the retail stores is reached; therefore, through the years the custom has developed of employing high-school-aged youngsters to work in these establishments part-time.[38]

Hollingshead goes on to say:

> There are several reasons for the keen competition among the town adolescents for part-time jobs. It is linked closely, first with the high value the culture placed upon work and earning one's way and, second, with their need for money. . . . Family incomes in the two lowest groups find it expensive to send a child through high school. The incomes of Class IV parents generally cover the necessities of life, but they do not allow for the extras they like to have. Most parents in Classes III and IV believe that a child should help all he can. Many of them frequently view their children as economic burdens which prevent them from closing the gap between what they desire of the material things which advertising campaigns have educated them to expect in the American way of life and what the family income actually can buy. In some cases it is necessary for the children to work in order to stay in school. . . . Some parents particularly in Class III but a few in Class II, believe that their children should work in order to learn the value of money, to acquire a sense of responsibility even though the income earned by the youth is not needed to supplement the family income.[39]

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[38]August B. Hollingshead, Elmtown's Youth, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1949) page 267.

[39]Ibid.

Whatever the cause is for the teenager holding a job caution should be taken as is stated in this statement, "To combine school life and some daily job requires planning if the young person's time for home study, recreation, and exercise is not to be lost or unduly curtailed and if he is not to lose needed hours of sleep, thus jeopardizing his success in school or his health."[40]

Any relationship of the teenager working and his scholastic achievement was not clearly defined in any research investigated except that which dealt with the automobile and the student's working to keep it going. References like the following written by Paul Jones were typical in many instances: "About one-half of the teen-age boys driving cars have part-time jobs. And why do you think they are working? Most of these boys work on weekends. Many of them work after school on school days. Some of them work both. When they're working, they're not studying. Thus the grades take a 'beating,'"[41]

Statistical studies on achievement and working were not available.

Ordinal Position.--

Hazel Thompson Craig in her book Thresholds To Adult Living quoted the results of one of the most comprehensive family surveys ever made. It was done by the Public Affairs

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[40]Federal Security Agency, Social Security Administration, Guiding the Adolescent: 1946, page 46.

[41]Paul Jones, "Stop and Go Signals for Teen-Age Drivers," The P.T.A. Magazine, Vol. LVII, No. 7, (March, 1963), page 4.

Press. Two distinguished sociologists, Dr. Carle C. Zimmerman and Dr. Lucius F. Cervantes, spent four years making a detailed study of 60,000 American families. Three tests were used to classify families as good and bad. "Families were considered good if there was no divorce, juvenile arrest, or high school drop-outs before graduation. About eighty-five per cent of families were good, on this basis. Many families in the remaining fifteen per cent were not really bad. An unfortunate marriage followed by a happy one, just a single arrest on a routine matter, or an occasional drop-out could hardly be said to make a family really bad."[42]

"When there is more than one child in a family, there is bound to be rivalry and jealousy" was a frequent statement made in the research with regard to sibling relationships.

> Children, especially if they are close together in age, learn much from each other. However, a younger child may appear slow in some learning processes if older children anticipate and fill their needs. An older sister may tend to mother a younger child or become "bossy." When an older child is held up as a model, younger children resent it and there is friction. When an older child is given too much responsibility, he may feel imposed upon and compensate by criticizing younger brothers or sisters. On the other hand, younger children often learn to depend too much on older brothers and sisters.[43]

Studies, according to Craig, have been made to attempt to determine which child in a family has the greatest advantage--the oldest, in-between, or youngest--but the results

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[42]Hazel Thompson Craig, Thresholds to Adult Living (Peoria: Charles A. Bennett Co., Inc., 1962), page 223.

[43]Ibid., page 229.

have been conflicting.[44]

William R. Burrow reported data on the family relations of bright high school boys making good grades as compared with bright high school boys making mediocre or poor grades. "Of numerous studies of school achievement, few have obtained data regarding family relations correlates. These few have indicated a positive association between student achievement and emotionally supportive home situations. This general finding applies to elementary school pupils, high school students, and college students."[45]

The first one hundred and fifty freshman students who came to William P. Angers on a voluntary basis either for guidance and/or counseling during an academic year and were the oldest, middle, or youngest in the family were used in a study. The age range was from seventeen to nineteen with a mean age of eighteen. The high school class ranking under the headings of top, middle, and lowest third was similar for the three groups. The findings of this study were,

> The awards, honors, and scholarships to college received by the students from the three groups showed that the oldest and youngest were outshown by the middle group for awards, both academic and non-academic. For honors, the oldest and youngest outdid the middle group. The oldest received a few more scholarships to college than did the middle and the youngest. It would seem that all three groups were evenly matched in this regard.[46]

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[44] Ibid.

[45] William R. Burrow, Robert C. Wilson, "Family Relations of Bright High-Achieving and Underachieving High School Boys," Child Development, Vol. XXXII (September, 1961), page 501.

[46] William P. Angers, "Familial Ordinal Position in Relation To Guidance and Counseling," The Journal of Educational Research, Vol. LVII, No. 3, (November, 1963), page 116.

Sarah M. Schoonover has done two enlightening studies. The major problem of her study done in 1956 was to determine the amount of sibling resemblance in longitudinal growth records of mental ability and educational achievement. The following specific points were investigated: (a) To what extent do children of the same family resemble each other in intelligence and in educational achievement. (b) To what extent are differences between siblings reduced as compared to those that exist between unrelated pairs within the same population? (c) To what degree do the sibling resemblances in intelligence and achievement correspond to each other?

> All three methods of analysis utilized on the longitudinal growth records in this study, that is, means of the average differences, percentage of reduction of differences by family membership, and correlation, produced consistent results in describing the existence of a substantial amount of sibling resemblance in intelligence and achievement. Resemblances in intelligence were somewhat greater than they were in achievement.[47]

In her second study, Miss Schoonover did an analysis on sibling performance on intelligence and achievement tests utilizing longitudinal data. Her conclusions in this study were:

> No significant differences were found between older and younger siblings in intelligence or achievement as measured by deviation from the norms for chronological age. Thus priority of birth in a family gave no advantage in intelligence or achievement. Siblings, irrespective of sex, with brothers consistently had higher mental and achievement ages than siblings with sisters. The relationship between interval between births and the average

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[47]Sarah M. Schoonover, "A Longitudinal Study of Sibling Resemblance in Intelligence and Achievement," The Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. XLVII, (November, 1956), page 436.

difference in intelligence and achievement for sibling pairs was insignificant.[48]

The last study investigated revealed that "there was no significant difference between the high and low groups of 'only children.' There were more oldest children among the high achievers and were more youngest children among the low achievers. These findings suggested that the oldest children might have developed a stronger sense of responsibility than had youngest children."[49]

Both Parents Working.--

The family is still the center of American life. To it income flows for the purpose of caring for dependents, and the sharing in the development and fulfillment of goals. In general, the family financial problems of fifty years ago seem quite similar to those of today. Families are still concerned about having adequate income, providing for emergencies, choosing products and leisure that best contribute to their goals, buying efficiently, and managing funds so there will be adequate reserve to aid in "upward" mobility for the children.

The specific financial problems have changed. Mainly, the earning of the income has changed. At the turn of the century in this area, this consisted chiefly of agricultural activities in the dairy barn or the poultry yard, assisting

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[48]Sarah M. Schoonoever, "The Relationship of Intelligence and Achievement to Birth Order, Sex of Siblings, and Age Interval," The Journal of Education Psychology, Vol. L, No. 4, (June, 1959), page 143.

[49]Helen Erksine Roberts, "Factors Affecting the Academic Underachievement of Bright High School Students," The Journal of Educational Research, Vol. LVI, (December, 1962), page 175.

in a family enterprise located nearby, doing industrial homework, or keeping boarders. Now it consists chiefly of earning away from the family and with this change, the wife's contribution has increased in importance.

In the past two decades, according to labor statistics, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of working women, especially among married women living with their husbands, and whose children have reached school age. The United States Department of Labor predicts that the number of women in the labor force by 1970 will approximate thirty million. This represents a twenty-five per cent increase over 1960.

The effects of maternal employment upon family structure as well as upon child development and function have been the focus of an increasing number of research studies. Among the areas studied have been the effects of maternal employment upon school achievement.

> The "working mother" has not been subject to demarcation. In the typical study, no requirement has been set that the mother must have been working for a stated interval of time, no attention has been given to the number hours per day or week that she works, no regard has been paid to whether her place of work is also her home, nor has there been concern with her previous employment history. Categorization of the mother as "working" has often proceeded on the basis of minimal and even dubious evidence, e.g., a child's report on a questionnaire. This simple definitional problem doubtless has contributed to a loss of significance in existing findings, especially since in fact irregular and sporadic employment histories are characristic of so many American mothers. Related to this is the fact that in some studies, working mothers who are also single heads of households have been grouped indiscriminately with working mothers from intact homes.[50]

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[50]Anita Reichart, "The Homemaker as Employed Worker," Journal of Home Economics, Vol. LIII, No. 1 (January, 1961), page 18.

This author goes on to say,

> The expectation that working mothers' children will differ from other children hinges at least in part on the assumption that working mothers differ from others in their childrearing attitudes and practices. There is little evidence on this matter, and the evidence which does exist does not strongly support this assumption.[51]

Mrs. Katherine Brownell Oetlinger, chief of the Children's Bureau in 1958 had this to say:

> We at the Children's Bureau are often asked what are the effects of maternal employment on the children in the family? . . . It depends on the kind of mother, the kind of child, the kind of family. It depends, among other things, on why the mother works, how much she works, what she does, what her work does to or for her, how old her children are, what provisions she makes for them while she works, how they perceive the fact of her working.[52]

Durlyn E. Wade in a study entitled, "School Achievement and Parent Employment," found that "the students with only one parent employed do not achieve any better than those with both parents employed.[53]

William R. Morrow in his study on bright high achieving and underachieving high school boys relates the following concerning the working mother and achievement:

> These two groups of students, high achievers and low achievers, did not differ significantly in any of the sociological factors on which data was obtained. The data contradicted the stereotyped notion that a mother's working outside the home inevitably leads to neglect which conduces to poor school performance (and other dire consequences). Actually forty-seven per cent of

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[51] Ibid.

[52] Work in the Lives of Married Women, National Manpower Commission, New York: Columbia University Press, 1958.

[53] Durlyn E. Wade, "School Achievement and Parent Employment," The Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. XXXVI, (October, 1962), pages 93-95.

> the high achievers, as against thirty-seven per cent of the underachievers, reported that their mothers were working outside the home.[54]

An interesting study on school adjustment problems was based on a number of children referred to a school-district guidance department for a variety of reasons, including school failure, aggressiveness, excessive withdrawal, and stealing.

> In this school district the large majority of the children of working mothers and also of those of non-working mothers had never been referred to the guidance office at all. Among the children who had been referred, however, the children of working mothers were somewhat different from the children of non-working mothers. The former were younger, and proportionately fewer of them were referred for academic failure and more for withdrawal tendencies.[55]

The conclusions found in this study were:

> Thus we have some slight evidence that in the small group of cases where the mother's working may contribute to school adjustment, it is likely to do so at the time when the child first enters school, and that the child is more likely to suffer from a difficulty in relating adequately to other people than he is from academic failure. However, we do not know whether it is the mother's working which is behind the problems that appear, or whether both the problems and the mother's working are reflections of the same factor.[56]

"The frequency of maternal employment was significantly higher among scholastic underachievers than achievers," says Edward Frankel. "More than eighty per cent of the mothers of

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[54]William R. Morrow, Robert C. Wilson, "Family Relations of Bright High Achieving and Underachieving High School Boys," Child Development, Vol. XXXII (September, 1961), page 501.

[55]Eleanor E. Maccoby, "Children and Working Mothers," Children, Vol. V, No. 3 (May-June, 1958), page 83.

[56]Ibid.

the low achievers as compared to about fifty per cent of the mothers of the high achievers were working," he concluded.[57]

In this same study of Frankel's, other studies were quoted such as one done by N. C. Shaw who reported, "more working mothers among bright academic underachievers than among the achievers."[58] Or, N. L. Goldberg who found "no significant differences in the number of working mothers among high and underachievers in two high school populations."[59]

The book, Feminine Mystique, written by Betty Friedan, supports the working mother. She says:

> An then there were the frightening figures and case histories of children abandoned and rejected because their mothers worked. How many women realize, even now, that the babies in those publicized cases, who withered away from lack of maternal affection, were not the children of educated, middle-class mothers who left them in others care certain hours of the day to practice a profession or write a poem, or fight a political battle--but truly abandoned children: foundlings often deserted at birth by unwed mothers and drunken fathers, children who never had a home or tender loving care. Headlines were made by any study which implied that working mothers were responsible for juvenile delinquency, school difficulties, or emotional disturbance in their children.[60]

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[57]Edward Frankel, "Characteristics of Working and Non-Working Mothers Among Intellectually Gifted High and Low Achievers," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XLII (April, 1964), page 776.

[58]Ibid. quoting N. C. Shaw, "Attitudes and Child Rearing Practices of Parents of Bright Academic Underachievers: A Pilot Study," U.S.P.H. Research Project M, Vol. 2894 (1960).

[59]Frankel, op. cit. quoting N. L. Goldberg, "Studies in Underachievement Among the Academically Talented, Freeing Capacity to Learn," Washington, D. C., Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, N.E.A. (1960), pages 56-73.

[60]Betty Friedan, The Feminine Mystique, (New York: W. W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1963) page 194.

Mrs. Friedan continues by quoting a psychologist, Dr. Lois Meek Stoltz, of Stanford University:

> Dr. Lois Meek Stoltz analyzed all the evidence from such studies. She discovered that at the present time, one can say anything--good or bad--about children of employed mothers and support the statement by some research findings. But there is no definitive evidence that children are less happy, healthy, adjusted, because their mothers work.[61]

Quoting Dr. Stoltz:

> Many studies misinterpreted as "proof" that women cannot combine careers and motherhood actually indicate that, where other conditions are equal, the children of mothers who work because they want to are less likely to be disturbed, have problems in school, or to 'lack a sense of personal worth' than housewives' children.
>
> . . . A famous study in Chicago which had seemed to show more mothers of delinquents were working outside the home, turned out to show only that more delinquents came from broken homes. Another study of four hundred seriously disturbed children of a school population of 16,000 showed that where no broken home was involved, three times as many of the disturbed children's mothers were housewives as working mothers.[62]

A concluding article which appeared in the July, 1965, Changing Times says:

> Many express concern that children whose mothers work are lonely and neglected but this comment crops up more often among wives who have no children. Most of the mothers feel that the children become more independent and more cooperative. Still, they are nagged by what one describes as 'the guilt complex' of a working mother. They worry about being away from home when a child is sick or requires special attention. They worry about leaving children with baby sitters. They find that the most difficult thing about working outside the home is not being there when the children are growing up.

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[61] Ibid.

[62] Ibid. quoting Lois Meek Stoltz, "Effects of Maternal Employment on Children: Evidence from Research," Child Development, Vol. XXXI, No. 4, (1960), pages 749-782.

Even so ninety per cent say they are achieving the goals they set when they went to work.

The final thought of this article was:

> It may not be the easiest or most ideal way to live, but it has distinct advantages. Not the least is learning how to enjoy the time we do have together and using it well. We try as a family to accept the difficulties we necessarily share and still find time for creative thinking and activity as the distinct individuals we are.

Personality Characteristics.--

It has been said that we have three personalities--the one we think we have, the one others think we have, and the one we strive to achieve. Our personality makes us the unique individual each of us is--our individual characteristics and peculiarities all taken together.

Three individuals quoted as "teachers" of personality building define personality as follows: Napoleon Hill, who is the author of Mental Dynamite: The Philosophy of American Achievement says, "Personality is the totality of one's personal characteristics."[63]

"Personality includes all the things you think about in evaluating another person,"[64] according to Margery Wilson who is author of Charm, and gives correspondence courses to women in personality improvement.

A psychologist, Doncaster G. Humm, devotes his time to personality adjustments in industry. He developed the

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[63]Paul W. Chapman, Your Personality and Your Job, (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1942), page 19, quoting Napoleon Hill, Margery Wilson, Doncaster G. Humm.

[64]Ibid.

"Temperament Test" which has been given to more than one million workers in an effort to help employers find the right job for every man. He defines personality as "the entire fabric of an individual's attributes. The minimum consideration would be to say that it includes disposition or temperament, intelligence, skill, aptitude, interests, and physical make-up."[65]

That one's personality affects his relationships with people cannot be denied. It determines in large measure, his happiness from day to day. His social life is controlled by his personality. What may be most important of all, it is one of the major factors in making possible a satisfactory occupational adjustment.

Two references prove this point. "The Harvard Bureau of Vocational Guidance found in a study of 4400 persons who were discharged from jobs that personality factors were the cause of failure in sixty-six per cent of the cases. Lack of technical knowledge was the basic reason for the failure of only thirty-four per cent of the cases."[66]

The second reference is to Dr. Donald A. Laird, a psychologist, who in his book How to Make People Like You, said, "Mastery of the details of one's calling is not enough to bring a man to the point of maximum earnings if he has not

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[65] Ibid.

[66] Ibid., page 8.

the personality to back his knowledge and assist in smoothing the way to apply it."[67]

A review of the literature revealed conflicting ideas on the effect personality on scholastic achievement.

Laverne Carnical used "The Study of Values" which aims to measure the relative prominence of six basic interests or motives in personality, on a group of achievers and under-achievers of a large senior high school. He found that:

> The responses for the boys of the two groups differed more than the responses of the girls. The boy achievers placed high esteem on the theoretical, the religious, and the economic in that order. The boy underachievers ranked the economic, the theoretical, and the aesthetic as their values of most importance. The lowest value assessment by achiever boys was for the aesthetic; the lowest for the underachievers was for social. Girls of both groups regarded the religious as the area of highest value. Achieving girls scored higher than underachieving girls in the social value. Data from the combined boy-girl responses indicated significant group differences in that theoretical, social, and religious values revealed distinctly higher scores for the achieving group. No significant differences were noted for any other attitude in the study.[68]

In a study done by Kurt Haas on academically superior college students, he found that those who obtain high grade point averages have been reported to possess a number of different needs and drives which distinguish them from average undergraduates.

It was the purpose of his study specifically to examine some of the personality attributes of the academically superior student. In so doing he found:

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[67] Ibid. page 9

[68] Laverne Carnical, "Characteristics of Achievers and Underachievers of a Large Senior High School," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XVIII, (December, 1964), pages 390-395.

> The personality needs, as measured by the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, of academically superior college students were compared to the norms reported for a general college sample. Significant differences were not obtained. A number of explanations were suggested, among which it was likely that superior students were probably not very different from other college students except in terms of ability and diligence.[69]

"Although many factors may be associated with underachievement, mounting evidence indicates that certain personality characteristics may differentiate these students from equally gifted pupils who realize their academic promise."[70]

Durr and Schmatz quoted other research which disclosed that the high achievers saw themselves as freer to make choices and freer to communicate with their parents than the low achievers. The high achievers also more frequently had a feeling of belongingness in relation to their parents and saw themselves in constructive, purposive, and resourceful activities.[71]

A second article of research to which they referred reported that "high achieving gifted children were more sensitive and responsive to socialization pressures."

Still another reference stated that "high achievers were more sociable and tended to identify better with adult models.

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[69]Kurt Haas, "Personality Needs of Academically Superior Students and Their Parents," The Journal of Educational Research, Vol. XLVI, No. 7, (March, 1963), page 389.

[70]William K. Durr, Robert R. Schmatz, "Personality Differences Between High-Achieving and Low-Achieving Gifted Children," The Reading Teacher, Vol. XVII, (September, 1963), pages 251-254.

[71]Ibid.

Also, high achievers had greater feelings of individual worth, greater ability to persist in the face of difficulty, and greater ability to cope with their own emotional disturbances.

Durr and Schmats concluded from their own study that:

> The high-achievers showed a more desirable personality pattern. The low-achieving children were more likely to show behavioral immaturity, emotional instability, feelings of inadequacy and certain nervous symptoms when compared with high achieving gifted. . . . There was no evidence that relatively poor personality patterns caused low achievement or that low achievement caused poorer personality patterns. There was evidence that these two factors tended to be characteristic of the same group.[72]

They continue with two instructional implications for their findings:

> Although no causative relationship was shown, the teacher who is concerned with the academic development of his students may find this development fostered through efforts to improve the more intangible personality characteristics. Since the relationship between relatively lower academic attainments and relatively less desirable personality characteristics does exist, the possibility that achievement may be improved as personality characteristics are improved should not be ignored.
>
> Secondly, since the comparative weakness of personality traits for low achievers is evident only in comparison with high achievers, not in comparison with all children, it may be overlooked. This means that the teacher should take greater than average care in assessing these intangible characteristics.[73]

The purpose of a study done by James D. McKenzie, Jr., was to present some hypotheses concerning the personality dynamics. These hypotheses arose from two sources. The first was a comparison of two deviant achievement groups with a

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[72] Ibid.

[73] Ibid.

normal achievement group on the clinical and validity scales of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory.

> Statistically significant differences were noted only when the two deviant groups were compared separately with the normal achiever group. It is interesting that no differences emerged when overachievers and underachievers were compared. This finding suggests that there are certain similarities between the deviant groups, so that a good deal is lost when they are compared with one another. When the deviant groups were compared separately with the normal achievers, differences arose that appear to be pyschologically meaningful.[74]

How they were meaningful is discussed as follows:

> The obtained scores indicate underachievers are more anxious than normal achievers; they tend to be antagonistic to authority, to reject socially accepted values, and to incline toward impulsive behavior. . . . The other scales on which they scored higher than the normal achievers are different from those of the underachievers, indicating that the two groups direct their anxiety differently. For the overachievers, the anxiety is directed internally. While their behavior is more socially acceptable, they tend to feel depressed and inadequate. Overachievement might be viewed as a way of compensating for feelings of personal and social inadequacy. Underachievers tend to 'externalize' their conflicts and anxiety. Hostility was seen as playing an important role in the dynamics of underachievement.[75]

One final piece of research was done on a middle class, suburban, residential community. The sample included three groups of high school boys selected from approximately fifteen hundred boys. The groups represented three levels of academic performance: underachievers, par achievers, and superior achievers. The three student achievement groups and a sample of teachers were given the Allport-Vernon-Lindsey "Study of Values" test.

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[74]James D. McKenzie, Jr., "The Dynamics of Deviant Achievement," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XLII, No. 7, (March, 1964) page 683.

[75]Ibid.

The results indicate that

The "Study of Values" distinguished between teachers and student groups with a high degree of accuracy. The most important dimension of the test was the Economic Scale. Teachers have the lowest scores on that scale with superior achievers next lowest; par achievers and underachievers have the highest scores.

. . . . Teachers and superior achievers are most similar in the domain of values while the underachievers and par achievers tended to be classed together. It was suggested that the value similarity between teachers and superior achievers may imply more than value conformity with resultant biased grading because of the nature of the values apparently shared.[76]

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[76]Norman A. Sprinthall, "A Comparison of Values Among Teachers, Academic Underachievers, and Achievers," The Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. XXXIII, No. 2, (Winter, 1964).

CHAPTER III

Analysis of the Data

In the analysis of the data which follows in the ensuing pages, the author relied upon statistical procedures to give the answers to the null hypothesis proposed on several variables that there were no significant differences between the responses of the underachievers and the overachievers in relation to a control group. Each of the eight variables was analyzed separately. The method of analysis was described in Chapter I.

TABLE I

Per cent of overachievers, control group, and underachievers who own or have free access to a car.

Group	Own	Free Access
Overachievers	16%	67%
Control	23%	65%
Underachievers	46%	69%

Ownership or Free Access to an Automobile.--

Today the four-wheeled conveyance known as a car is a "must" to many high school seniors. For some students a car is a status symbol--a symbol of freedom and maturity. To

others a car is an absolute necessity as a means of transportation to and from school or a job. Some of these teenagers believe it is an absolute necessity to have a car if one is to have friends.

Whatever the reason for having a car, the question posed in this study was, "Did the ownership or free access to a car make any appreciable difference in academic achievement?"

The questions, 1) Do you own a car? and 2) If you drive the family car, how often do you get it? were posed to the three classifications--overachievers, control group, and underachievers--on the questionnaire used for this study. It was found that two of the twelve overachievers or sixteen per cent, owned their own cars; six or sixty-seven per cent (including the students who owned their cars) of this group had free access to a car. By free access, it was meant that the student answered the second question on the questionnaire concerning cars by such responses as, "all the time, "whenever I want it," etc., indicating no limitations to the use of the family car. It was assumed that if he owned his own car he had free access to it.

Of the control group, six or twenty-three per cent owned their own cars and seventeen or sixty-five per cent had free access to a car. The underachievers had six or forty-six per cent who owned their cars and seven or sixty-nine per cent who had free access to one.

The significance of the difference between these above percentages of those who ascertained they owned or had free access to an automobile was tested against the null hypothesis that no real difference existed between 1) the overachievers and the control group, and 2) the underachievers and the control group.

For the thirty-six degrees of freedom of the overachievers and the control group, the .05 and .01 points were 2.02 and 2.71 respectively. The t value of .12 failed to reach either of the significant points thus indicating that on the evidence secured in this study, there was no real difference between the overachievers and the control group as to accessibility to a car.

For the thirty-seven degrees of freedom of the underachievers, the .05 and .01 points were approximately the same as for the thirty-six degrees of freedom. The t value of 1.46 failed to reach either the 2.02 or 2.71 thus there was no real difference statistically between the underachievers and the control group.

Accordingly, the null hypothesis was accepted and it was concluded on the evidence of this study, that there was no real difference between the underachievers and the control group as to their accessibility to a car.

TABLE II

Tabulation of the Mean Scores Obtained on Study Habits for Overachievers, Underachievers, and Control Group.

Habit, Attitude, or Technique	Overachievers	Control	Underachievers
A. General habits and techniques of study	9*	12	10
B. Attitudes toward school and study	4	5	5
C. Reading habits and techniques	6	6	6
D. Taking notes and writing reports	5	6	6
E. Preparing for and taking exams	3	3	4

* A t value obtained when the overachievers were compared to the control group was found to be significant at the .05 level.

Study Habits.--

Sputnik plunged the United States into a contest of brains. Academic standards are rising. According to a statement that occurred in The Decatur Herald and Review, "For every college student in the United States in 1920, there were two in 1940, four in 1950, and six in 1960, and there will be eleven in 1970. The increase in college enrollment in the next ten years will be greater than it has been in the past forty years."[1]

[1]The Decatur Herald and Review, February 15, 1960.

The assurance of a college seat has grown more competitive and will continue to do so if the above figures hold true. Never, therefore, has it been as important as it is today for American boys and girls to know how to make good grades. With this thought in mind, this writer undertook the problem of ascertaining whether there were differences in the study habits of underachievers and overachievers at Shelbyville.

The study habits inventory used was designed to measure five aspects of study efficiency as they appear in Table II above. A copy of this inventory appears in the Appendix.

In surveying these habits statistically, the test for the significance of the difference between two means was used. In only one category, reading habits and techniques, were the means for the three groups the same.

In Area A, general habits and techniques of study, the overachievers as compared to the control group had a t value of 2.34 with thirty-six degrees of freedom which on Garrett's Table II[2] indicated it was significant at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Although the underachievers as compared to the control group in this same area had a difference of two between the means, the t value was 1.80 and not significant at either the .01 or .05 level. The null hypothesis of no significant difference was accepted.

The second group of questions on the study-habit inventory dealt with attitudes toward school and study. It covered

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[2]Henry E. Garrett, Elementary Statistics (New York: Longmans, Green, and Co., 1956), page 150.

such aspects as "worry about schoolwork," "interesting schoolwork," "considering dropping out," "likes and dislikes for teachers and subjects."

There was in this area, a one-point difference between the means of the overachievers and the control group. This one-point difference showed a t value of 1.49 which was not significant at either level tested. Because there was no difference between the means of the underachievers and the control group, no statistics were involved. In both instances, overachievers and underachievers, the null hypothesis was accepted.

In World War II the Air Force psychologists proved that you can learn to see more in a shorter span of time. By flashing pictures on screens they trained pilots to take in fantastic numbers of details very rapidly. Speed-reading machines have been installed in many schools because research has shown that fast reading increased understanding. In this study, the reading habits and techniques of the overachievers, control group, and the underachievers were par excellence. With no difference in the means on this point, the null hypothesis was accepted.

The best indicator of a clear understanding of a lecture or discussion is the act of condensing a speaker's remarks into a short statement. This is the key to note taking. Taking down most of what a person says is unnecessary and next to impossible yet many students attempt to do this. How did the Shelbyville students rate in this area?

The t value of the overachievers and the control group on Area D, was 1.45, yet this showed no significant difference at the .05 or .01 level. The conclusion was drawn that the one-point difference in the means statistically was not significant and the null hypothesis was accepted. The underachievers and control group met with the same conclusion on this point since there was no difference in the means of these two groups.

Preparing for and taking tests was the final area tested for significance. The overachievers and control group in this area had like norms. The underachievers and the control group had a t value of 1.92 which was not significant at either the .01 or .05 levels. In this area of study, it was found that the null hypothesis was accepted and that the underachievers showed no significant difference from the control group.

Going Steady.--

Sooner or later, a boy is likely to discover that there is one girl who suits him best; and a girl is likely to find one boy whom she prefers to all others. A boy and girl who like each other best of all their acquaintances begin to save their dates for each other. They may agree to have dates with no one else. Or they may do so many things together that they have no time to date other people. They are then said to be "going steady."

From tabulation from the questionnaire it was found that one, or eight per cent of the overachievers, that five, or nineteen per cent of the control group, and seven, or fifty-four

per cent of the underachievers in this study were "going steady."

Between the overachievers and the control group there was eleven per cent difference but statistically this was not significant and the null hypothesis was accepted. The underachievers had thirty-five per cent more than the control group "going steady." This produced a t value of 2.12 which was significant at the .05 level and the null hypothesis was rejected in this case.

Eating Breakfast.--

It is smart to eat breakfast! The advantages of so doing outweigh the few extra minutes of sleep that were missed. Experts say that teenagers need more of the right kinds of foods than their parents do, yet many of the young people try to get these foods all in one or two meals or snacks and fail to eat breakfast.

Shelbyville students are no exception to the "breakfast-skipping" habit. Only one half of each the overachievers and control group ate breakfast according to the questionnaire-survey. Quite contrary to the assumption of the writer, seventy-seven per cent of the underachievers were breakfast eaters.

In spite of there being a twenty-seven per cent difference between the underachievers and the control group, this was not a significant difference statistically and the null hypothesis was accepted in all instances with regard to the breakfast eating habit.

Presently Holding a Job.--

We are fortunate in that we must earn a living. To this end, all youth need training and work experience. Through work experience youth develop abilities, work habits, and attitudes and they learn about work standards, safety practices, management policies, union practices, relations with employers and employees, working under direction, and providing for economic security. This type of education should implement rather than hinder academic achievement.

This writer was interested in finding out if holding a job could be a factor involved in overachievement and underachievement. It was found in this study that seventeen per cent of the overachievers worked, and forty-six per cent of both the control group and the underachievers worked.

In comparing the groups statistically however, there was no significant difference. The null hypothesis would stand.

Ordinal Position.--

TABLE 3

Ordinal Positions of Siblings of Overachievers, Control Group, and Underachievers.

Group	No Siblings	Older Siblings	Younger Siblings	Both older and Younger Siblings
Overachievers	17%	17%	33 1/3%	33 1/3%
Control Group	12%	0%	38%	50%
Underachievers	8%	8%	62%	22%

Siblings usually spend more hours with each other than they do with their parents. Often they room together and so are with each other for sleeping, dressing, studying, and playing. They have every chance in the world to build up strong feelings toward one another.

It was the purpose of this part of this study to determine whether position in the family had any effect upon the academic achievement of this senior class. Although there were differences in the percentages as was shown by Table 3 above, these differences were not significant at either the .01 or .05 level. Thus, it can be said that there are no significant differences between overachievers and the control group or underachievers and the control group as far as ordinal position is concerned.

Both Parents Working.--

A mother who works outside the home has a double job, for she is a homemaker as well as a career woman. Rarely can a woman hire help good enough to replace her services at home. The strain that results is both physical and mental, and it could become a strain on the husband and children as well as on the mother.

The importance of this point as far as this study was concerned was to discover if there were any significant differences between the groups when both parents were working. Quite contrary to what was expected, fifty per cent of the overachievers had both parents working. The control group

had forty-six per cent and the underachievers had but twenty-three per cent. As both the underachievers and overachievers were compared to the control group, no significant differences were found.

Personality Characteristics.--

TABLE 4

Means of Personality Characteristics of Overachievers, Control Group, and Underachievers.

Characteristic	Overachievers	Control Group	Underachievers
Motivation	3	3	3
Industry	4	4	3**
Initiative	3	3	3
Influence and Leadership	3	3	3
Concern for others	4	4	4
Responsibility	4**	3	4**
Integrity	4	4	4
Emotional Stability	3	3	4**

** The starred groups when compared to the control group, showed a t value significant at the .01 level.

Each year at Shelbyville High School each senior is asked to list the names of five teachers that he would like to have fill in an opinionaire on him. A copy of this personality opinionaire appears in the Appendix. The data from these five

opinionaires are then placed on one sheet and this is filed in the student's cumulative folder. Quite often employers have called for information on students seeking employment. This is one of several tools used to disseminate information.

This writer asked the students to fill in this information on themselves with the thought in mind that some of the factors might be indication of causes of underachievement or overachievement.

On five of the eight factors no differences were found. These were motivation, initiative, influence or leadership, concern for others, and integrity. In the area of industry, the underachievers showed significance. The t value was 3.57 which was significant at the .01 level.

The tally for responsibility showed both the underachievers and the overachievers felt they were more responsible than the control group. This tested statistically proved that they were significant at the .01 level.

On emotional stability the underachievers showed significance at the .01 level and the null hypothesis was rejected. There was no difference between the overachievers and the control group.

This concludes the statistical analysis of the eight variables as they were tested against the null hypothesis that there were no significant differences to be found between the overachievers and the control group and the underachievers and the control group in these areas.

CHAPTER IV

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Summary.--

This study was designed to test the hypothesis that there were no significant differences between overachievers and a control group and underachievers and a control group with regard to the following variables: 1) ownership or free accessibility to a car, 2) study habits, 3) going steady, 4) eating breakfast, 5) presently holding a job, 6) ordinal position, 7) both parents working, and 8) personality characteristics.

The data used to test this hypothesis were assembled in the spring of 1965 on the Senior Class at the Shelbyville High School located in an agricultural-manufacturing town of five thousand people in central Illinois. To secure a control group a random sample was taken from the class. Overachievers and underachievers were then determined by statistical methods.

Once it was established who the overachievers, underachievers, and control group were, data were collected from them by means of a questionnaire, a study habits inventory, a personality opinionaire, and the cumulative folder.

In an effort to solve the problem objectively, statistical procedures were used on the data. The difference of the means or the difference of two percentages were used to

test the significance at the .01 and .05 levels of the relationships in all instances. Therefore, the writer was able to assume relationships with confidence rather than chance.

Conclusions.--

From the results of this study the following conclusions were made:

1. The number of overachievers and underachievers is almost equal with each group composing approximately ten per cent of the population from which these groups were taken.

2. Of the eight variables statistically tested it was found that:

a. There were no significant differences between overachievers and the control group in any areas except one which was "general habits and techniques of study." Because in this area the overachiever's score was lower than the control group's score, it indicated that the overachievement was not due to superior study habits, but due to some other factors. It might be assumed that motivation was a causal factor for overachievement rather than study skills.

b. There were three areas of variance between the underachievers and the control group. With significance at the .05 level as compared to the control group, steady dating of the underachievers might be a contributing factor to underachievement. Kurt Haas in his research quoted on page fifty-six of this study confirmed this observation.

The final observations were that the underachievers felt they were more responsible and emotionally stable than the control group. Both of these findings were in contradiction to research quoted from Durr and Schmatz, or McKenzie.

Recommendations.--

The causes of underachievement are multiple but difficult to identify significantly. It is evident that research in this area is by no means exhausted. Recommended areas for further research would be:

1. Conditions in the home, school, or community which would be conducive to underachievement.

2. Specific academic fields where underachievement is sensed by both the student and the teacher.

3. The influences of parents on achievement.

4. Socioeconomic backgrounds and achievement.

In a counseling situation, the counselor must be prepared to plan and provide counseling services for the underachiever. He should be capable of helping the teacher confirm the identification of the underachiever, and be aware of the services underachievers need.

APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

As a part of a study of the Senior Class at Shelbyville High School, it is necessary to have some information from the students. You have been selected as one of these students to participate in this study. Would you please give your support and cooperation by filling in the following blanks. By so doing, you will be helping fellow students and your school. Thank you very much.

1. Name_____Address_____

2. Mother's name_____Occupation_____

   Mother's address_____

   Highest grade in school completed by mother_____

3. Father's name_____Occupation_____

   Father's address_____

   Highest grade in school completed by father_____

4. Number of brothers in your family older?_____younger?_____

5. Number of sisters in your family older?_____younger?_____

6. Do you plan to continue some form of schooling following graduation?_____yes _____no

   If so, where?_____

   What are your vocational plans?_____

7. What are your extra curricular activities outside of school?

   _____no. of hours involved per week?_____

   _____no. of hours involved per week?_____

   _____no. of hours involved per week?_____

8. Are you presently working?_____yes _____no

   If so, where?_____

   No. of hours involved per week?_____

9. Has your entire schooling been in Shelbyville?_____yes _____no

If no, where else have you gone to school?

_____

10. Do you own a car?_____yes _____no

If you drive the family car, how often do you get it?

_____

11. Are you going steady?_____yes _____no

Approximately how many hours do you spend a week dating?

_____

12. Do you eat breakfast regularly?_____yes _____no

13. List your best girl friend _____

List your best boy friend _____

List your best girl friend in the Senior Class

_____

List your best boy friend in the Senior Class

_____

A STUDY-HABITS INVENTORY

Mark T or F before each question to indicate whether the statement is true or false as far as you are concerned.

____1. I have a definite, although reasonably flexible, study schedule, with times and places for studying specific lessons.

____2. I stick to my study schedule except for very good reasons.

____3. I often get to class or sit down to study only to find that I do not have necessary books, notebooks, pencils, paper, or other material.

____4. I have trouble settling down to work at the beginning of a period of study; I do not begin studying as soon as I sit down at my desk.

____5. I use the facts learned in one course to help me understand the materials in other courses.

____6. I use the facts learned in school to help me understand events and work outside school.

____7. My study periods are often too short for me to get "warmed up" so that I can concentrate on the task of study.

____8. Sometimes I sit down to study only to discover that I do not know exactly what the assignment has been.

____9. I have to wait for the "mood to strike me" before attempting to study.

___10. I try to do some "overlearning"--working beyond the point of immediate recall.

___11. I work out personal examples to illustrate general principles or rules that I have learned.

___12. I review previous work before beginning work on an advanced assignment.

___13. I often study while watching television or while persons are talking in the same room.

___14. I review frequently.

___15. When studying, I frequently get up, walk about, glance at a newspaper, write a friendly note, or look at my neighbors.

____16. I have a tendency to indulge in daydreams when I am trying to study.

____17. As a rule, I finish one study task before beginning another.

____18. My study time is frequently interrupted by telephone calls, noises, visitors, and other distractions.

____19. I spend much time that I should spend on my schoolwork on dates, dances, movies, loafing, or reading cheap fiction.

____20. I spend too much time on some subjects and not enough on others.

____21. I keep a special indexed notebook or card system for recording new words and their meanings.

____22. I practice using new words in situations where they apply.

____23. Frequently I do not get enough sleep and feel sluggish in school the next day.

____24. I worry about my schoolwork.

____25. As a rule, I find my schoolwork interesting.

____26. For the present I prefer to remain in school rather than drop out and get a job.

____27. I study most subjects with the idea of remembering the material only until the course is over.

____28. Dislike for certain teachers and courses interferes with my school success.

____29. When I have difficulty with my work, I do not hesitate to talk over the matter with my teacher.

____30. I feel that the teachers are unsympathetic and do not understand me.

____31. I feel that the teachers are friends of mine.

____32. I am often afraid to recite in class even when I think that I know the correct answer.

____33. I read by indirect (diffused) light rather than by direct light.

____34. I pronounce the words to myself as I read, sometimes moving my lips or muttering to myself.

____35. In preparing my assignments, I try to memorize the exact words of a text.

____36. I skim over and make a preliminary survey of a chapter--for example, by reading the paragraph headings--before reading the chapter in detail.

____37. I pause at logical breaks in my reading, such as the close of a section or chapter, and recite to myself the principal points in that section.

____38. I mark important or difficult passages in books that I own, so that I can give special attention to these points when I review.

____39. I tend to skip the tables and graphs that I find in my reading assignments.

____40. I read rapidly enough so that I have no trouble in covering my assignments.

____41. Sometimes I discover that I have read several pages without knowing what was on them; that is, I don't know what I have been reading about when I get through.

____42. I have to reread material several times before I get the meaning of it.

____43. I have trouble in picking out the important points in material read.

____44. I look up in a dictionary words that I do not know or words whose meanings I cannot be sure of from the context.

____45. Except for important quotations, I take notes in my own words rather than use the exact words of the author.

____46. I take notes on odd, loose strips of paper instead of in a notebook.

____47. Sometimes I make simple charts or diagrams to represent points in my reading.

____48. I keep notes for each subject together in my notebook.

____49. I tend to take down in my notes material that turns out to be unimportant.

____50. I take notes on my reading after I have completed the reading rather than making notes on each point as I go along.

____51. I often do not have reports ready on time, or they are poorly done if I am forced to have them in on time.

____52. I have difficulty in making complete sentences when I write.

____53. I make an outline or plan of a report before beginning the report itself.

____54. I usually write reports several days before they are due, so that I can check and correct them--and rewrite them if necessary before handing them in.

____55. I do most of my reviewing for a course the night before the examination.

____56. In preparing for an examination, I try to memorize the exact words of the text.

____57. When preparing for an examination, I get excited and tense and find it difficult to study.

____58. During an examination I get nervous and cannot do myself justice.

____59. I read all the questions on an essay examination before beginning to answer any of the questions.

____60. I plan out in my thinking, or on scratch paper, the answer to an essay question before beginning to write the answer.

SHELBYVILLE HIGH SCHOOL: Shelbyville, Illinois PERSONALITY RECORD

Personal Characteristics of: _____
(Last name, First, Middle)

The following characterizations are descriptions of behavior; they are not ratings. Please place a check (x) for each to indicate your opinion of the above-named student.

MOTIVATION	Purposeless	Vacillating	Usually purposeful	Effectively Motivated	Highly Motivated
INDUSTRY	Seldom Works Under Pressure	Needs Constant Pressure	Needs Occasional Prodding	Prepares Assigned Work Regularly	Seeks Additional Work
INITIATIVE	Seldom Initiates	Conforms	Does Routine Assignments	Consistently Self-reliant	Actively Creative
INFLUENCE & LEADERSHIP	Negative	Cooperative but Retiring	Sometimes in Minor Affairs	Contributing in Important Affairs	Judgment Respected—Makes Things Go
CONCERN FOR OTHERS	Indifferent	Self-Centered	Somewhat Socially Concerned	Generally Concerned	Deeply and Actively Concerned
RESPONSIBILITY	Unreliable	Somewhat Dependable	Usually Dependable	Conscientious	Assumes Much Responsibility
INTEGRITY	Not Dependable	Questionable at Times	Generally Honest	Reliable, Dependable	Consistently Trustworthy
EMOTIONAL STABILITY	Apathetic	Excitable	Usually Well-Balanced	Well-Balanced	Exceptionally Stable

Date: _____ TEACHER _____

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