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**SCOTT, Charles Vermillion, 1940-
THE EFFECTS OF FAMILY STRUCTURE ON THE ACADEMIC
STATUS OF FIFTH GRADE STUDENTS.**

**The University of Oklahoma, Ed.D., 1974
Education, general**

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THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

THE EFFECTS OF FAMILY STRUCTURE ON THE ACADEMIC
STATUS OF FIFTH GRADE STUDENTS

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

BY

CHARLES VERMILLION SCOTT

Norman, Oklahoma

1974

THE EFFECTS OF FAMILY STRUCTURE ON THE ACADEMIC
STATUS OF FIFTH GRADE STUDENTS

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to express sincere appreciation to Dr. Gene D. Shepherd for his role as major professor. His interest, guidance, and encouragement throughout the writer's graduate program is acknowledged with deep gratitude.

Appreciation is expressed to Dr. Jack F. Parker, Dr. Michael Langenbach, and Dr. John E. Steinbrink for their continual assistance and interest as members of the writer's advisory committee.

To Dr. William H. Graves and others, for their statistical advice, the writer is grateful and beholden.

Appreciation is also extended to the administration and faculty of the Moore Public Schools for their cooperation in this study.

Finally, the writer expresses love and appreciation to his wife, Jacque, and to Jo Lynn and Lance, for their sacrifices, encouragement, and understanding during the past few years.

Dedicated to:

Margaret E. Vermillion and Josephine F. Vermillion

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THE EFFECTS OF FAMILY STRUCTURE ON THE ACADEMIC STATUS OF FIFTH GRADE STUDENTS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

As our national economy has shifted from a rural-agricultural base to a more urban-industrial society, so has the family organization moved from an extended structure to a more nuclear form. Members of the extended family often no longer live in the same area or influence each other's lives to a great extent. This rather rapid shift and the problems that arise from a more complex society have probably helped create a large number of homes broken by divorce.¹

The latest statistics on divorce indicated that there is now one divorce for every three marriages. In comparison, there was one divorce for every seven marriages in 1920.² At the same time, there has been an increase in

¹Ruth Shonle Cavan, The American Family (4th ed.; New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1969), 1-67.

²"Is the American Family in Danger?" U.S. News and World Report, LXXIV (April 16, 1972), 72.

the per cent of divorced women who remarry.³ The lives and perhaps the academic status of many children may have been altered by a change in their family structure.

In the past few years there have been several articles in various journals which discussed the possible effects of broken homes on the academic achievement of children. Also, a number of teachers and administrators with whom the writer has worked have stated that family structure had a profound effect on a child's academic achievement. A review of the related literature by the writer, however, revealed a lack of research on the effects of family structure on academic status.

The few studies that have been done have concentrated on the effects of a father's absence in minority groups or in comparing "intact" homes with "broken" homes. These few studies reached varying conclusions about the effects of family structure on academic status. Moreover, there is almost a total lack of research dealing directly with the effects of a reconstructed family on a child's academic status and his self-concept as a learner.

Background of Problem

There is evidence that a child's school achievement is strongly influenced by his family background. For example, the Coleman study pointed out that variations in

³Ibid., 76.

family background account for far greater variation in school achievement than do variations in school characteristics.⁴ Also, in discussing family background, Harris made the following statement:

The best assurance a boy may have of being properly equipped and motivated to get the most from our educational system is the possession of parents and grandparents of a socio-economic group which places a high value on education.⁵

Often, children are born to parents who do place a high value on education, but these children are forced to make adjustments because of a divorce, a remarriage, or both. Therefore, it seems possible that these various adjustments might have some effects on a child's academic status and his self-concept as a learner.

Generally, the literature supported the assumption that a child's life is likely to have more fullness in the presence of two parents. For example, Sprey stated that a survey of research findings on the single-parenthood phenomenon left little doubt that the simple fact of the absence of one parent affected family functioning in a wide variety of ways.⁶ Herzog and Sudia pointed out that other

⁴James Coleman et al., Equality of Educational Opportunity (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966).

⁵Irving D. Harris, Emotional Blocks to Learning (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1961), 13.

⁶Jetse Sprey, "The Study of Single Parenthood: Some Methodological Considerations," The One-Parent Family: Perspectives and Annotated Bibliography, ed. by Benjamin Schlesinger (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1969), 14.

things being equal, it was their belief that a two-parent home was more likely to be better for a child than a one-parent home.⁷

Freudenthal explained that a child raised in the one-parent family cannot help but notice that a child normally lives with two parents. Freudenthal pointed out that this realization often resulted in a sense of frustration and the child was ready to conceive of his own status as one of deprivation.⁸

The importance of having a father present in the family unit has been well supported. Nash made the statement that the major factor in a boy's psychosexual development as a male person was his identification with his father or a father-substitute.⁹ English stated that a child, whether boy or girl, can easily develop resentment at the imposed learning process when he was surrounded only by women.¹⁰ Kriesbery explained that even aside from the absence of a male-model the lack of a father's support and aid in

⁷Elizabeth Herzog and Cecelia Sudia, "Fatherless Homes: A review of Research," Children, XV (September-October, 1968), 177.

⁸Kurt Freudenthal, "Problems of the One-Parent Family," Social Work, IV (January, 1959), 45.

⁹John Nash, "The Father in Contemporary Culture and Current Psychological Literature," Child Development, XXXVI (March, 1965), 293.

¹⁰Spurgeon English, "The Psychological Role of the Father in the Family," Social Casework, XXXV (October, 1954), 327.

child-rearing may reduce the effectiveness of the mother's efforts.¹¹ Also, Moynihan pointed out that the Coleman data showed a tendency for achievement to decline in homes where the father was not present.¹² Furthermore, Goode made the following statement concerning the importance of the father:

At every developmental phase of childhood, the child needs the father (who is usually the absent parent) as an object of love, security, or identification, or even as a figure against whom to rebel safely. This is the case for both boys and girls. It would be surprising if the absence of the father had no effect on the child. When the absence of the parent is caused by divorce and not death, the psychodynamic structure is further complicated by hostilities, and guilts for hostility, by feelings of abandonment, and by guilts from divided loyalties.¹³

Several other articles and studies discussed the effects of divorce or loss of a parent on children. Landis expressed the belief that the new status of being the child of divorced parents may necessitate new adjustments with his peer groups.¹⁴ Pecot stated that a child may become overly dependent upon or concerned about the remaining parent after a divorce. Pecot suggested that the child enrolled in school

¹¹Louis Kriesberg, "Rearing Children for Education Achievement in Fatherless Families," Journal of Marriage and the Family, XXIX (May, 1967), 289.

¹²Daniel P. Moynihan, "Sources of Resistance to the Coleman Report," Harvard Educational Review, XXXVIII (Winter, 1968), 33.

¹³William J. Goode, After Divorce (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1956), 309.

¹⁴Judson T. Landis, "The Trauma of Children When Parents Divorce," Marriage and Family Living, XXII (February, 1960), 7.

may find it almost impossible to devote full energies to the learning process because of a preoccupation with the loss of one or both parents.¹⁵ Freudenthal explained that children of divorce often express a sense of failure for their inability to prevent the family breakup.¹⁶ Also, Ackerman has written that often children felt responsible for the divorce and suffered guilt feelings about the situation.¹⁷

Koch investigated the influence of the broken home on the anxiety test scores of pre-school children. Koch concluded that children from broken homes were more likely to have adjustment difficulties than children from a home with both parents present.¹⁸

There is evidence that children from broken homes are more likely to be juvenile delinquents. The Gluecks found that a greater proportion of juvenile delinquents than of non-delinquents stem from broken homes. This appeared to be true even within the same economic stratum.¹⁹

¹⁵Michael G. Pecot, "When the Parents Are Divorced," Childhood Education, XLVI (March, 1970), 294.

¹⁶Freudenthal, "Problems of the One-Parent Family," 46.

¹⁷Nathan W. Ackerman, "Divorce and Alienation in Modern Society," Mental Hygiene, LIII (January, 1969), 120.

¹⁸Margaret B. Koch, "Anxiety in Pre-School Children From Broken Homes," Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, VII (October, 1961), 225-232.

¹⁹Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck, Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1950), 91.

Stepchildren often have rather special problems. They have faced, for a period of time, many of the same problems that children from one-parent families face. Moreover, the stepchild finds it necessary to adjust to new conditions. There may be additional feelings of insecurity and jealousy. At times, the stepchild may feel rejected by the stepparent and the real parent.²⁰ On the other hand, the child may benefit greatly from having a stepparent. Often, the economic situation of the family improves. In addition, the child may enjoy the companionship of the stepparent and feel that he is in a more natural situation than when he was living with just one adult.

The related research studies reviewed by the writer indicated that prior studies reached varying conclusions as to the effects of family structure on academic achievement. Wohl studied the effects of a mother-only home on the school achievement and adjustment of elementary grade children. Using two matched groups of thirty students, Wohl concluded that achievement test scores of children from the intermediate grades are not related to the number of parents in the homes. On the other hand, Wohl reported that the adjustment of children from two-parent homes was rated as superior to one-parent homes by their teachers.²¹

²⁰Edward Podolsky, *The Emotional Problems of the Stepchild*, "Mental Hygiene, XXXIX (January, 1955), 52.

²¹Jonathan Wohl, "A Study of the School Achievement and Adjustment of Children from One-Parent Homes,"

Crescimbeni studied the effects of parental death, divorce, separation, and desertion of one or both parents on the academic achievement of students in grades two through six over a period of two years. Crescimbeni reported a significance of difference in academic achievement among children from a one-parent home as compared to children from a two-parent home. Some sixty-one pupils from the one-parent homes scored lower on the Metropolitan Achievement Test than a matched group from two-parent homes. Also, Crescimbeni found no significant difference in the amount of achievement between boys and girls from disrupted homes.²²

Shelton made an investigation to determine differences, if any, in educational achievement between students from broken homes and students from intact families. The study involved one hundred and sixty-two students at the junior high level. Shelton found a significant difference in mean scores of academic grade-point averages between the one-parent and the two-parent groups that favored the two-parent group. Shelton concluded that students who experienced a broken home condition during early primary grades tended to be most adversely affected in their educational

(unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California, 1962).

²²Joseph Crescimbeni, "The Effects of Family Disorganization on Academic Achievement of Pupils in the Elementary School" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Connecticut, 1964).

achievement.²³

Based on the assumptions made by various writers and the results of studies concerning family structure and academic achievement, one might make a proposition in regard to the effects of family structure on academic status. This proposition contends that if a child experiences disruptions and adjustments because of a divorced home or a reconstructed home, then it is highly probable that his academic status might suffer. To illustrate this proposition, the following model was constructed by the writer:

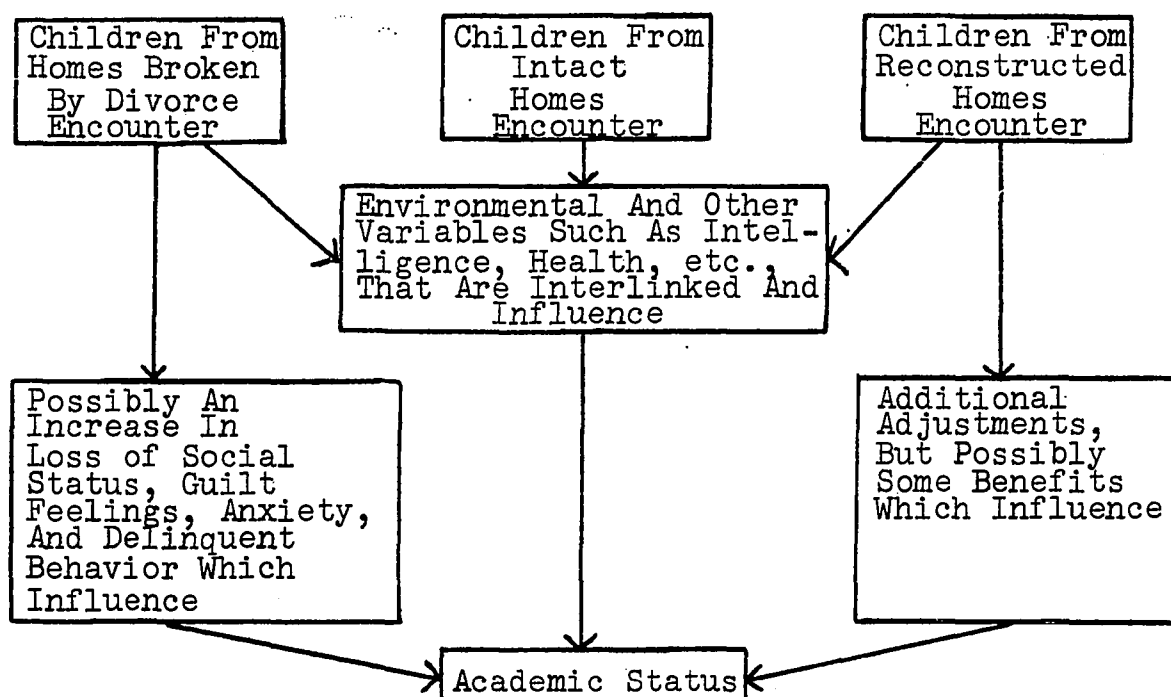


Figure 1.--Model showing how family structure might affect academic status.

²³Austin L. Shelton, "A Comparative Study of Educational Achievement In One-Parent Families and In Two-Parent Families" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of South Dakota, 1968).

Value of Study

As pointed out, previous studies have reached varying conclusions as to the importance of family structure on a child's academic status. For this reason, the writer felt that this problem needed to be investigated further. If the assumptions proposed in the preceding model are true and the differences among groups are significant, then there is a need for schools to turn their attention to this problem.

Statement of the Problem

The problem to be studied in this research effort was as follows: What are the effects of certain types of family structure on the academic status of fifth grade school children? In particular, the researcher wanted to know the effects of divorce and/or divorce and remarriage on the academic status of fifth grade students from the homes involved. Also, there were two subordinate problems as follows: (1) What are the relationships between self-concept (as a learner) scores and academic status scores of the students from the homes involved? and (2) What are the relationships between school attendance and academic status scores of the students from the homes involved?

Hypotheses to be Tested

Two major hypotheses were formulated to test the differences among the three different family groups on academic status scores. In addition, six subhypotheses were

formulated to test differences between specific groups if the results of the major hypotheses were significant. Four hypotheses were included to test the relationships between self-concept (as a learner) scores and academic status scores. Likewise, four hypotheses were included to test the relationships between school attendance records and academic status scores.

In order to test the hypotheses, they were stated in the null form as follows:

Ho₁ There are no statistically significant differences among the means of the three family groups on academic status scores.

If the result of the first hypothesis is significant, then three subhypotheses to be tested are as follows:

Ho_{1.1} There is no statistically significant difference between the mean of the academic status scores of students from Group One (divorced homes) and the mean of the academic status scores of students from Group Two (reconstructed homes).

Ho_{1.2} There is no statistically significant difference between the mean of the academic status scores of students from Group One (divorced homes) and the mean of the academic status scores of students from Group Three (intact homes).

Ho_{1.3} There is no statistically significant difference between the mean of the academic status scores of students from Group Two (reconstructed homes) and the mean of the academic status scores of students from Group Three (intact homes).

Ho₂ There are no statistically significant differences among the means of the three family groups on academic status scores when school attendance records and self-concept (as a learner) scores are taken into consideration as covariates.

If the result of the second hypothesis is significant, then the three subhypotheses to be tested are as follows:

Ho_{2.1} There is no statistically significant difference between the mean of the academic status scores of students from Group One (divorced homes) and the mean of the academic status scores of students from Group Two (reconstructed homes) when attendance and self-concept are taken into consideration.

Ho_{2.2} There is no statistically significant difference between the mean of the academic status scores of students from Group One (divorced homes) and the mean of the academic status scores of students from Group Three (intact homes) when attendance and self-concept are taken into consideration.

Ho_{2.3} There is no statistically significant difference between the mean of the academic status scores of students from Group Two (reconstructed homes) and the mean of the academic status scores of students from Groups Three (intact homes) when attendance and self-concept are taken into consideration.

Ho₃ There is no overall statistically significant relationship between self-concept (as a learner) scores and academic status scores of the students from the three family groups.

Ho₄ There is no statistically significant difference between the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for students from Group One (divorced homes) and the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for students from Group Two (reconstructed homes).

Ho₅ There is no statistically significant difference between the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for students from Group One (divorced homes) and the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for students from Group Three (intact homes).

Ho₆ There is no statistically significant difference between the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for students from Group Two (reconstructed homes) and the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for students from Group Three (intact homes).

Ho₇ There is no overall statistically significant relationship between school attendance and academic status scores of the students from the three family groups.

Ho₈ There is no statistically significant difference between the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for students from Group One (divorced homes) and the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for students from Group Two (reconstructed homes).

Ho₉ There is no statistically significant difference between the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for students from Group One (divorced homes) and the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for students from Group Three (intact homes).

Ho₁₀ There is no statistically significant difference between the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for students from Group Two (reconstructed homes) and the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for students from Group Three (intact homes).

All hypotheses were tested for significance at the .05 level.

Definition of Terms

Intact homes are homes which contain both natural parents and have never been broken legally.

Divorced homes are homes that have been broken by divorce and have been broken for a period of at least one year. The student from this type of home lives with only

one natural parent.

Reconstructed homes are homes containing one natural parent and one stepparent that have been functioning as a family unit for at least one year.

Academic status score refers to the achievement level of the student as determined by combining the Stanford Achievement Test composite score and the student's grade-point average on academic subjects for the past year.

The student's self-concept as a learner refers to the score that he received on a scale to infer learner's self-concept, The Florida Key.

Details concerning the reliability and validity of the Stanford Achievement Test and The Florida Key are presented in Chapter III.

Attendance refers to the number of days a student has attended school for the 1972-73 school year.

Assumptions

1. That the composite achievement test score and the student's grade point average combined into one score provided a valid assessment of a student's academic status in school.
2. That control of the variables which are significant for school success was attained by random selection of students from each group.
3. That a period of one year was significant time for a student to recover from the adjustment of a divorce or

a remarriage in his family unit.

Limitations

1. The population was limited to one school system and one grade level.
2. Students from special education were not included in the population.
3. No effort was made to include students from broken homes resulting from conditions other than divorce.

Design of the Study

The Population

The total population for this study consisted of some 947 fifth grade students from all eight elementary schools in the Moore School System, Moore, Oklahoma. Each student was classified by membership in one of the three family types or excluded for not fitting into one of the three family structures. A random sample of fifty students was selected from each of the three subpopulations. Details of the selection of subjects are presented in Chapter III.

Selection of Dependent Variables

Achievement test composite scores and grade-point averages were used to measure academic status. Two variables, attendance and self-concept as a learner, were used as covariates in the study. The assumption was made that randomness would control other variables that might influence the results.

Instruments

The instruments used were the Stanford Achievement Test; Intermediate II, Form W, The Florida Key, and Warner's Index of Status Characteristics. The Stanford Achievement Test was used as a measure of school achievement and was administered as part of the system's regular testing program. The Florida Key was used to measure the students' self-concepts as learners. This scale was completed by the home-room teacher of each student. Warner's Index of Status Characteristics was used by the writer to measure each student's social status. Details concerning the reliability and validity of the instruments are presented in Chapter III.

Statistics

Statistical analysis of the data collected on the students was accomplished through the use of analysis of variance (ANOVA) and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). This analysis allowed the consideration of the dependent variable (academic status) of the three groups while controlling the effects of the independent variables (attendance and self-concept as a learner). The last eight hypotheses were tested by using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and the z-test for two independent correlations. An analysis of variance was used to test the significance of the differences among the means of the three family groups on social status indices. In addition, the Scheffé method of multiple comparisons was to be used to test any

significant result of the ANOVA or ANCOVA.

Procedure of the Study

The steps taken to complete this study were as follows:

1. A review of the research and literature relevant to the study.
2. The selection of the subjects.
3. The collection of the data needed for the study.
4. To analyze statistically the differences among the three groups on academic status.
5. To determine the relationships between self-concept (as a learner) scores and academic status.
6. To determine the relationships between school attendance and academic status.

Overview of Subsequent Chapters

Chapter II will present a review of related research and literature. Topics to be included are as follows:

1. Past and recent studies concerning family structure.
2. Effects of home environment on school achievement.
3. Effects of one-parent homes and divorce on children.
4. Effects of reconstructed homes on children.
5. The relationship between self-concept and academic status.

6. The relationship between school attendance and academic status.

The methodology and analysis of data will be presented in Chapter III. Chapter IV will include the summary, conclusions, and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents a review of research and theory related to family structure, school achievement, school attendance, self-concept as a learner, and the interrelationships among these variables. The literature relevant to this study was grouped under the following headings: past and recent studies concerning family structures; effects of home environment on school achievement; effects of divorce and one-parent homes on children; effects of reconstructed homes on children; the relationship between self-concept and academic status; and the relationship between school attendance and academic status.

Studies Concerning Family Structures

The structure of the American family has changed a great deal in the past ninety or so years. Urbanization and industrialization have helped change the family organization from that of an extended structure to a more nuclear form. Also, increased anonymity and mobility have helped weaken social controls. As a result, the divorce rate has steadily

climbed during this period along with the percentage of people who remarry.

Many other factors are involved in the rise of the divorce rate since the 1870's. The position of women has changed greatly during this period. Employment opportunities for women have made it easier for them to decide to seek a divorce. To a large extent, churches and people in general have a more liberal attitude toward divorce and divorced persons. Moreover, divorces are becoming easier to obtain than ever before. For example, almost a third of the states now include some form of no-fault divorce in their civil codes.¹ In addition, wars have had a very pronounced effect on the divorce rate. The divorce rate has risen sharply after every major conflict since the Civil War.² Obviously, one could list many other factors which might have caused the divorce rate to increase during the past ninety or so years.

Actually, the divorce rate (the number of divorces per 1,000 existing marriages) began to rise around 1875.³ Since that time it has climbed fairly steadily. Significant deviations have occurred on a short-term basis. The divorce rate declined sharply during the Great Depression years to

¹"No Fault Divorces--They're Catching On," U.S. News and World Report, LXXIV (June 4, 1973), 41.

²Paul H. Jacobson, American Marriage and Divorce (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1959), 91.

³Robert O. Blood, Jr., Marriage (2d ed.; New York: The Free Press, 1969), 379.

about 6.1 divorces per 1,000 existing marriages. On the other hand, the divorce rate was 18.2 the first year after World War II.⁴ By 1958, the rate had dropped to 8.9, but had climbed back up to 10.6 in 1965.⁵ Since 1965, there has been a fairly sharp increase in the number of divorces.

Another way to view the increase of divorces is to compare the number of divorces against marriages for a given year. For example, in 1920 there was one divorce for every seven marriages, while in 1972 there was one divorce for every three marriages.⁶

Still another way to show the increase in divorces is to compare the rate of divorces against the rate of marriages per 1,000 population. In 1910, the divorce rate was 0.9, while the marriage rate was 10.3. In contrast, the divorce rate in 1971 was 3.7, while the marriage rate was only 10.6.⁷

The United States has a fairly large number of persons who are divorced or who have been divorced. For example, in 1970 there were 1,926,597 males, fourteen years

⁴Jacobson, American Marriage and Divorce, 93.

⁵Hugh Carter and Paul C. Glick, Marriage and Divorce: A Social and Economic Study (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1970), 56.

⁶"Is the American Family in Danger?" U.S. News and World Report, LXXIV (April 16, 1973), 72.

⁷U.S., Bureau of the Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1972 (93d ed.; Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972), 50.

old and older, who were divorced and 7,135,500 who were known to have been divorced. The percentage of the total male population, fourteen and older, divorced was 2.7 per cent, while 10.0 per cent were known to have been divorced.⁸ Moreover, there were 3,004,278 divorced females and 8,654,000 who were known to have been divorced. The percentage of the total female population, fourteen and older, divorced was 3.9 per cent, while 11.1 per cent were known to have been divorced.⁹

Oklahoma has one of the highest divorce rates in the nation. In 1969, the divorce rate (per 1,000 population) was 6.1, while the divorce rate for the entire nation was only 3.2. Only one state, Nevada, had a higher rate.¹⁰ Likewise, Oklahoma had a fairly high marriage rate of 15.2 in 1970, as compared to a national rate of 10.7.¹¹

A large number of children are affected by the divorce of their parents. Reinhart has stated that sixty per cent of all divorces affect very young children because divorce often occurs in the first six or seven years of marriages.¹² Garai has pointed out that there are presently

⁸U.S., Bureau of the Census, Census of Population: 1970. Marital Status Final Report PC (2) -4C (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972), 1-2.

⁹Ibid., 3-4.

¹⁰U.S., Bureau of the Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1970, 64.

¹¹Ibid., 64.

¹²John B. Reinhart, "Divorce: Its Effects on Children," P.T.A. Magazine, LXVII (October, 1972), 12.

some one-and-a-half million families broken by divorce and that these families have a total of some four million children.¹³ In 1966 alone, there were more than 650,000 children under eighteen years of age involved in divorces.¹⁴ The average number of children involved per divorce decree was 1.31 in 1969.¹⁵

Many of the above children are of elementary school age. For example, in 1970 there were 1,384,492 children between the ages of six and thirteen living with a divorced parent. Some 1,264,555 of these children lived with their divorced mother, while the remaining 119,937 children lived with their divorced father.¹⁶

A great number of children from divorced homes are presently living with a parent who has remarried in the past few years. LeMasters pointed out that there were about seven million stepchildren in the United States as of the 1960's.¹⁷ Also, Blood stated that in the United States

¹³Josel E. Garai, "Children of Divorce: Healing Their Special Hurt," Parents' and Better Family Living, XLVII (March, 1973), 47.

¹⁴Carter and Glick, Marriage and Divorce: A Social and Economic Study, 254.

¹⁵U.S., Bureau of the Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1970, 63.

¹⁶U.S., Bureau of the Census, Census of Population: 1970. Subject Reports. Final Report PC (2) - 4B. Persons by Family Characteristics (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973), 1.

¹⁷E. E. LeMasters, Parents in Modern America: A Sociological Analysis (Homewood, Illinois: The Dorsey Press, 1970), 172.

three-fourths of all divorced men eventually remarry and two-thirds of all divorced women remarry. He explained that divorced women and men with children need to remarry in order to solve their financial and child-rearing problems.¹⁸

Thomson pointed out that in 1900 about eighty per cent of the stepfamilies in the United States existed because of death. Thomson explained that the situation had completely reversed by 1966, however. At that time, more than eighty per cent of the stepfamilies were the result of divorce and the figure was expected to continue to rise in the future.¹⁹

Census data revealed that Oklahoma had a fair number of homes created by remarriage. In 1970, 16.1 per cent of the adult males were remarried and living with their spouse. Similarly, 13.0 per cent of the adult females were remarried and living with their spouse.²⁰ Information was not available, however, concerning the number of children living in those homes.

Thus, it is evident that divorce and remarriage have become more frequent and affect a larger percentage of our population than in past years. Also, it is obvious that

¹⁸Blood, Marriage, 390.

¹⁹Helen Thomson, The Successful Stepparent (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1966), 1.

²⁰U.S., Bureau of the Census, Census of Population: 1970. General Social and Economic Characteristics. Final Report PC (1) - C38 Oklahoma (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972), 472-473.

quite a number of children are affected by those divorces and remarriages.

Effects of Home Environment
on School Achievement

Environmental factors play a very important role in the mental development of an individual and the personality that he will develop. Blair, Jones, and Simpson pointed out the importance of environment on child development with the following statement:

The individual makes changes in the environment and the environment in turn produces profound changes in the individual and in his behavior. In some ways, however, it might be said that the environment possesses the 'last word.' No organism, regardless of its potentialities and basic qualities, can survive in the absence of a favorable environment. Two children of equal constitutional capacities or characteristics may develop in entirely different ways depending upon the nature of the environment in which they are reared.²¹

In discussing child development and behavior, Ackerman made the following statement:

The child's development and behavior may be influenced in varying degrees by the internal makeup of the mother's personality, by her adaptation to the mothering role in the given family, by the marital and parental relationship, and by the psychosocial structure of the family as a whole. Of particular significance is the interdependence and reciprocity of family roles and the effects of this emotional complementation on the child's adaptive response.²²

²¹Glenn M. Blair, R. Stewart Jones, and Ray H. Simpson, Educational Psychology (3d ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1968), 38.

²²Nathan W. Ackerman, "Preventive Implications of Family Research," Prevention of Mental Disorders In Children, ed. by Gerald Caplan (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1961), 153.

An individual's home environment determines to a great extent his achievement in school. Cary expressed the belief that the attainment of an education is related to the motivation of the individual, which is influenced strongly by the home.²³ In discussing achievement motives of children, Garrison and Magoon made the following statement:

The educational problems of the culturally deprived or disadvantaged stem from their experiences in homes which do not transmit the cultural patterns necessary for adjustment to the middle-class school and society. Many deprived students come from homes in which the educational levels of the adults is minimal at best. Many come from homes characterized by poverty, large family size, broken homes, and slum living.²⁴

Several studies have presented evidence that a child's school achievement is strongly influenced by his family background and environment. For example, Coleman and his associates found that variations in family background accounted for far greater variation in school achievement than did variations in school characteristics.²⁵

Christopher investigated the relationships of the perceived strength of the parent-child relationship and the perceived parental valuing of achievement to academic

²³Gene L. Cary, "Class Socialization Patterns and Their Relationship to Learning," School and Society, XIVC (October 29, 1966), 349.

²⁴Karl C. Garrison and Robert A. Magoon, Educational Psychology: An Integration of Psychology and Educational Practices (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1972), 134-135.

²⁵James Coleman et al., Equality of Educational Opportunity, 298-301.

achievement. The subjects studied were 384 tenth and eleventh grade males and females. Christopher concluded that female achievement was significantly related to both the perceived strength of the parent-child relationship and the perceived parental valuing of achievement. Male achievement was found not to be significantly related to the perceived strength of the parent-child relationship, but there was clear evidence of relationship between male achievement and the perceived parental valuing of achievement.²⁶

Radin studied the relationship of maternal warmth to achievement motivation of lower-class preschool children. Radin observed black and white lower-class mothers interacting with their four-year-old children at home and found that maternal warmth correlated significantly and positively with IQ gain and teacher ratings of the children's academic motivation.²⁷

Michelson investigated the role of the home physical environment in the school achievement of third grade children as part of a longitudinal study of 710 children. Michelson gathered information on family characteristics and physical accommodations by home interviews. The children's

²⁶Samuel A. Christopher, "Parental Relationship and Value Orientation as Factors in Academic Achievement," Personnel and Guidance Journal, XVI (May, 1967), 921-925.

²⁷Norma Radin, "Maternal Warmth, Achievement Motivation, and Cognitive Functioning in Lower-Class Preschool Children," Child Development, XLII (November, 1971), 1560-1565.

achievement data was obtained by achievement tests and teacher ratings. Michelson found that achievement varied directly with quality of housing and provision of study space.²⁸

Sommerville studied the various factors manifested by sixth-grade students in four Detroit metropolitan area schools who achieved on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills at levels significantly above and below the average. The study sample consisted of eighty students with scores divided equally above and below the average. A questionnaire was used to assess the nature of selected background experiences. Sommerville found a significant relationship between home environment and achievement levels of the students.²⁹

In summary, a review of the literature concerning home environment and school achievement revealed that there was a strong relationship between the two. Several factors such as mother's warmth, parent-child relationship, parents' attitudes toward education, and housing were all shown to have some influence on a child's level of achievement at school.

²⁸William Michelson, The Physical Environment As A Mediating Factor in School Achievement, Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Canadian Sociology and Anthropology Association, Calgary, Alberta, Canada, June 6-7, 1968.

²⁹Joseph C. Sommerville, An Analysis of Certain Interpersonal Aspects of the Home and School in Low Socioeconomic Areas Relating to Student Achievement. 1970. ED 050484.

Effects of One-Parent and Divorced
Homes on Children

A large number of children are growing up in homes with only one parent present. These single parents (the divorced, the separated, the widowed, the unwed mothers, and the bachelor fathers) are having to rear their children without the help of a mate for at least a short period of time. It has been estimated that single parents are rearing about 8.6 million youngsters under eighteen, or about 13 per cent of the national total.³⁰

To some extent, the one-parent family has been viewed as an undesirable type of family in our society. Research studies have revealed, however, that the one-parent family can be cohesive, warm, supportive, and favorable to the development of children.³¹ Obviously, one adequate parent would be better than two inadequate parents. On the other hand, a stable, warm, two-parent home is likely to be more favorable to a child's development than a one-parent home.

As pointed out in Chapter One of this study, the literature has generally supported the assumption that a child's life is likely to have more fullness in the presence of two parents. Sprey stated that a survey of research

³⁰"Rising Problems of Single Parents," U.S. News and World Report, LXXV (July 16, 1973), 32.

³¹Elizabeth Herzog and Cecelia Sudia, "Families Without Fathers," Childhood Education, XLVIII (January, 1972), 180.

findings on the single-parenthood phenomenon leaves little doubt that the simple fact of the absence of one parent affects family functioning in a number of ways.³² Moreover, Freudenthal pointed out that a child reared in an one-parent family cannot help but notice that most children live with two parents. Freudenthal explained that this realization often resulted in a sense of frustration and that often children were ready to view their own status as one of deprivation.³³

In most one-parent homes it is usually the father who is not present. Therefore, most of the studies and the literature concerning one-parent families have placed emphasis on the absence of the father. The importance of having a father present in the family unit has been well supported by various writers in a number of fields. For example, Nash made the statement that the major factor in a boy's psychosexual development as a male person is his identification with his father or a father-substitute.³⁴ English stated that boys and girls develop their earliest and most decisive ideas about masculinity from their fathers.³⁵

³²Sprey, "The Study of Single Parenthood: Some Methodological Considerations," 14.

³³Freudenthal, "Problems of the One-Parent Family," 45.

³⁴Nash, "The Father in Contemporary Culture and Current Psychological Literature," 293.

³⁵English, "The Psychological Role of the Father in the Family," 325.

Kriesberg pointed out that even aside from the absence of a male-model the lack of a father's support and aid in child-rearing may reduce the effectiveness of the mother's efforts. Kriesberg expressed the belief that it is even possible that the husbandless mother may withdraw and reject her children or push them toward independence at too early an age.³⁶ Also, English explained that a child can easily develop resentment at the imposed learning process when he is surrounded by mostly women.³⁷

Several other articles and studies have discussed the value of having a father in the home. Riemer stated that prolonged or repeated physical absence of one parent created a poor environment for the growth of a child's character.³⁸ McCord, McCord, and Thurber found that feminine-aggressive behavior appeared to be produced by paternal absence if the boy was between six and twelve years old when his father left.³⁹ Moynihan pointed out that the Coleman data showed a tendency for achievement to decline in homes where the

³⁶Kriesberg, "Rearing Children for Education Achievement in Fatherless Families," 289.

³⁷English, "The Psychological Role of the Father in the Family," 327.

³⁸Morris D. Riemer, "The Effect on Character Development of Prolonged or Frequent Absence of Parents," Mental Hygiene, XXXIII (April, 1949), 297.

³⁹Joan McCord, William McCord, and Emily Thurber, "Some Effects of Paternal Absence on Male Children," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, LXIV (May, 1962), 368.

father was not present.⁴⁰ It should be noted, however, that this decline in achievement was probably in part a class effect. Also, Goode made the following statement concerning the importance of the father:

At every developmental phase of childhood, the child needs the father (who is usually the absent parent) as an object of love, security, or identification, or even as a figure against whom to rebel safely. This is the case for both boys and girls. It would be surprising if the absence of the father had no effect on the child.⁴¹

While several researchers have studied the effects of father absence, very few studies have examined the effects of mother absence. According to Hoffman and Lippitt, the reason for this lack of research on mother absence is partly that families without mothers are uncommon and cannot be found in concentrated groups.⁴² The few studies concerned with maternal absence have compared children in institutional settings with children in intact families.⁴³

Bedell studied mother absence due to death by interviewing forty-one widowers who were also fathers. Bedell stated that few changes in the maternal orphans' mental and physical well-being were reported by their fathers. Also,

⁴⁰Moynihan, "Sources of Resistance to the Coleman Report," 33.

⁴¹Goode, After Divorce, 309.

⁴²Lois Hoffman and Ronald Lippitt, "The Measurement of Family Life Variables," Handbook of Research Methods in Child Development, ed. by Paul H. Mussen (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1960), 955.

⁴³Ibid.

Bedell found that the maternal orphans' school grades suffered most of any of the variables studied.⁴⁴

Among the most frequent generalizations about children from broken homes are those concerning juvenile delinquency. There is evidence that children from broken homes are more likely to be juvenile delinquents. For example, the Gluecks found that a greater proportion of juvenile delinquents than of nondelinquents stem from broken homes, even within the same economic stratum.⁴⁵ In a discussion on some of their findings in Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency, the Gluecks pointed out that no fewer than six out of every ten homes of the delinquents, compared to three and one-half in ten of those of the nondelinquents, had been broken by separation, divorce, death, or the prolonged absence of the parents.⁴⁶ Moreover, Schafer and Knudten stated that most studies of the relationship between delinquency and broken homes revealed that the broken homes are one and one-half to two times more frequent among delinquents than among nondelinquents.⁴⁷

⁴⁴John Wesley Bedell, "The One-Parent Family: Mother Absent Due to Death," Dissertation Abstracts International, XXXII (February, 1972), 4734-A.

⁴⁵Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck, Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency, 91.

⁴⁶Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck, Delinquents and Nondelinquents in Perspective (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1968), 12.

⁴⁷Stephen Schafer and Richard Knudten, Juvenile Delinquency: An Introduction (New York: Random House, Inc., 1970), 194.

Koch investigated the influence of the broken home on the anxiety test scores of pre-school children. Koch compared the anxiety test scores of nursery children from one-parent homes. Koch concluded that children from broken homes were more likely to have adjustment difficulties than children from homes with both parents present.⁴⁸

Certainly, not all authorities knowledgeable on child development and behavior believe that two parents are necessary for a child to be happy and successful in school and life in general. Herzog and Sudia pointed out that there seems to be little basis for the belief that a father's absence is likely to depress a child's academic performance.⁴⁹ Friedman stated that the intact two-parent family is usually considered to be the most stable and desirable of the family types, but it should be remembered that family content can be a more decisive factor than structure.⁵⁰

The literature and the research studies dealing with the effects of divorce on children are especially relevant to this study. A great deal has been written concerning how children may be affected by a divorce of their parents.

Landis pointed out that the divorce of parents

⁴⁸Koch, "Anxiety in Pre-School Children From Broken Homes," 225-232.

⁴⁹Herzog and Sudia, "Families Without Fathers," 176.

⁵⁰Robert Friedman, Family Roots of School Learning and Behavior Disorders (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1973), 72.

affected children in various ways depending upon such factors as the age of the child, when the divorce occurred, and how the child viewed the home situation before he learned of the possible divorce. Landis stated that there are certain potentially traumatic situations existing for the child of divorcing parents. For example, Landis felt that the new status of being the child of divorced parents may necessitate new adjustments with the peer group.⁵¹

Kenkel pointed out that almost every divorce threatens the basic security of almost every child involved.⁵² Pecot stated that a child may become overly dependent upon or concerned about the remaining parent after a divorce. Pecot explained that a child may be unwilling to attend school and may even develop psychosomatic illness out of fear of losing the remaining parent. Also, Pecot suggested that a child enrolled in school may find it difficult to devote full energies to the learning process because of a preoccupation with the loss of one or both parents.⁵³ Furthermore, Kenkel made the following statement:

Some children of divorce remain insecure, lonely, anxious individuals for all of their lives, although many more, we trust, go on to regain their sense of security. Some situations aggravate the threat of

⁵¹Landis, "The Trauma of Children When Parents Divorce," 7.

⁵²William F. Kenkel, The Family in Perspective (3d ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1973), 327.

⁵³Pecot, "When the Parents Are Divorced," 294.

security loss and others help to relieve it. Being a ward of the state while parents work out or dispute custody arrangements or learning that neither parent really wants him and that "arrangements" have been made for him to live with this or that relative can inflict deep psychic wounds which, if healed at all, will show ugly scars for many years.⁵⁴

Despert commented that divorce often brings the child's buried anxieties to the surface. Despert stressed that the divorce had not necessarily created these anxieties, but that it acted as a catalyst to bring the child's hidden troubles out to the level of open behavior.⁵⁵

Sometimes a child will develop feelings of guilt because he believed that in some way he was responsible for his parents' divorce. Ackerman has written that often children felt responsible for the divorce and suffered guilt feelings about the situation.⁵⁶ Freudenthal explained that children of divorce often expressed a sense of failure for their inability to prevent the family breakup.⁵⁷

Children of divorce are often "used" by one or both parents in the pre-or postdivorce period. Dominian stated that often a child becomes a shuttlecock between the parents, no longer a concern of their love, but an object to use

⁵⁴Kenkel, The Family in Perspective, 328.

⁵⁵J. Louise Despert, Children of Divorce (Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1953), 120.

⁵⁶Ackerman, "Divorce and Alienation in Modern Society," 120.

⁵⁷Freudenthal, "Problems of the One-Parent Family," 46.

against each other.⁵⁸ Landis found in his study that forty-four per cent of all his subjects from divorced homes reported that they felt they had been "used" by one or both parents.⁵⁹

Divorce often leaves the remaining parent with a bleak outlook on life, which often affects the child's attitudes in general. Friedman suggested that parents reacting to the impact of divorce can often become engrossed in their bewilderment, anger, hostility, or depression. Friedman explained that this expenditure of emotional energy can leave little opportunity for the mother to respond to what her child is experiencing at this time.⁶⁰ Moreover, Garai felt that a child living with a divorced parent may acquire negative attitudes toward love and sex unless the parent made a special effort to prevent this.⁶¹

Divorce of a child's parents often results in a loss of social status for the child. The amount of family income may drop rather sharply when the divorce takes place. Also, it may be necessary for the remaining family to move to less expensive housing or near a new job. Goode found that the

⁵⁸Jack Dominian, Marital Breakdown (Chicago: Franciscan Perald Press, 1968), 121.

⁵⁹Landis, "The Trauma of Children When Parents Divorce," 10.

⁶⁰Friedman, Family Roots of School Learning and Behavior Disorders, 190.

⁶¹Garai, "Children of Divorce: Healing Their Special Hurt," 47.

remaining household usually moved after a divorce.⁶² Therefore, the child often has to attend a new school and make new friends.

It is often assumed that divorce is almost always preceded by open conflict and a great deal of unhappiness, however, from the viewpoint of the child the pre-divorce home may be quite satisfactory. Landis found in his study of students from divorced homes that many felt their homes were happy before the divorce. But, Landis found that greater trauma occurred among children who thought their homes were happy before they learned of the divorce.⁶³

The past few pages of this study have discussed some of the possible undesirable effects that might result from a child's parents obtaining a divorce, but not all divorces are harmful to children. In some cases, it is possible that a divorce would be the best thing for all involved. Many families would probably be considerably better off if the parents would obtain a divorce. Goode's study of divorced mothers in Detroit revealed that thirty-one per cent of the divorcees felt that their children were better off after the divorce.⁶⁴

Several studies have been done concerning the effects

⁶²Goode, After Divorce, 230.

⁶³Landis, "The Trauma of Children When Parents Divorce," 8-9.

⁶⁴Goode, After Divorce, 318.

of family structure on children. Most of these have reached varying conclusions as to the effects of family structure on children's adjustment and academic achievement. Some of the following studies were mentioned briefly in Chapter One.

Burchinal made comparisons of personality and social relationship scores for five groups of adolescents.

Burchinal compared students from unbroken families, those living with mothers only, and students from three types of reconstructed families. The sample consisted of over eighteen hundred boys and girls from the seventh and eleventh grades of a school system in Iowa. Burchinal reported that there were no significant differences in personality characteristics of these students in any of the family types. Also, Burchinal found no significant differences among students from these five family types in participation in school activities, mean grade-point averages, and the number of schoolmates the respondent thought liked him or her.⁶⁵

Nye compared students from intact, but unhappy, homes with students from broken homes. The sample consisted of 780 high school students. Nye found that students from broken homes showed less psychosomatic illness, less delinquent behavior, and better adjustment to parents than did students from unhappy, unbroken homes. Also, Nye found that the students from broken homes did not differ significantly with

⁶⁵Lee G. Burchinal, "Characteristics of Adolescents From Unbroken, Broken, and Reconstituted Families," Journal of Marriage and the Family, XXVI (February, 1964), 44-51.

students from unhappy unbroken homes with respect to adjustment in school, church, or delinquent companions.⁶⁶

Collins compared achievement, intelligence, personality, and selected school-related variables of Negro students from intact and broken families who attended parochial schools in Harlem. The sample consisted of 300 students from the fourth, sixth, and eighth grades of five selected schools. Collins found no significant differences in the standardized achievement scores between the intact and broken family groups at three grade levels. When the teacher-related achievement scores were considered, however, a difference significant at the .05 level was found for the sixth grade group in math. The intact sixth grade group scored higher in math than the broken group. Also, Collins found no significant differences between intact and broken family groups on four personality scales.⁶⁷

Keller studied selected background factors related to the achievement of mentally able fifth and sixth grade students. Keller found no significant difference in achievement between students from one-parent homes and students from

⁶⁶F. Ivan Nye, "Child Adjustment in Broken and in Unhappy Unbroken Homes," Marriage and Family Living, IXX (November, 1957), 356-361.

⁶⁷Sister Maria Collins, "Achievement, Intelligence, Personality, and Selected School-Related Variables in Negro Children From Intact and Broken Families Attending Parochial Schools in Central Harlem," Dissertation Abstracts International, XXX (June, 1970), 5286-A

two-parent homes.⁶⁸

Wohl studied the effects of a mother-only home on the school achievement and adjustment of elementary grade students. Using two matched groups of thirty students, Wohl concluded that achievement test scores of children from the intermediate grades are not related to the number of parents in the home. Wohl reported, however, that the children's teachers rated the adjustment of children from two-parent homes as superior to the adjustment of children from one-parent homes.⁶⁹

Crescimbeni studied the effects of family disorganization on the academic achievement of elementary students. Two matched groups of sixty-one students each were studied over a period of two years. The students in one group were identified as having experienced a form of disruptive family disorganization. Family disorganization was defined as parental death, divorce, separation, or desertion of one or both parents. The students in the other group were from intact homes. Crescimbeni reported a significance of difference in academic achievement among students from one-parent homes as compared to students from two-parent homes. Students from the one-parent homes scored lower on the Metropolitan

⁶⁸Frederic E. Keller, "A Comparative Study of Selected Background Factors Related to Achievement of Mentally Able Fifth and Sixth Grade Children," Dissertation Abstract, IXXX (April, 1969), 3327-A.

⁶⁹Wohl, "A Study of the School Achievement and Adjustment of Children From One-Parent Homes."

Achievement Test than students from the two-parent homes. Moreover, Crescimbeni found that students in the category of "divorce-separation-desertion" had a lower achievement mean than students in the category of "death."⁷⁰

Shelton made an investigation to determine differences in educational achievement between students from broken homes and students from intact homes. The sample consisted of 162 junior high students from a school in Iowa. Shelton found a significant difference in mean scores of academic grade-point averages between the one-parent and the two-parent groups that favored the two-parent group. At the same time, Shelton concluded that students who experienced a broken home condition during early primary grades tended to be the most adversely affected in their educational achievement.⁷¹

Effects of Reconstructed Homes on Children

As pointed out earlier in this chapter, a large number of children are living in reconstructed homes. Very few research studies, however, have examined how steprelationships affect children and their academic status. Bowerman and Irish stated that a thorough examination of research literature for the past forty years revealed that there had

⁷⁰Crescimbeni, "The Effect of Family Disorganization on Academic Achievement of Pupils in the Elementary School."

⁷¹Shelton, "A Comparative Study of Educational Achievement In One-Parent Families and in Two-Parent Families."

been relatively few inquiries concerned with the stepchild.⁷²

The difficulties of being a stepchild are legendary. The "wicked stepmother" and "cruel stepfather" have long existed in folk literature. Little has been done to contradict the myths concerning stepparents.

Support can be found for the view that the introduction of a new parent into a family may add to the adjustment problems of a child. Clausen pointed out that studies of children reared in reconstructed homes suggested that friction between the stepparent and the stepchild was common. Also, Clausen explained that a new spouse was often viewed by the child as a rival for the affection and attention of the remaining original parent.⁷³ Bernard stated that the new parent was often considered as an intruder by the child.⁷⁴

Podolsky has written that quite a few children have complained that the stepparent became the dominant person in the home and exerted undue influence on the real parent. Podolsky stated that when the stepparent became the central person in the home, the child felt that he was almost

⁷²Charles E. Bowerman and Donald P. Irish, "Some Relationships of Stepchildren to Their Parents," Marriage and Family Living, XXIV (May, 1952), 113.

⁷³John A. Clausen, "Family Structure, Socialization, and Personality," Review of Child Development Research, Vol. II, ed. by Lois Hoffman and Martin Hoffman (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1966), 28.

⁷⁴Jessie Bernard, Remarriage: A Study of Marriage (New York: The Dryden Press, 1956), 215.

entirely left out of the family picture.⁷⁵

The age of the child when the stepparent comes into the family is an important factor in the child's adjustment. Bernard explained that very young or quite grown-up children tended to assimilate a new parent more easily than did adolescents.⁷⁶

Landis pointed out that children in reconstructed homes often found it difficult to explain extra family members to their friends. Landis stated that a child in a reconstructed home could have two sets of parents, four sets of grandparents and a number of stepbrothers and step-sisters.⁷⁷

It should be noted that a child can benefit from a remarriage on the part of one or both of his divorced parents. Thomson believed that a child could profit from a good remarriage. A remarriage of a child's mother or father might make it possible for the child to engage in more activities than would be possible with just one parent.⁷⁸ Also, a good remarriage might bring more financial stability and security to the family.

Goode found in his study of remarried mothers that

⁷⁵Podolsky, "The Emotional Problems of the Step-child," 52.

⁷⁶Bernard, Remarriage: A Study of Marriage, 216.

⁷⁷Landis, "The Trauma of Children When Parents Divorce," 11-12.

⁷⁸Thomson, The Successful Stepparent, 227.

three-fourths of those women thought that their children's lives were better off than during the previous marriage. Only eight per cent of the remarried mothers felt that their children's lives were worse than before the remarriage.⁷⁹

A few studies have compared the characteristics or adjustment of children from reconstructed homes with children from other family types. Perry and Pfuhl compared the adjustment of children from one-parent homes with children from reconstructed homes. The data were gathered from a systematic sample of students in grades 9-12 in three Washington State communities by the questionnaire method. The subsample consisted of 136 students who lived in one-parent homes and 267 students who lived in reconstructed homes. Three measures of adjustment were employed by Perry and Pfuhl. Those measures were a delinquency check list, a psychosomatic complaint list, and school grades. Perry and Pfuhl found no significant differences between the two groups on any of the three measures.⁸⁰

Bowerman and Irish reported on the findings of two separate, though related studies concerning the relationships of stepchildren to their parents. The data from one study were collected in the State of Washington in 1953, while the data from the second study were secured in North

⁷⁹Goode, After Divorce, 318.

⁸⁰Joseph B. Perry and Erdwin H. Pfuhl, "Adjustment of Children in 'Solo' and 'Remarriage' Homes," Marriage and Family Living, XXV (May, 1963), 221-223.

Carolina and Ohio in 1960. In both inquiries, questionnaires were administered to junior and senior high school students.⁸¹ Bowerman and Irish analyzed the two studies and reported the following:

In all the aspects thus far examined, homes involving step-relationships proved more likely to have stress, ambivalence, and low cohesiveness than did normal homes. The reactions of adolescent children indicate that stepmothers have more difficult roles than do stepfathers, with the consequent implications for interactions within the family. Stepdaughters generally manifested more extreme reactions toward their parents than did stepsons. The presence of stepparents in the home affected also, the adjustment of the children to their natural parents, usually somewhat diminishing the level of adjustment.⁸²

Burchinal studied characteristics of adolescents from unbroken, broken, and reconstructed families. Burchinal found no significant differences in personality characteristics, in participation in school activities, in mean grade-point averages, and in the number of schoolmates the respondent thought liked him or her.⁸³

One can see that the literature and the research studies reviewed have reached varying conclusions as to what extent family structure affects children. There seems, however, to be some support for the view that family structure affects a child's academic status to some degree.

⁸¹Bowerman and Irish, "Some Relationships of Stepchildren to Their Parents," 113-121.

⁸²Ibid., 121.

⁸³Burchinal, "Characteristics of Adolescents from Unbroken, Broken, and Reconstituted Families," 44-51.

Self-Concept and Its Relationship
to Academic Status

Self-concept (as a learner) was used in this study as a covariate. Also, three hypotheses were concerned with the relationships between the three family types' self-concept (as a learner) scores and their academic status scores. Therefore, it seemed necessary to include a review of the literature dealing with the relationship of self-concept to academic achievement.

Purkey stated that the available research evidence clearly indicated a persistent and significant relationship between self-concept and academic achievement.⁸⁴ Also, Caplin pointed out that substantial evidence suggested a significant relationship between self-concept and academic achievement.⁸⁵

A number of studies have examined the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement. For example, Stevens found that positive feelings about the self are associated with good academic achievement at the college level.⁸⁶ Reeder found that elementary school students with

⁸⁴William W. Purkey, Self Concept and School Achievement (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970), 60-61.

⁸⁵Morris D. Caplin, "The Relationship Between Self-Concept and Academic Achievement," The Journal of Experimental Education, XXXVII (Spring, 1969), 13.

⁸⁶Peter H. Stevens, "An Investigation of the Relationship Between Certain Aspects of Self-Concept Behavior and Students' Academic Achievement," Dissertation Abstracts, XVI (December, 1956), 2531-2532.

a low self-concept achieved lower, in comparison to their potential, than did students with a high self-concept.⁸⁷ Campbell reported a low positive correlation between the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, a self-report questionnaire, and the achievement of fourth, fifth, and sixth-grade students.⁸⁸

Bruck investigated the relationship between self-concept and grade-point average at both the elementary school level and the secondary school level. The grade levels studied were the third, the sixth, and the eleventh. The instrument used to measure self-concept was the Machover Draw-A-Person Test. Bruck found that a positive and significant relationship existed between self-concept and grade-point average at all grade levels.⁸⁹

A study of the relationship between academic underachievement and self-concept was done by Fink, who studied two groups of rural ninth grade students paired for achievement and underachievement. The students' grade-point averages were used to measure achievement. Self-concept was

⁸⁷Thelma A. Reeder, "A Study of Some Relationships Between Level of Self-Concept, Academic Achievement, and Classroom Adjustment," Dissertation Abstracts, XV (December, 1955), 2472.

⁸⁸Paul B. Campbell, "School and Self-Concept," Educational Leadership, XXIV (March, 1967), 510-515.

⁸⁹Max Bruck, "A Study of Age Differences and Sex Differences in the Relationship Between Self-Concept and Grade-Point Averages," Dissertation Abstracts, XIX (January, 1959), 1640.

measured by several instruments. Data from the various instruments were presented to three psychologists to make a determination as to adequacy or inadequacy of self-concept of each child. Fink concluded that there was a significant relationship between self-concept and academic achievement. The achievers were rated as far more adequate in their concepts of themselves. This relationship appeared stronger in boys than girls.⁹⁰

Irvin compared sentence-completion responses of 171 freshmen college students with semester grades. Irvin reported a positive correlation ($r = .48$) between reported self-concept and academic achievement.⁹¹

White studied a small group of children (six) at the University of Arkansas Training School. White used several instruments to measure self-concept and the Metropolitan Achievement Test to measure academic achievement. White found that academic achievement was in "general harmony" with self-concept.⁹²

Bledsoe investigated the relationship between

⁹⁰Martin B. Fink, "Self Concept as it Relates to Academic Underachievement," California Journal of Educational Research, XIII (March, 1962), 57-62.

⁹¹Floyd S. Irvin, "Sentence-Completion Responses and Scholastic Success or Failure," Journal of Counseling Psychology, XIV (May, 1967), 269-271.

⁹²Audrey A. White, "Insights Into the Relationship Between Children's Self-Concepts and Their Academic Achievement," Dissertation Abstracts, XXIV (June, 1964), 5227.

elementary school students' self-concepts and their academic achievement. A self-report instrument, Bledsoe Self Concept Scale, was used to measure the students' self-concepts.

Bledsoe found that for males, there was a significant and positive relationship between achievement and self-concept.⁹³

Caplin conducted a study to determine the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement of 180 students from the intermediate grades. A self-report instrument was used to measure self-concept. Caplin found that students with more positive self-concepts had higher academic achievement. Caplin concluded that there was a positive relationship between self-concept and academic achievement.⁹⁴

Butcher studied the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement of students in high achieving elementary schools. The self-concepts of 190 elementary school students were measured by using the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. Standardized achievement tests were used to measure the students' achievement. Butcher found that the students' self-concepts were not significantly related to their academic achievement.⁹⁵

⁹³Joseph C. Bledsoe, "Self-Concepts of Children and Their Intelligence, Achievement, Interests, and Anxiety," Childhood Education, XLIII (March, 1967), 436-438.

⁹⁴Caplin, "The Relationship Between Self-Concept and Academic Achievement," 13-16.

⁹⁵Donald G. Butcher, "A Study of the Relationship of Student Self-Concept to Academic Achievement in Six High Achieving Elementary Schools," Dissertation Abstract, XXVIII (June, 1968), 4844-A.

Lumpkin investigated the relationship of self-concept to achievement in reading. Twenty-four fifth grade over-achievers in reading and twenty-five fifth grade under-achievers were matched on the basis of age, mental age, sex, and home background. Several psychological instruments were used to measure self-concept. Lumpkin found that there was a significant relationship between self-concept and achievement in reading.⁹⁶

Several other studies have investigated the relationship between self-concept and reading achievement. Cummings used the Thomas Self-Concept Values Test to measure the self-concepts of 189 third grade subjects and the California Reading Tests to measure reading achievement. Cummings found that positive self-concepts were related to adequate reading achievement.⁹⁷ Williams found no significant relationship between self-concept and reading achievement of first grade children, however. Williams used the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory to measure self-concept and the California Achievement Test to measure reading achievement.⁹⁸

⁹⁶Donavon D. Lumpkin, "The Relationship of Self-Concept to Achievement In Reading," Dissertation Abstracts, XX (July, 1959), 204.

⁹⁷Ruby N. Cummings, "A Study of the Relationships Between Self-Concepts and Reading Achievement At Third Grade Level," Dissertation Abstracts International, XXX (April, 1971), 5195-A.

⁹⁸Jean H. Williams, "The Relationship of Self-Concept and Reading Achievement in First Grade Children," The Journal of Educational Research, LXVI (April, 1973), 378-379.

A review of the literature and the research studies concerning the relationship between self-concept and academic status revealed the following: (1) It was generally found that a positive relationship existed between self-concept and academic status; (2) The relationship between self-concept and academic achievement was stronger for boys than girls.

School Attendance and Its Relationship to Academic Status

School attendance was one of the covariates used in this study. Therefore, it seemed proper to include a review of the literature dealing with school attendance and its relationship to academic status.

Gibson has stated that attendance can be seen as a form of social behavior. Furthermore, Gibson suggested that the family as a primary reference group helped in shaping a student's attendance behavior.⁹⁹

Ziegler presented an excellent review of the literature of school attendance and its relationship to achievement in his book, School Attendance As A Factor in School Progress.¹⁰⁰ Ziegler's review covered the literature on school attendance published before 1928. Ziegler reported that

⁹⁹Oliver Gibson, "Attendance," Encyclopedia of Educational Research (4th ed.; London: The MacMillan Company, 1969), 90-97..

¹⁰⁰Carl William Ziegler, School Attendance As a Factor in School Progress (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928).

most of the studies reviewed indicated that there was a positive relationship between school attendance and school grades. Furthermore, Ziegler found in his own study that school attendance had a positive relationship to school grades at the junior high school level.¹⁰¹

McElyea,¹⁰² Higdon,¹⁰³ and Hough,¹⁰⁴ in a series of Master's theses, all reported that they found positive relationships between school attendance and school grades. Those studies involved elementary and secondary students in several school districts in Oklahoma during the 1930's.

Wetzel studied the relationship between school attendance and the academic achievement of students enrolled in a New Jersey high school. Wetzel found that students with poor attendance records were, as a whole, below the average achievement of the school at almost every ability level.¹⁰⁵

Sorenson noted the relationship between school

¹⁰¹Ibid.

¹⁰²Bennie McElyea, "The Classification, Attendance, and Achievement of Children in the Hobart Public Schools From 1932 to 1935" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Oklahoma, 1937).

¹⁰³Alexander H. Higdon, "Achievements of the Valley Brook Elementary Pupils As Related to Their Attendance" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Oklahoma, 1938).

¹⁰⁴Chappman E. Hough, "The Relation of Attendance to Achievement In A Small School System" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Oklahoma, 1937).

¹⁰⁵William A. Wetzel, "School Attendance and Scholarship," School Review, XXXVI (February, 1928), 118-120.

attendance and academic achievement. Sorenson contended that children lose their mental abilities in direct proportion to the amount of school loss.¹⁰⁶

Greene studied the factors associated with absenteeism among students in two metropolitan high schools. One of the schools was located in an economically "advantaged" school community, and the other was located in an economically "disadvantaged" school community. Greene found in both schools that students who were the "best" attenders earned reliably higher school marks than did the "worst" attenders.¹⁰⁷

Stringer, in a series of studies at St. Louis, Missouri, found that school attendance had little effect on school achievement at the elementary school level. Stringer noted, however, that high absenteeism in the elementary years was a significant predictor of student dropout in high school.¹⁰⁸

Interesting enough to this study, Burchinal found significant differences among his five family types on the number of days absent from school. Burchinal reported that

¹⁰⁶Herbert Sorenson, Psychology in Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964), 122.

¹⁰⁷James E. Greene, "Factors Associated with Absenteeism Among Students in Two Metropolitan High Schools," The Journal of Experimental Education, XXXI (Summer, 1963), 389-394.

¹⁰⁸Lorene A. Stringer, "Children At Risk," Elementary School Journal, LXXIII (April, 1973), 364-373.

adolescents from the unbroken homes were absent the fewest number of days.¹⁰⁹

In summary, most of the studies reviewed revealed that there is a positive relationship between school attendance and academic status. One series of studies by Stringer, however, found that school attendance had little effect on academic achievement at the elementary school level.¹¹⁰

Summary

From the studies reviewed, it is evident that divorces and remarriages have become more frequent and have affected a larger percentage of our population than in past years. Also, it is obvious that quite a number of children are affected by those divorces and remarriages.

A review of the literature concerning home environment and school achievement revealed that there was a strong relationship between the two. Several factors such as a mother's warmth, parent-child relationship, parents' attitudes toward education, and housing were all shown to have some influence on a child's level of achievement at school.

The writers and the researchers, in the literature and research studies reviewed, reached varying conclusions as to what extent family structure affected children and their academic status. Most authorities agreed, however,

¹⁰⁹Burchinal, "Characteristics of Adolescents from Unbroken, Broken, and Reconstituted Families," 44-51.

¹¹⁰Stringer, "Children at Risk," 364-373.

that a stable two-parent home was better for children than a similar one-parent home. Also, there was some evidence to indicate that children could encounter serious adjustment problems when their parents obtained a divorce. Furthermore, the literature indicated that some children have difficulties adjusting to their stepparent. On the other hand, Goode found in his study of remarried mothers that three-fourths of those women thought that their children's lives had improved since the remarriage.¹¹¹

A review of the literature and research studies concerning the relationship between self-concept and academic status revealed the following: (1) It was generally found that a positive and significant relationship existed between self-concept and academic status; (2) The relationship between self-concept and academic status was stronger for boys than girls.

Most of the studies reviewed indicated that there was a positive relationship between school attendance and academic status. One series of studies found, however, that school attendance had little effect on academic achievement at the elementary school level.

¹¹¹Goode, After Divorce, 318.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

Included in this chapter are descriptions of the sample, instruments, and statistics used in the study. Each hypothesis is cited with the corresponding statistical tests and results.

The Population and Selection of Subjects

The total population for this study consisted of 947 fifth grade students from all eight elementary schools in the Moore School System, Moore, Oklahoma. Although the Moore School District covers an area of more than 177 square miles, most of the students live in Moore, a suburb of Oklahoma City.

The family structure was determined for each fifth grade student in the district. This was accomplished by using school records which consisted of enrollment cards and cumulative folders. Both kinds of records provided fairly detailed information concerning the structure of the student's family. In addition, to see if any new changes had occurred in the students' family structure, the writer

consulted with homeroom teachers, principals, and school counselors.

Thirty-three students were eliminated from the three family types for various reasons. An additional eighty-two students could not be included because they had either not attended Moore schools the full year or had not completed the achievement test. The remaining 832 students could be classified as coming from one of the three family types. The exact numbers in each subpopulation were as follows:

(1) sixty-nine students in Group One (divorced homes), (2) ninety-five students in Group Two (reconstructed homes), and (3) 668 students in Group Three (intact homes). Students were placed in the divorced homes subpopulation only if their homes had been broken for at least a year. Students were placed in the reconstructed homes subpopulation only if their homes had been functioning as a family unit for at least a year.

Random samples of fifty students were selected from each of the three subpopulations by using a table of random numbers.¹ This procedure allowed equal groups and an adequate sample from each subpopulation.

Selection of Dependent Variables

The dependent variable measured in the study was a combination of the student's academic achievement (composite

¹Gene V. Glass and Julian C. Stanley, Statistical Methods in Education and Psychology (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970), 511.

scores from the Stanford Achievement Test; Intermediate Level-Form W) and the student's composite grade-point average. Grade-point averages were collected from each student's permanent folder at the end of the 1972-73 academic year. Final grades in reading, mathematics, science, social studies, and language were averaged to determine the overall grade-point average. The following scale was used in assigning numerical values to the letter grades: A--4, B--3, C--2, D--1, and F--0.

Each student's achievement test z scores and grade-point average z scores were then averaged to form an academic status measure. The achievement test scores and grade-point averages were converted to a z format by subtracting the mean from each score and dividing the mean deviate by the standard deviation.

Two variables, attendance and self-concept as a learner, were controlled as covariables in the study. The assumption was made that randomness would control other variables that might influence the results.

Instruments

The students' composite achievement test scores on the Stanford Achievement Test: Intermediate II, Form W were used as a measure of school achievement. Kelley et al. reported that the split-half reliability coefficients as corrected by the Spearman-Brown Prophecy Formula varied between $r = 0.77$ and $r = 0.93$ on the sub-tests of the Stanford

Achievement Test.² Kelley et al. further reported that the content validity ranged between $r = 0.77$ and $r = 0.89$ on the sub-tests of the Stanford Achievement Test.³

The students' self-concepts as learners were measured by The Florida Key. The Florida Key is a scale to infer a learner's self-concept. Purkey, Cage, and Graves reported the concurrent validity of The Florida Key to average approximately $r = 0.62$. Also, Purkey, Cage, and Graves reported that The Florida Key was found to have a high split-halves reliability coefficient ($r = 0.93$).⁴ A sample copy of The Florida Key is presented in Appendix A.

In discussing The Florida Key, Purkey, Cage, and Graves made the following statement:

Because of the apparent relationship between self-perceptions and school achievement, there seemed to be a need for a "scale" to infer learner self-concept which could be quickly and easily scored by a classroom teacher without training. It should not require the cooperation of the subject (as do self-report instruments) or involve the subject's awareness of being measured.⁵

²Truman L. Kelley et al., Stanford Achievement Test: Directions For Administering Intermediate II Battery (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964), 24.

³Truman L. Kelley et al., Stanford Achievement Test: Technical Supplement (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1966), 23.

⁴William W. Purkey, Bob N. Cage, and William Graves, "The Florida Key; A Scale to Infer Learner Self-Concept," Educational and Psychological Measurement, XXXIII (Winter, 1973), 979-984.

⁵Ibid., 979.

Combs, Soper, and Courson pointed out that "self-concept" was generally defined as what an individual believes about himself; the totality of his ways of seeing himself. On the other hand, Combs, Soper, and Courson stated that the "self-report" was a description of self reported to an outsider.⁶

Combs, Soper, and Courson believed that in order to study the self-concept it was necessary to infer its nature from observations of the behavior of the individual.⁷ In a discussion on the measurement of self-concept, Combs, Soper, and Courson stated the following:

The inferred self-concept escapes most of the obvious sources of error affecting the self-report. We may therefore presume on logical grounds that the inferred self-concept is probably a much more accurate measure of the self concept than the subject's self report.⁸

The writer made a decision to use The Florida Key to measure, at least, one aspect of self-concept, self-concept as a learner. Two factors contributed to this decision. First, the writer did not have permission to administer any tests because of school policy. Secondly, an instrument was needed which would not require teacher training.

The students' social class positions were estimated

⁶Arthur W. Combs, Daniel W. Soper, and Clifford C. Courson, "The Measurement of Self Concept and Self Report," Educational and Psychological Measurement, XXIII (Fall, 1963), 494.

⁷Ibid.

⁸Ibid., 495.

by Warner's Index of Status Characteristics. This index is based on a sum of weights assigned to occupation, dwelling area, house type, and source of income.⁹ Several studies have found the Index of Status Characteristics to be a good measure of social status. For example, Haer compared several social class indices on their ability to predict various attitudes and behavior and concluded that Warner's Index of Status Characteristics had the greatest predictive power.¹⁰ The writer's only purpose for using the index, however, was to determine if the students were fairly homogeneous as to social class.

The Collection of Data

The students' composite achievement test scores on the Stanford Achievement Test were taken from computer print-out sheets provided by Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Scoring Service. This test was administered to all fifth graders in the school system during April, 1973. Percentile scores were converted to the z format.

The students' self-concepts as learners were measured by The Florida Key. This scale was completed by each student's homeroom teacher during May, 1973. The teachers

⁹W. Lloyd Warner, Marchia Meeker, and Kenneth Eells, Social Class in America (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1960).

¹⁰J. L. Haer, "Predictive Utility of Five Indices of Social Stratification," American Sociological Review, XXII (October, 1947), 541-546.

were told only that the writer was interested in measuring the self-concept of selected students.

The students' social class positions were estimated by using Warner's Index of Status Characteristics. This entailed determining the occupation, source of income, dwelling area, and house type of each student's family. Occupation was determined from information provided by the parents on the student's enrollment card. The father's occupation was used for both the intact and the reconstructed family unit, while the mother's occupation was used for the divorced family. Source of income was mainly determined by occupation. Dwelling area and house type were fairly easy to determine since the largest part of Moore was built in tracts. It was necessary, however, for the writer to personally observe some dwellings.

Each of the four status characteristics was rated on a seven-point scale which ranged from a rating of 1, a very high status value, to 7, very low status value. The ratings of the separate status characteristics were then combined into a single index by assigning a specified weight to each and securing a total of the separate ratings.

A comparison of the status characteristics indices of the three groups was made prior to the testing of the hypotheses in order to determine whether the socioeconomic factor should be given further consideration.

The means and standard deviations of the social

characteristics indices for the three family groups are presented in Table 3.1. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the significance of the differences among the means of the three family groups on the social characteristics indices. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) results presented in Table 3.2 show that there were no significant differences among the means of the social characteristics indices computed for the three groups ($F = 0.2285$; $df = 2/147$, $p > .05$).

TABLE 3.1

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF STATUS CHARACTERISTICS INDICES OF GROUPS ONE (DIVORCED HOMES), TWO (RECONSTRUCTED HOMES), AND THREE (INTACT HOMES)

Variable Measured	Children From Divorced Homes (N=50)		Children From Reconstructed Homes (N=50)		Children From Intact Homes (N=50)	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
Status Characteristics Indices	49.02	7.944	49.78	5.003	48.92	7.553

TABLE 3.2

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS COMPARING THE SOCIAL
CHARACTERISTICS INDICES OF GROUPS ONE
(DIVORCED HOMES), TWO (RECONSTRUCTED
HOMES), AND THREE (INTACT HOMES)

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Value	Significance Level
Between	2	11.06	0.2285	> .05
Within	147	48.40		

Warner, Meeker, and Eells reported that indices in the range of 38-50 indicated a lower-middle class position.¹¹ Therefore, it was determined that the three family types were fairly homogeneous in their socioeconomic status (upper-lower class and lower-middle class).

Statistical Treatment

Statistical analysis of the data collected on the students was accomplished through the use of analysis of variance (ANOVA) and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). This analysis allowed the consideration of the dependent variable (academic status) while controlling the effects of the independent variables (attendance and self-concept as a learner) to test the first two hypotheses. In addition, the Scheffé method of multiple comparisons, the S - method,¹² was to be

¹¹Warner, Meeker and Eells, Social Class in America, 127.

¹²Glass and Stanley, Statistical Methods in Education and Psychology, 388-393.

used in testing the subhypotheses depending on the results of the ANOVA and the ANCOVA. The last eight hypotheses were tested by using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and the z - test for two independent correlations.

A flow chart of data collection and analysis procedures is presented in Appendix B. Computer Program BMD-X69 was available at the Merrick Computer Center, Norman, Oklahoma and was utilized in this study.

Two different paths of statistical analyses were possible at the outset of the study. First, if the results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) or analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) were significant, then it would be necessary to determine which group or groups were contributing to these significant results by using the Scheffé method of multiple comparisons, the S - method. In other words, if the result of the ANOVA was significant, then it would be necessary to test subhypotheses 1.1, 1.2, and 1.3 by using the S - method. The same would be true for the ANCOVA. If the ANCOVA result was significant, then it would be necessary to test subhypotheses 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 by using the S - method. On the other hand, if the results of the ANOVA and ANCOVA were not significant, then it would not be necessary to test the subsequent subhypotheses concerning the significant differences between the means of the various groups.

Results of Testing Null
Hypothesis Number One

The first null hypothesis tested concerned the academic status scores of the students from the three family groups. The proposition tested in hypothesis number one was as follows:

Ho₁ There are no statistically significant differences among the means of the three family groups on academic status scores.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the first hypothesis. The means and standard deviations of the measures involved in the statistical comparisons are presented in Table 3.3, while the ANOVA results are presented in Table 3.4.

TABLE 3.3

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE VARIABLES MEASURED
FOR GROUPS ONE (DIVORCED HOMES), TWO (RECONSTRUCTED
HOMES), AND THREE (INTACT HOMES)

Groups Variables Measured	Children From Divorced Homes		Children From Recon- structed Homes		Children From Intact Homes	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
1. Attendance (In days)	167.98	8.27	168.17	8.15	169.10	5.85
2. Self- Concept Scores	57.02	18.42	57.12	15.45	59.82	14.28
3. Academic Status z Score	0.178	1.742	-0.179	1.731	0.081	2.103

TABLE 3.4

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS COMPARING THE ACADEMIC
STATUS SCORES OF STUDENTS FROM GROUPS ONE
(DIVORCED HOMES), TWO (RECONSTRUCTED
HOMES), AND THREE (INTACT HOMES)

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Value	Significance Level
Among Groups	2	1.705	0.489	$> .05$
Within Groups	147	3.484		

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) results presented in Table 3.4 show that there were no significant differences among the means of the academic status scores computed for the three groups ($F = 0.4891$; $df = 2/147$, $p > .05$). The results presented in Tables 3.3 and 3.4 would not allow the researcher to reject the first null hypothesis, and it was concluded that there were no significant differences among the means of the academic status scores of the three groups of students.

Since there were no significant differences among the means of the academic status scores of the three groups of students, it was not necessary to test separately the sub-hypotheses 1.2, 1.2, and 1.3 by using the S - method. Therefore, it was possible to proceed to hypothesis number two.

Results of Testing Null
Hypothesis Number Two

The second major hypothesis tested concerned the academic status scores of the students from the three groups when the effects of school attendance and self-concept (as a learner) scores were taken into consideration. The proposition tested in hypothesis number two was as follows:

Ho₂ There are no statistically significant differences among the means of the three family groups on academic status scores when school attendance records and self-concept (as a learner) scores are taken into consideration as covariates.

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test the second hypothesis. The means and standard deviations of the measures involved in the statistical comparisons are presented in Table 3.3, while the ANCOVA results are presented in Table 3.5.

TABLE 3.5

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE RESULTS COMPARING THE ACADEMIC
STATUS SCORES OF STUDENTS FROM GROUPS ONE (DIVORCED
HOMES), TWO (RECONSTRUCTED HOMES), AND THREE
(INTACT HOMES) WITH SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AND
SELF-CONCEPT AS COVARIATES

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Adjusted Mean Squares	F-Value	Significance Level
Among Groups	2	1.8579	0.7502	>.05
Covariates				
Att.	1	1.5092	0.6094	≥.05
S.C.	1	143.0662	57.7675	<.001
Within Groups	145	2.4766		

The analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) results presented in Table 3.5 show that there were no significant differences among the means of the academic status scores computed for the three groups even when the covariates of school attendance records and self-concept (as a learner) scores were taken into consideration ($F = 0.7502$; $df = 2/145$, $p > .05$).

The results presented in Tables 3.3 and 3.5 would not allow the researcher to reject the second null hypothesis, and it was concluded that there were no significant differences among the means of the academic status scores of the three groups of students even when their school attendance records and self-concept (as a learner) scores were taken into consideration.

Since there were no significant differences among the means of the academic status scores of the three groups of students when the covariates were considered, it was not necessary to test separately the subhypotheses 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 by using the S - method. Therefore, it was possible to proceed to hypothesis number three.

Results of Testing Null Hypothesis Number Three

The third null hypothesis was concerned with the relationship between self-concept (as a learner) scores and academic status scores. The proposition tested in hypothesis number three was as follows:

H_{03} There is no overall statistically significant relationship between self-concept (as a

learner) scores and academic status scores of the students from the three family groups.

The correlation coefficients computed between each group's academic status scores and their self-concept scores are presented in Table 3.6. The self-concept (as a learner) scores of students from Group Two (reconstructed homes) and Group Three (intact homes) were significantly related to their academic status scores ($r = 0.457$; $p < .001$, and $r = 0.543$; $p < .001$).

TABLE 3.6

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS COMPUTED BETWEEN EACH GROUP'S
ACADEMIC STATUS SCORES AND THEIR SELF-CONCEPT SCORES

Groups	Correlation Between the Students' Self-Concept Scores and Their Academic Status Scores
Students From Divorced Homes (N=50) $r = 0.112$
Students From Reconstructed Homes (N=50) $r = 0.457^{**}$
Students From Intact Homes (N=50) $r = 0.543^{**}$
Total Student Population (N=150) $r = 0.383^{**}$

*Significant beyond the .05 level.

**Significant beyond the .001 level.

There was a significant relationship between self-concept (as a learner) scores and academic status scores of the total student population ($r = 0.383$; $p < .001$). The

results presented in Table 3.6 allowed the researcher to reject the third null hypothesis and conclude that there was an overall significant relationship between the total student population's self-concept (as a learner) scores and their academic status scores.

Results of Testing Null
Hypothesis Number Four

The proposition tested in hypothesis number four was as follows:

H_{04} There is no statistically significant difference between the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for Group One (divorced homes) and the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for Group Two (reconstructed homes).

The fourth null hypothesis was tested by comparing the correlation coefficients computed between the two groups' academic status scores and their self-concept (as a learner) scores. The correlations computed for each group are presented in Table 3.7 along with the Z value derived from the comparison made in testing hypothesis number four.

TABLE 3.7

A COMPARISON OF THE RELATIONSHIPS (CORRELATIONS)
OBSERVED BETWEEN GROUP ONE'S (DIVORCED HOMES)
SELF-CONCEPT/ACADEMIC STATUS CORRELATION
AND GROUP TWO'S (RECONSTRUCTED HOMES)
SELF-CONCEPT/ACADEMIC
STATUS CORRELATION

Student Group	Self-Concept/ Academic Status Correlation	Fisher's r to Z_r Transfor- mation	Calculated Z Value	Signif- icance Level
<u>Group One:</u> Students From Divorced Homes	$r=0.112$ ($N=50$)	$Z_r=0.112$	$Z=1.853$	$p=0.0644$
<u>Group Two:</u> Students From Recon- structed Homes	$r=0.457$ ($N=50$)	$Z_r=0.494$		

The results presented in Table 3.7 concerning the fourth hypothesis show that there was not a significant difference between the self-concept/academic status correlation coefficient computed for Group One (divorced homes) and the self-concept/academic status correlation coefficient computed for Group Two (reconstructed homes) ($Z = 1.853$; $p = 0.064$). These results would not allow the researcher to reject the fourth null hypothesis.

Results of Testing Null
Hypothesis Number Five

The proposition tested in hypothesis number five was as follows:

- Ho₅ There is no statistically significant difference between the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for Group One (divorced homes) and the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for Group Three (intact homes).

The fifth null hypothesis was tested by comparing the correlation coefficients computed between the two groups' academic status scores and their self-concept (as a learner) scores. The correlations computed for each group are presented in Table 3.8 along with the Z value derived from the comparison.

TABLE 3.8

A COMPARISON OF THE RELATIONSHIPS (CORRELATIONS)
OBSERVED BETWEEN GROUP ONE'S (DIVORCED HOMES)
SELF-CONCEPT/ACADEMIC STATUS CORRELATION
AND GROUP THREE'S (INTACT HOMES)
SELF-CONCEPT/ACADEMIC
STATUS CORRELATION

Student Group	Self-Concept/ Academic Status Correlation	Fisher's r to Z_r Transformation	Calculated Z Value	Signif- icance Level
<u>Group One:</u> Students From Divorced Homes	$r=0.112$ ($N=50$)	$Z_r=0.112$	$Z=2.401$	$p=0.002$
<u>Gr. Three:</u> Students From Intact Homes	$r=0.543$ ($N=50$)	$Z_r=0.607$		

The results presented in Table 3.8 concerning the fifth hypothesis show that there was a significant difference between the self-concept/academic status correlation coefficient computed for Group One (divorced homes) and the self-concept/academic status correlation coefficient computed for Group Three (intact homes) ($Z = 2.401$; $p = 0.002$). These results allowed the researcher to reject the fifth null hypothesis.

Results of Testing Null
Hypothesis Number Six

The proposition tested in hypothesis number six was as follows:

Ho₆ There is no statistically significant difference between the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for Group Two (reconstructed homes) and the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for Group Three (intact homes).

The sixth hypothesis was tested by comparing the correlation coefficients computed between the two groups' academic status scores and their self-concept (as a learner) scores. The correlations computed for each group are presented in Table 3.9 along with the Z value derived from the comparison.

TABLE 3.9

A COMPARISON OF THE RELATIONSHIPS (CORRELATIONS) OBSERVED
BETWEEN GROUP TWO'S (RECONSTRUCTED HOMES) SELF-CONCEPT/
ACADEMIC STATUS CORRELATION AND GROUP THREE'S
(INTACT HOMES) SELF-CONCEPT/ACADEMIC
STATUS CORRELATION

Student Group	Self-Concept/ Academic Status Correlation	Fisher's r to Z_r Transfor- mation	Calculated Z Value	Signif- icance Level
<u>Group Two:</u> Students From Recon- structed Homes	$r=0.457$ ($N=50$)	$Z_r=.494$	$Z=0.548$	$p=0.589$
<u>Gr. Three:</u> Students From Intact Homes	$r=0.543$ ($N=50$)	$Z_r=.607$		

The results presented in Table 3.9 concerning the sixth hypothesis show that there was not a significant difference between the self-concept/academic status correlation coefficient computed for Group Two (reconstructed homes) and the self-concept/academic status correlation coefficient computed for Group Three (intact homes) ($Z = 0.548$; $p = 0.589$). These results would not allow the researcher to reject the sixth null hypothesis.

Results of Testing Null Hypothesis
Number Seven

The seventh null hypothesis was concerned with the relationship between school attendance and academic status scores. The proposition tested in hypothesis number seven was as follows:

Ho₇ There is no overall statistically significant relationship between school attendance and academic status scores of the students from the three family groups.

The correlation coefficients computed between each group's academic status scores and their self-concept (as a learner) scores are presented in Table 3.10. Students from Group Three (intact homes) had the only significant relationship between academic status scores and school attendance ($r = 0.273$; $p < .05$). The relationship between the total student population's academic status scores and school attendance was not significant ($r = 0.139$; $p > .05$). The result presented in Table 3.10 would not allow the researcher to reject the seventh null hypothesis.

TABLE 3.10

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS COMPUTED BETWEEN
EACH GROUP'S ACADEMIC STATUS SCORES AND
THEIR SCHOOL ATTENDANCE RECORDS

Groups	Correlation Between the Student's School Attendance Records and Their Academic Status Scores
Students From Divorced Homes (N=50) $r = 0.037$
Students From Reconstructed Homes (N=50) $r = 0.131$
Students From Intact Homes (N=50) $r = 0.273^*$
Total Student Population (N=150) $r = 0.139$

*Significant beyond the .05 level.

Results of Testing Null Hypothesis
Number Eight

The proposition tested in hypothesis number eight was as follows:

H₀₈ There is no statistically significant difference between the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for Group One (divorced homes) and the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for Group Two (reconstructed homes).

The eighth null hypothesis was tested by comparing the correlation coefficients computed between the two groups' school attendance records (in days of attendance) and their academic status scores. The correlations computed for each

group are presented in Table 3.11 along with the Z value derived from the comparison made in the calculations.

TABLE 3.11

A COMPARISON OF THE RELATIONSHIPS (CORRELATIONS) OBSERVED BETWEEN GROUP ONE'S (DIVORCED HOMES) ATTENDANCE/ACADEMIC STATUS CORRELATION AND GROUP TWO'S (RECONSTRUCTED HOMES) ATTENDANCE/ACADEMIC STATUS CORRELATION

Student Group	Attendance/ Academic Status Correlation	Fisher's r to Z_r Transfor- mation	Calculated Z Value	Signif- icance Level
<u>Group One:</u> Students From Divorced Homes	$r=0.034$ (N=50)	$Z_r=.034$	$Z=0.477$	$p=0.631$
----- <u>Group Two:</u> Students From Recon- structed Homes	$r=0.131$ (N=50)	$Z_r=.132$		

The results presented in Table 3.11 concerning the eighth hypothesis show that there was not a significant difference between the school attendance/academic status correlation coefficient computed for Group One (divorced homes) and the school attendance/academic status correlation coefficient computed for Group Two (reconstructed Homes) ($Z = 0.477$; $p = 0.631$). These results would not allow the researcher to reject the eighth null hypothesis.

Results of Testing Null
Hypothesis Number Nine

The proposition tested in Hypothesis number nine was as follows:

- Ho₉ There is no statistically significant difference between the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for Group One (divorced homes) and the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for Group Three (intact homes).

The ninth null hypothesis was tested by comparing the correlation coefficients computed between the two groups' school attendance records (in days of attendance) and their academic status scores. The correlations computed for each group are presented in Table 3.12 along with the Z value derived from the comparison made in the calculations.

TABLE 3.12

A COMPARISON OF THE RELATIONSHIPS (CORRELATIONS)
OBSERVED BETWEEN GROUP ONE'S (DIVORCED HOMES)
ATTENDANCE/ACADEMIC STATUS CORRELATION AND
GROUP THREE'S (INTACT HOMES) ATTENDANCE/
ACADEMIC STATUS CORRELATION

Student Group	Attendance/ Academic Status Correlation	Fisher's r to Z _r Transfor- mation	Calculated Z Value	Signif- icance Level
<u>Group One:</u> Students From Recon- structed Homes	r=0.034 (N=50)	Z _r = .034	Z=1.195	p=0.232
<u>Gr. Three:</u> Students From Intact Homes	r=0.273 (N=50)	Z _r = .280		

The results presented in Table 3.12 concerning the ninth hypothesis show that there was not a significant difference between the school attendance/academic status correlation coefficient computed for Group One (divorced homes) and the school attendance/academic status correlation coefficient computed for Group Three (intact homes) ($Z = 1.195$; $p = 0.232$). These results would not allow the researcher to reject the ninth null hypothesis.

Results of Testing Null
Hypothesis Number Ten

The proposition tested in hypothesis number ten was as follows:

H_{010} There is no statistically significant difference between the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for Group Two (reconstructed homes) and the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for Group Three (intact homes).

The tenth null hypothesis was tested by comparing the correlation coefficients computed between the two groups' school attendance records (in days of attendance) and their academic status scores. The correlations computed for each group are presented in Table 3.13 along with the Z value derived from the comparison made in the calculations.

TABLE 3.13

A COMPARISON OF THE RELATIONSHIPS (CORRELATIONS) OBSERVED
 BETWEEN GROUP TWO'S (RECONSTRUCTED HOMES) ATTENDANCE/
 ACADEMIC STATUS CORRELATION AND GROUP THREE'S
 (INTACT HOMES) ATTENDANCE/ACADEMIC
 STATUS CORRELATIONS

Student Group	Attendance/ Academic Status Correlation	Fisher's r to Z_r Transfor- mation	Calculated Z Value	Signif- icance Level
<u>Group Two:</u> Students From Recon- structed Homes	$r=0.131$ ($N=50$)	$Z_r=.132$	$Z=0.717$	$p=0.476$
<u>Gr. Three:</u> Students From Intact Homes	$r=0.273$ ($N=50$)	$Z_r=.280$		

The results presented in Table 3.13 concerning the tenth null hypothesis show that there was not a significant difference between the school attendance/academic status correlation coefficient computed for Group Two (reconstructed homes) and the school attendance/academic status correlation coefficient computed for Group Three (intact homes ($Z = 0.717$; $p = 0.476$)). These results would not allow the researcher to reject the tenth null hypothesis.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The summary, conclusions, and recommendations are presented in this chapter. The findings and conclusions are compared with some of the findings and conclusions of other studies concerned with one or more of the variables of this study, which have been cited in the review of literature.

Summary

The problem examined was as follows: What are the effects of certain types of family structure on the academic status scores of fifth grade students? Specifically, the problem dealt with the effects of divorce and/or divorce and remarriage on the academic status scores of fifth grade students in one midwestern community. Also, there were two subordinate problems as follows: (1) What are the relationships between self-concept (as a learner) scores and academic status scores of the students from the homes involved? and (2) What are the relationships between school attendance records and academic status scores of the students from the homes involved?

Two major hypotheses and six subhypotheses were formulated to test the differences among the means of the academic status scores of students from three different family groups, Group One (divorced homes), Group Two (reconstructed homes), and Group Three (intact homes). Four subordinate hypotheses were formulated to test the relationships between self-concept (as a learner) scores and academic status scores of students from the homes involved. Another four subordinate hypotheses were formulated to test the relationships between school attendance records and academic status scores of students from the homes involved.

The six subhypotheses were developed in case it was necessary to perform a posterior comparisons. As it turned out, the a posterior comparisons were not necessary for the two major hypotheses.

Procedures

The total population for this study consisted of 947 fifth grade students from all eight elementary schools in the Moore School System, Moore, Oklahoma. Each student was classified by membership in one of the three family groups or excluded for not fitting into one of the three family groups. A random sample of fifty students was selected from each of the three subpopulations. The following data were collected on each student from the three groups: achievement test score, grade-point average, daily attendance, and self-concept (as a learner) score.

Statistical analysis of the data collected on the subjects was accomplished through the use of analysis of variance (ANOVA) and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and the z-test for two independent correlations were used in testing the last eight hypotheses.

Summary of Findings

The analyses of data collected for the study resulted in the findings listed below:

1. There were no significant differences among the means of the three family groups on academic status scores ($F = 0.4892$; $df = 2/147$, $p > .05$).
2. There were no significant differences among the means of the three family groups on academic status scores even when school attendance records and self-concept (as a learner) scores were taken into consideration ($F = 0.7502$; $df = 2/145$, $p > .05$).
3. There was an overall significant relationship between self-concept (as a learner) scores and academic status scores of the students from the three family groups ($r = 0.383$; $p < .001$).
4. There was no significant relationship between self-concept (as a learner) scores and academic status scores of students from divorced homes ($r = 0.112$; $p > .05$).
5. There was a significant relationship between self-concept (as a learner) scores and academic status

scores of students from reconstructed homes ($r = 0.457$; $p < .001$).

6. There was a significant relationship between self-concept (as a learner) scores and academic status scores of students from intact homes ($r = 0.534$; $p < .001$).

7. There was no overall significant relationship between school attendance records and academic status scores of students from the three family groups ($r = 0.139$; $p > .05$).

8. There was no significant relationship between school attendance records and academic status scores of students from divorced homes ($r = 0.034$; $p > .05$).

9. There was no significant relationship between school attendance records and academic status scores of students from reconstructed homes ($r = 0.131$; $p > .05$).

10. There was a significant relationship between school attendance records and academic status scores of students from intact homes ($r = 0.273$; $p < .05$).

11. There was no significant difference between the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for Group One (divorced homes) and the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for Group Two (reconstructed homes) ($Z = 1.853$; $p = 0.064$).

12. There was a significant difference between the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for Group One (divorced homes) and the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for Group Three (intact homes) ($Z =$

2.401; $p = 0.002$).

13. There was no significant difference between the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for Group Two (reconstructed homes) and the self-concept/academic status correlation computed for Group Three (intact Homes) ($Z = 0.548$; $p = 0.589$).

14. There was no significant difference between the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for Group One (divorced homes) and the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for Group Two (reconstructed homes) ($Z = 0.477$; $p = 0.631$).

15. There was no significant difference between the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for Group One (divorced homes) and the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for Group Three (intact homes) ($Z = 1.195$; $p = 0.232$).

16. There was no significant difference between the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for Group Two (reconstructed homes) and the school attendance/academic status correlation computed for Group Three (intact homes) ($Z = 0.717$; $p = 0.476$).

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following seemed to be logical conclusions:

1. According to the data, the proposition, that children's academic status scores suffer when their family

structure is changed by their parent's divorce and/or divorce and remarriage, is not entirely credible.

2. Although the children from divorced homes probably experienced disruptions and adjustments because of parental divorce, those experiences did not appear to have produced detrimental effects on their academic status scores.

3. The additional adjustments that children from reconstructed homes probably experienced did not appear to have produced detrimental effects on their academic status scores.

4. Contrary to what several writers have suggested, family structure was not found to be an influential factor in determining children's academic status.

5. Self-concept (as a learner) scores proved to be significantly related to the academic status scores of the total students included in this study.

6. On the other hand, school attendance records were not significantly related to the academic status scores of the total students included in this study.

Supportive Findings and Conclusions From Other Selected Studies

From the following sentence summaries, the stated findings and conclusions appear to be compatible with those of:

Reeder (1955). Elementary school students with a low self-concept achieved lower in comparison to their

potential, than did students with a high self-concept.

Stevens (1956). Positive feelings about the self are associated with good academic achievement at the college level.

Nye (1957). Students from broken homes did not differ significantly with students from unhappy, unbroken homes with respect to adjustment in school.

Lumpkin (1959). There was a significant relationship between self-concept and achievement in reading at the fifth grade level.

Bruck (1959). A positive and significant relationship existed between self-concepts and grade-point averages at both the elementary school and secondary school levels.

Wohl (1962). Achievement test scores of children from the intermediate grades are not related to the number of parents in the home.

Fink (1962). Achievers were rated as far more adequate in their concepts of themselves.

Perry and Pfuhl (1963). There were no significant differences between secondary school students who lived in one-parent homes and students who lived in reconstructed homes on school grades.

Burchinal (1964). There were no significant differences among the means of adolescent students' grade-point averages from unbroken families, those living with mothers only, and students from three types of reconstructed families.

Irvin (1967). A positive correlation ($r = .48$) existed between reported self-concept and academic achievement at the college level.

Bledsoe (1967). There was a significant and positive relationship between achievement and self-concept for males at the elementary school level.

Caplin (1969). There was a positive relationship between self-concept and academic achievement of students from the intermediate grades.

Keller (1969). There was no significant difference in achievement between students from one-parent homes and students from two-parent homes at the elementary school level.

Collins (1970). There were no significant differences in the standardized achievement scores between intact and broken family groups at the fourth, sixth, and eighth grade levels.

Stringer (1973). School attendance had little effect on school achievement at the elementary school level.

Nonsupportive Findings and Conclusions From Other Studies

Findings and conclusions of other studies that tend to be in conflict with those of this study are those of:

Ziegler (1928). School attendance had a positive relationship to school grades at the junior high school level.

Greene (1963). Students who were "best" attenders

earned reliably higher school marks than did the "worst" attenders.

Crescimbeni (1964). There was a significance of difference in academic achievement among students from one-parent homes as compared to students from two-parent homes.

Shelton (1968). There was a significant difference in mean scores of academic grade-point averages between the one-parent and the two-parent groups at the junior high level.

Butcher (1968). Elementary school students self-concepts were not significantly related to their academic achievement.

Williams (1973). The reading achievement of first grade children was not significantly related to their self-concept score.

Recommendations

On the basis of the findings of this study and the review of the related literature, the following recommendations are proposed:

1. Similar studies should be conducted using alternative measures of school achievement. Is it possible that the standardized achievement tests and grade-point averages used to measure achievement in this study and similar studies might be contributing to the inconsistencies of results found among studies?

2. A longitudinal study of the effects of family

structure on academic status should be conducted in order to determine if time erases any differences in academic status that might be caused by a student's parents obtaining a divorce and/or obtaining a divorce and then remarrying.

3. Since this study dealt with a rather homogeneous group of students as to social class, a similar study should be conducted involving students from several social classes and controlling for social status. Is it possible that the impact of parental divorce might be different for students from different social classes?

4. It is recommended that feasible instruments be developed to measure such variables as students' attitudes toward the home and parental values concerning academic achievement. There is evidence in the literature that those variables influence academic achievement.

5. A study with adequate controls should be conducted to determine the relationship between school attendance and academic status at the elementary level.

6. An investigation dealing with the contacts children from divorced and reconstructed homes make with school guidance personnel would be helpful for further study of the effects of family structure on students.

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APPENDIX A

FLORIDA KEY

This scale is to assist the teacher in evaluating how the student perceives his or her "learner" self. Please select one of the following answers and record the number in the blank space.

VERY ONCE IN FAIRLY VERY
 NEVER: 0 SELDOM: 1 AWHILE: 2 OCCASIONALLY: 3 OFTEN: 4 OFTEN: 5

Name of student to be evaluated

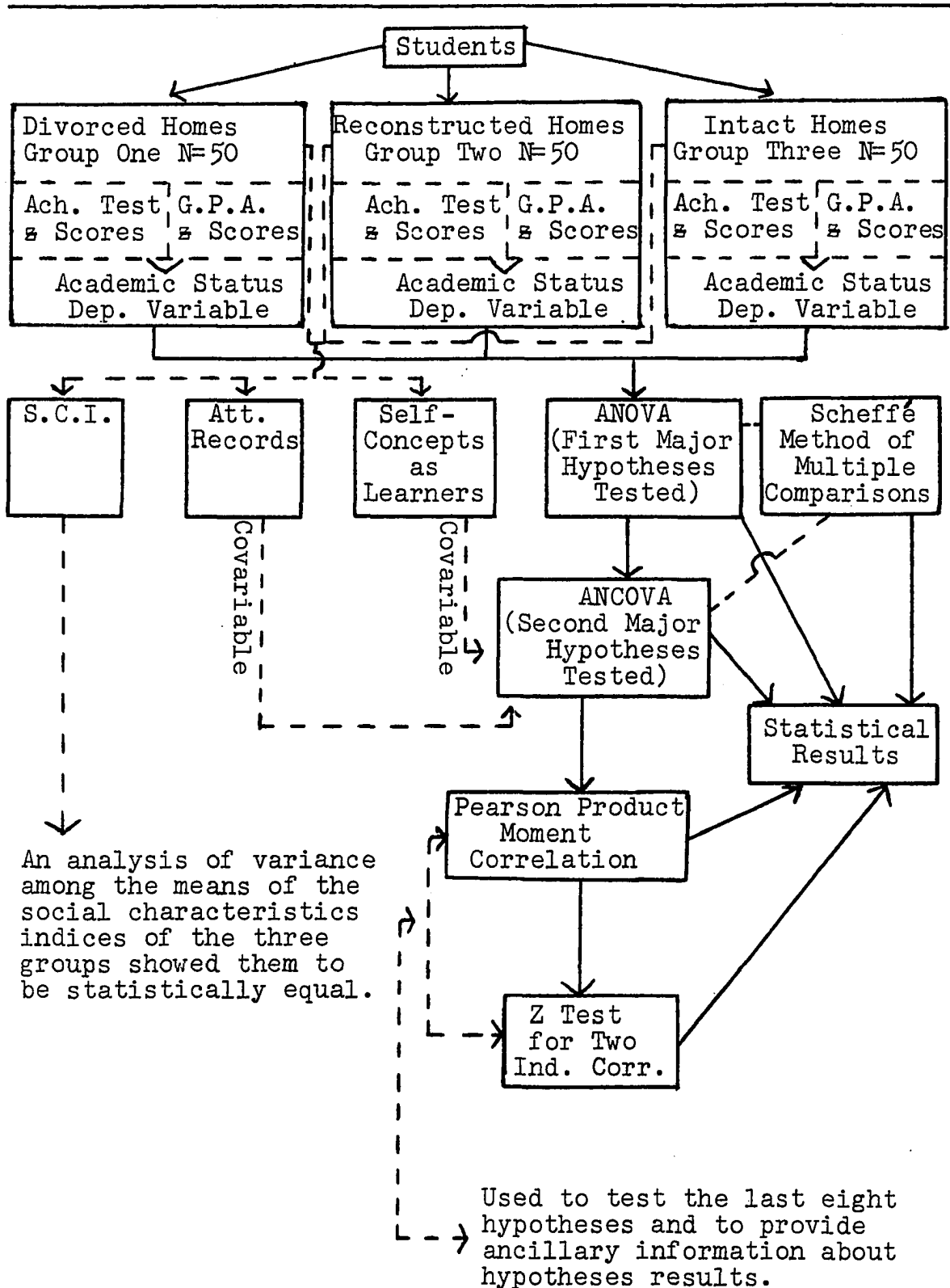
Compared with other students his age, does this student:

1. get along with other students? _____
2. get along with the teachers? _____
3. keep calm when things go wrong? _____
4. say good things about his school? _____
5. tell the truth about his school work? _____
6. speak up for his own ideas? _____
7. offer to speak in front of the class? _____
8. offer to answer questions in class? _____
9. ask meaningful questions in class? _____
10. look people in the eye? _____
11. talk to others about his school work? _____
12. join in school activities? _____
13. seek out new things to do in school on his own? _____
14. offer to do extra work in school? _____
15. finish his school work? _____
16. pay attention to class activities? _____
17. do his school work carefully? _____
18. read in class? _____

TOTAL SCORE: _____

APPENDIX B

FLOW CHART OF ANALYSIS PROCEDURE



APPENDIX C

RAW DATA: GROUP ONE (DIVORCED HOMES)

Student Number	Attend. Record	Self-Con. Score	Ach. Test Percentile	Grade Point Average	S.C.I.
1.	164.5	59	70.75	3.4	44
2.	169.0	43	36.00	3.4	57
3.	162.0	31	31.00	2.8	48
4.	160.0	50	27.75	2.2	52
5.	170.0	54	28.50	2.6	48
6.	172.0	77	33.75	3.0	48
7.	163.0	32	12.25	0.6	48
8.	166.0	68	61.75	2.6	48
9.	174.0	46	6.50	2.0	60
10.	132.0	47	38.00	2.4	53
11.	172.0	64	4.75	2.6	50
12.	168.0	81	89.25	3.4	55
13.	167.0	45	38.50	1.4	48
14.	173.0	67	13.50	1.6	48
15.	171.0	70	27.50	3.2	49
16.	161.0	63	73.50	2.8	55
17.	171.0	47	16.25	1.2	48
18.	150.0	66	29.50	1.4	48
19.	169.0	56	36.50	2.2	48
20.	174.0	81	90.50	3.4	48
21.	163.0	19	18.25	1.4	60
22.	173.0	78	45.50	3.0	64
23.	173.5	40	26.50	1.8	69

Student Number	Attend. Record	Self-Con. Score	Ach. Test Percentile	Grade Point Average	S.C.I.
24.	174.0	27	22.00	1.4	55
25.	170.0	31	22.00	1.4	48
26.	171.0	31	12.50	1.0	48
27.	173.0	67	85.50	3.2	30
28.	172.0	61	30.00	2.4	66
29.	174.0	50	86.25	2.6	44
30.	147.0	60	50.00	2.4	69
31.	173.0	72	87.50	3.0	48
32.	158.0	56	51.50	1.8	46
33.	169.0	83	32.00	2.6	30
34.	172.0	68	68.00	3.0	44
35.	165.0	34	20.75	2.4	48
36.	174.0	89	55.00	3.6	44
37.	170.0	17	10.75	1.6	55
38.	175.0	76	20.00	2.0	44
39.	172.0	63	77.25	3.2	44
40.	174.0	65	24.75	3.0	48
41.	160.0	90	47.50	3.0	48
42.	173.0	90	51.00	3.6	48
43.	156.0	69	49.00	2.6	48
44.	174.0	63	28.50	2.2	48
45.	172.0	64	69.25	3.2	39
46.	172.0	41	23.50	1.0	48

Student Number	Attend. Record	Self-Con. Score	Ach. Test Percentile	Grade Point Average	S.C.I.
47.	169.0	55	50.50	2.4	39
48.	173.0	57	33.50	2.4	39
49.	171.0	55	13.75	2.2	48
50.	174.0	33	27.50	1.6	39

RAW DATA: GROUP TWO (RECONSTRUCTED HOMES)

Student Number	Attend. Record	Self-Con. Score	Ach. Test Percentile	Grade Point Average	S.C.I.
1.	167.0	69	72.75	3.2	48
2.	174.0	70	42.00	3.4	48
3.	160.0	70	19.50	0.8	48
4.	171.0	67	55.00	2.2	44
5.	173.0	53	24.00	1.8	44
6.	175.0	64	16.25	1.4	48
7.	175.0	67	13.50	2.0	55
8.	160.0	63	13.50	2.0	48
9.	166.0	69	20.25	2.0	52
10.	172.0	69	58.50	3.0	52
11.	172.0	62	17.50	2.4	45
12.	168.0	82	72.50	3.6	48
13.	176.0	43	50.00	2.8	48
14.	168.0	80	12.00	2.8	52
15.	164.0	43	92.50	3.0	55
16.	169.0	65	63.00	2.8	48
17.	172.0	79	66.50	3.2	48
18.	171.0	39	29.00	1.0	55
19.	168.0	77	31.50	3.4	55
20.	168.0	65	17.50	2.0	55
21.	170.0	52	13.50	2.8	55
22.	174.0	49	19.50	2.4	55
23.	175.0	39	1.25	1.2	48

Student Number	Attend. Record	Self-Con. Score	Ach. Test Percentile	Grade Point Average	S.C.I.
24.	164.0	40	56.00	2.0	48
25.	155.0	54	65.50	2.0	48
26.	171.0	28	45.50	1.2	44
27.	170.0	69	45.00	1.8	32
28.	170.0	24	70.50	2.0	48
29.	171.0	58	50.50	2.0	41
30.	147.0	28	38.00	1.4	48
31.	172.0	58	14.00	1.4	48
32.	175.0	36	14.50	1.8	48
33.	174.0	53	40.50	2.0	64
34.	175.0	68	32.00	1.6	55
35.	172.0	59	6.75	1.2	44
36.	167.0	66	38.50	1.8	52
37.	154.0	59	40.00	2.6	48
38.	133.0	58	27.00	1.4	48
39.	171.0	90	90.75	4.0	48
40.	171.0	43	18.25	2.0	55
41.	175.0	78	68.00	3.8	55
42.	169.0	70	48.50	3.0	48
43.	167.0	31	14.50	2.0	55
44.	163.0	36	13.25	2.0	55
45.	176.0	62	27.25	1.6	55
46.	169.0	57	23.25	2.2	55

Student Number	Attend. Record	Self-Con. Score	Ach. Test Percentile	Grade Point Average	S.C.I.
47.	173.0	44	15.25	2.6	49
48.	175.0	65	66.50	2.8	48
49.	170.0	50	7.50	2.0	48
50.	151.0	42	2.75	1.6	48

RAW DATA: GROUP THREE (INTACT HOMES)

Student Number	Attend. Record	Self-Con. Score	Ach. Test Percentile	Grade Point Average	S.C.I.
1.	169.0	66	30.00	2.0	32
2.	173.0	61	90.00	4.0	48
3.	172.0	78	72.50	3.2	44
4.	173.0	52	4.00	1.2	44
5.	170.0	70	37.00	2.2	44
6.	173.0	51	27.00	2.2	48
7.	174.0	82	57.50	3.0	48
8.	163.0	56	14.75	2.0	48
9.	165.0	38	11.00	1.6	52
10.	171.0	69	32.00	2.4	60
11.	176.0	66	37.00	2.0	60
12.	168.0	19	7.00	0.8	55
13.	169.0	52	20.25	1.0	48
14.	162.0	50	38.00	1.8	55
15.	173.0	55	38.00	2.4	55
16.	173.0	60	77.25	2.6	55
17.	171.0	67	46.50	3.0	48
18.	163.0	79	52.00	3.0	48
19.	152.0	65	7.75	0.8	55
20.	166.0	75	17.75	2.0	45
21.	169.0	69	30.00	3.4	45
22.	166.0	39	16.75	2.0	44
23.	174.0	55	27.00	1.4	40

Student Number	Attend. Record	Self-Con. Score	Ach. Test Percentile	Grade Point Average	S.C.I.
24.	168.0	65	90.50	3.4	44
25.	172.5	64	44.25	1.8	37
26.	169.0	85	70.00	3.8	39
27.	157.0	50	49.50	2.0	48
28.	164.5	48	20.00	1.6	48
29.	169.0	43	35.50	2.2	55
30.	170.0	73	78.25	3.0	48
31.	174.0	56	36.00	2.4	48
32.	166.0	43	11.25	1.0	48
33.	147.0	25	12.75	1.0	60
34.	173.0	49	40.50	2.0	44
35.	170.0	88	97.00	4.0	48
36.	166.0	65	14.50	1.6	48
37.	172.5	41	45.00	1.8	64
38.	174.0	55	25.00	1.8	48
39.	175.0	63	73.50	3.4	44
40.	172.0	62	63.50	2.8	60
41.	174.0	52	27.50	1.8	60
42.	170.0	67	52.00	2.2	40
43.	168.5	65	11.75	1.2	74
44.	169.0	78	31.00	2.6	48
45.	175.0	62	58.00	3.0	48
46.	174.0	69	62.00	3.0	48

Student Number	Attend. Record	Self-Con. Score	Ach. Test Percentile	Grade Point Average	S.C.I.
47.	159.0	60	65.50	2.0	48
48.	173.0	47	5.00	1.2	48
49.	172.0	74	82.00	3.4	36
50.	175.0	68	73.00	3.8	44