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ATTITUDES AND READING ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENTS IN AN  
INNOVATIVE HIGH SCHOOL

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ATTITUDES AND READING ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENTS

IN AN INNOVATIVE HIGH SCHOOL

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ATTITUDES AND READING ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENTS  
IN AN INNOVATIVE HIGH SCHOOL

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ATTITUDES AND READING ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENTS  
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Educators have been concerned that educational programs meet individual developmental needs of students. The identification of needs varies among schools of educational thought but the purposes are similar. Maslow<sup>1</sup> theorized that individual needs surface in a hierarchical manner. He emphasized that basic needs of physical well-being must be met before needs of social acceptance or self-actualization can occur. As one need is met another arises. Individuals have different needs at different times, therefore movement among the hierarchy occurs.

Havighurst<sup>2</sup> viewed needs in a developmental manner. He theorized that individuals must: adjust to agemates, achieve independence from parents and family, select and

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<sup>1</sup>Abraham H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality, (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1970), 36-38.

<sup>2</sup>Robert J. Havighurst, "Characteristics, Interests, and Needs of Pupils that Aid in Defining the Nature and Scope of the Reading Program," Adjusting Reading Programs to Individuals, No. 52 (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941), pp. 53-59.



prepare for an occupation, achieve social loyalty, and develop the self.

Apparently, it seems that when needs are met a person tends to be well-adjusted; conversely, when needs are not met, a person tends to be maladjusted. Literature suggests a strong relationship between emotional adjustment and achievement in school. McClusky<sup>3</sup> stated: "Evidence is accumulating in support of the thesis that the learning of any subject must be viewed in terms of the total personality of the learner." Impressive confirmation of this point is contained in studies of reading difficulties. Russell<sup>4</sup> and Monroe<sup>5</sup> have determined that students with reading problems usually display some degree of an emotional problem. Other studies indicated that reading difficulties and emotional problems are related and that development of positive personality factors are of utmost importance to the success of achieving reading competency.

During the years of the 1960s many in-depth reports of the personality and its effect on reading appeared. Upon

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<sup>3</sup>Howard Y. McClusky, "Mental Health in Schools and Colleges," Review of Educational Research 19 (December 1949): 405-412.

<sup>4</sup>David Russell, "Reading Disabilities and Mental Health," Understanding the Child 19 (January 1947):24-32.

5. Marion Monroe, "Diagnosis and Treatment of Reading Disabilities," Educational Diagnosis, in 34th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1935), pp. 201-228.

examination of this literature it appears that different personality characteristics appear among good and poor readers. It appears that good readers commonly experience good self-concept, a close relationship between real and ideal self, praise from teachers, acceptance from parents, motivation and achievement. In contrast, poor readers commonly tend to experience a poor self-concept, a lack of cohesion between real and ideal self, feelings of discouragement, inadequacy and nervousness, little praise from teachers, non-acceptance from parents, and lack of motivation and non-achievement.

During the past decade a different type of school has appeared in the United States. This school is the alternative school. The alternative school has several principles that are basic to its educational philosophy: flexibility, nonauthoritarianism, community life, free and functional learning, innovative teaching methods, open door policy, and student evaluation by teacher and student, co-jointly.<sup>6</sup> They also emphasize "humanistic" goals. These goals involve individualizing the curriculum, employing intrinsic motivation, fostering cooperative learning in the classroom, promoting personal interactions between teacher and student,

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<sup>6</sup>W. Brendan Reddy, Daniel Langmeyer, and Paule A. Steichen Asch, "Self-Concept, School Self-Image, Satisfaction, and Envolvement in an Alternative School," Psychology in the Schools 15 (January 1978):68-71.

transforming the role of teacher to that of a resource person, and using play in learning.<sup>7</sup>

One of the purposes of the educational philosophy and humanistic goals of the alternative school is to foster positive attitudes toward self and society. This ultimately allows for greater academic achievement.

Based on the hypothesis that positive emotional and personality factors foster academic achievement, the concern of this study arises from the existence of a school that has as a major concern the development of positive attitudes for the students. Additionally, if the hypothesis is accepted, the organization of similar schools will bring about greater academic achievement.

The need for this study is the investigation of whether or not students attending an alternative school experience a positive change of attitude and if this change can be seen in progress in reading achievement.

#### Statement of the Problem

The problem was to determine whether statistically significant differences and relationships existed between mean raw scores in reading achievement of students in an alternative high school who reflected positive or negative attitudes toward school, self or others.

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<sup>7</sup>David E. Groobman, John R. Forward, and Christopher Peterson, "Attitudes, Self-Esteem, and Learning in Formal and Informal Schools," Journal of Educational Psychology 68 (February 1976):32-35.

### Purpose of the Study

If it should occur that any or all of the attitude measures have a relationship to reading achievement, those concerned with the teaching of reading should be aware of it. Concern for exploring a student's attitude could become an important factor in diagnosing and prescribing programs for disabled readers. It could affect the environment of a reading laboratory as well as the manner in which teachers work with students. If the whole child is to be considered and dealt with effectively, the influence attitudes have on reading achievement must be determined.

### Hypotheses

Ho<sub>1</sub> There are no statistically significant differences in mean raw scores on attitude toward school, self, or others on the pre and posttests for males and females.

Ho<sub>2</sub> There are no statistically significant differences in mean raw scores in reading vocabulary and reading comprehension on pre and posttests for males and females.

Ho<sub>3</sub> There are no statistically significant relationships between attitude toward school, self, and others and reading vocabulary and reading comprehension on pre and posttests for males and females.

### Limitations of the Study

1. This study was limited to students who attend Central Innovative High School.

2. The measuring instruments were limited to the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Survey F, Forms 1 and 2, and the Oklahoma Scales.

3. The subjects were limited to those who had attended the school for one school year.

#### Assumptions of the Study

1. Attitude towards school, self, and others can be measured by an attitude scale.

2. The Oklahoma Scales provide scores that are valid and reliable measures of attitude toward school, self, and others.

3. The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Survey F, Forms 1 and 2 provides valid and reliable measures of vocabulary and comprehension.

4. Central Innovative High School is representative of an alternative high school.

#### Definitions of the Study

1. Attitude: The tendency to react specifically towards an object, situation or value, usually accompanied by feelings and emotions; attitudes cannot be directly observed but must be inferred from overt behavior, both verbal and non-verbal.<sup>8</sup> The Oklahoma Scales<sup>9</sup> measure three components

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<sup>8</sup> Carter V. Good, Dictionary of Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1973).

<sup>9</sup> Oklahoma State Department of Education, A Manual for the Oklahoma Scales, rev. ed. (Oklahoma City: Oklahoma State Department of Education, 1975), pp. 1-7.

of attitude: attitude towards school, attitude towards self, and attitude towards others. The school component measures the value held of school and motivation to succeed. The self component measures self-acceptance. The others component measures feelings of being accepted by others, social confidence, and interpersonal effectiveness.

2. Alternative High School: A school that provides students a method of education that is different from more traditional education. Differences occur in the areas of curriculum innovation, methods of teaching, scheduling and student involvement in learning programs.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Characteristics of Good and Poor Readers

Havighurst states:<sup>1</sup>

When the body is ripe, and society requires, and the self is ready to achieve a certain task, the teachable moment has come.

In order for learning to be efficient, timing of the learning task should parallel personal development.

Educational theorists have identified specific orders for stages of development through which a person must move in order to accomplish academic and personal gratification. Erickson,<sup>2</sup> in his "Eight Stages of Psychosocial Development" purports that each stage is contiguous to a "critical period." That is, each stage is bound by time. As the time for development passes, the characteristics specific to a given stage must be accommodated or an inefficiency will remain in the personality. Some societies have created a critical period for learning to read.<sup>3</sup> If students have not

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<sup>1</sup>Robert J. Havighurst, Human Development and Education, (New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1953).

<sup>2</sup>John J. Conger, Adolescence and Youth, 2nd ed. (New York: Harper and Row, 1977), 22.

<sup>3</sup>John Downing, "How Society Creates Reading Disability," The Elementary School Journal 77 (March 1977):274-279.

shown achievement in reading during this period, they are labeled as failures or disabled and are on the way to remedial reading classes.

The Comparative Reading Project<sup>4</sup> revealed that some countries placed more emphasis on learning to read than other countries. Fourteen countries were studied for emphasis placed on reading development. The U.S.A. placed learning to read as the highest priority, with the critical period for initial achievement ranging from age six to seven. If a student did not progress satisfactorily through this critical period, the brand of "failure" or "reading disabled" was likely to appear. At that point, pressures from teachers and parents began to be felt and the student began to feel a sense of failure and anxiety. Consequences of such early nonachievement in reading have been seen in remedial reading classes. Often the students found there are inhibited by emotional maladjustments and social inadequacies.

Unlike the U.S.A., it was found that countries such as Denmark, Norway, and Sweden began the schooling process at a later age and had a strong readiness policy that included a relaxed and cautious approach to the reading process. Highest priority in these countries was given to providing successful experiences to students because the overriding concern was personality development and mental health of the student.

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<sup>4</sup>John Downing, Comparative Reading (New York: Macmillan, 1973).



Teaching efforts give gratifying results when they come at the right moment. Otherwise a negative, wasted effort can occur. The best time to teach a child to read can be discovered by studying human development and finding out when conditions are most favorable to learning this task.<sup>5</sup> Success will be apparent.

The role society assigns today's schools has become more encompassing. The provision of services once reserved for the family and other outside agencies is now a task of the school. It is not uncommon to find hot lunch programs, curriculum designed to instruct in family planning, food preparation, sewing, wood and metal work and driver education. With these added responsibilities, schools are still held accountable for basic educational skills and are designated the primary agent for developing reading competency.

There is much concern voiced by society regarding dissatisfaction with reading abilities of students graduating from the high schools it supports. However, this concern is not new to those persons who are involved in the reading field. The literature reveals that educators, reading specialists, psychologists and others have been investigating causes of reading success and failure for some time. Analyses have been made of many variables. Family background, socio-economic status, methods of instruction, intellectual ability,

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<sup>5</sup>Havighurst, Human Development.

reading readiness, and personality aspects appear to contribute to the success or failure of reading acquisition. Literature suggested that consideration for disabled readers cannot be successful without consideration of personality structure. Likewise, the relationship of personality structure to reading success was of central importance when the whole child was considered.

Early studies of reading achievement indicated a relationship between personality factors and reading achievement. Robinson,<sup>6</sup> in a study of twenty-two children severely retarded in reading, found the degree of reading retardation to be paralleled by the severity of personality aberrations.

Chronister<sup>7</sup> reported a study designed to determine the relationship of certain personality variables to reading achievement. The subjects for this study consisted of 167 fifth grade students. Subjects were administered instruments selected to measure reading comprehension and personality variables. Findings revealed that the measured personality variables had a positive but slight relation to reading comprehension. For males, the personality variables most related to achievement in reading comprehension were lack of withdrawal tendencies and positive community relations. For

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<sup>6</sup>Helen M. Robinson, Why Pupils Fail in Reading (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946).

<sup>7</sup>Glenn M. Chronister, "Personality and Reading Achievement," The Elementary School Journal 64 (February 1964): 253-260.

achieving females, the significant variables were friendliness and integrity. The variable of cooperation was common to both genders.

Gann,<sup>8</sup> in a study of superior, average and poor readers, concluded that poor readers tended to be less emotionally well adjusted. They felt insecure and fearful when presented with a challenging situation, and were less socially adaptable.

A study by Bazemore and Gwaltney<sup>9</sup> tested the hypothesis that no specific personality factor, of the fourteen measured by the Children's Personality Questionnaire, would significantly discriminate between disabled and nondisabled readers. Results revealed that nondisabled readers scored significantly higher on the "expedient-conscientious" and "tough-minded-tender-minded" factors. That is, good readers were more persevering, staid, rule-bound, dependent, over-protected, sensitive and had stronger ego strength than did disabled readers.

The literature related to personality characteristics and reading achievement has also addressed the relationship of attitude and achievement. In order to investigate personality characteristics and attitudes toward achievement of

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<sup>8</sup>Edith Gann, Reading Difficulty and Personality Organization (New York: King's Crown Press, 1945).

<sup>9</sup>Judith S. Bazemore and Wayne K. Gwaltney, "Personality and Reading Achievement: The Use of Certain Personality Factors as Discriminatory," California Journal of Educational Research 24 (May 1973):114-118.

good and poor readers, Zimmerman and Allebrand<sup>10</sup> conducted a study of 71 poor readers and 82 good readers. The subjects were of middle to lower socioeconomic status, and were equally drawn from fourth and fifth grade classes of an urban school district. The mean I.Q. of the poor readers was 102 while that of the good readers was 105. Both groups were administered the California Test of Personality, as a measure of personal and social adjustment. As a measure of attitude towards achievement, the Thematic Apperception Test was used. Reading levels were determined prior to this study. Those classified as poor readers were reading two or more years below grade level. Results of the study indicated that poor readers characterized themselves as being nervous, having limited personal freedom, being isolated and possessing minimal social skills. Good readers characterized themselves quite favorably. They stressed personal worth, self-worth, and absence of withdrawal tendencies. They also stressed feelings of belonging, good school relations and absence of nervous symptoms.

The attitudes toward achievement of good readers were most frequently composed of goals such as effort, practice, study, and long term plans. The attitudes toward achievement of poor readers did not stress effort and were less inclined

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<sup>10</sup>Irla Lee Zimmerman and George N. Allebrand, "Personality Characteristics of Good and Poor Readers," The Journal of Educational Research 59 (September 1965):28-30.

to accept a task. Evidence of long-term plans were frequently absent among the attitudes of poor readers.

### Correlates of Attitude Formation

#### Self-concept

Attitudes can be interpreted in terms of the development of the entire personality. They have an effect on present and future behavior and learning. During the early years of interaction with the environment, personal attitudes develop. These attitudes are derived from the identification of self and the relationship with the family. Later, attitudes are affected by an expanded environment that includes peer groups and school experiences. Mattocks<sup>11</sup> believed that attitudes are interwoven with what a person thinks, remembers, and perceives. Consequently, attitudes contribute to behavior and learning.

Theorists have viewed the development of self-concept as a central component of attitude formation. Hamacheck<sup>12</sup> maintained:

In the development of the self-image, the first year of life is the most important, each succeeding year becoming of lesser importance, until the image is essentially completed before adolescence. This is not due to the fact that the earliest period of life is the most plastic or the most impressionable, but rather to the fact that

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<sup>11</sup>Arthur L. Mattocks and Charles C. Jew, "The Teachers Role in the Development of a Healthy Self-Concept in Pupils," Education 94 (Winter 1976):279-281.

<sup>12</sup>D. C. Hamachek, The Self in Growth, Teaching and Learning (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1965), 1:2.

the helplessness and dependency of the child are maximum in the earliest period, and therefore, his necessity is so much greater.

The individuals self-attitudes are thus built and reflect the amount of love, acceptance, and confidence shown by the family and significant others.

Although the self is developed at the age of adolescence, continued building and rebuilding of attitudes toward self-concept occur to some extent throughout life. The greater the sense of self-sufficiency, the more the self-image ascends. Conversely, the greater the sense of helplessness, the more the self-image descends. Once the basic attitude of self is formed, the individual moves through life behaving in ways that evoke responses or treatment that meet the self needs. These responses and treatments are comfortable because they reinforce the view of self. Hamacheck contended that when the psychological self-image has been formed, behavior became compulsive.<sup>13</sup>

According to Leaky,<sup>14</sup> when children's parents do not view them as bright, they also see themselves as incapable of learning. This concept is held when they come to school. In school, such a child may appear to be free to learn new things, to follow curiosity or explore. In reality, freedom is not felt. Restraint is felt. Restraint is caused by the

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<sup>13</sup>Ibid.

<sup>14</sup>P. Leaky, Self-consistency: A Theory of Personality (New York: Island Press, 1945), 235.

picture of an incapable self. One must be faithful to this picture or be threatened by the loss of self.

Literature addresses the mechanisms children develop in order to protect the unhealthy self-image. Jersild commented:<sup>15</sup>

When a person resists learning that may be beneficial to him, he is, in effect, trying to protect or to shield an unhealthy condition. More broadly speaking, he is not actually protecting something unhealthy as such; he is trying to safeguard his picture of himself, his self-concept, the illusions concerning himself which he has built and which give him much trouble.

Silverter and Kunet<sup>16</sup> investigated why reading disabled children did not see themselves as potential learners. They found that if a child's curiosity had been traumatically inhibited, anxiety became associated with curiosity. If curiosity had been overindulged, the child became disorganized and again learning was adversely affected by anxiety. They concluded that a reading disability became a defense against anxiety that may have been aroused by curiosity. Further, that in order to learn to read, a child must have preserved enough courage for active curiosity.

According to Leaky,<sup>17</sup> theories of defense mechanisms help define the problem of self-concept and present the dilemma of a low achieving child:

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<sup>15</sup>A. T. Jersild, In Search of Self (New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1952), 114.

<sup>16</sup>E. Silverter and M. Kunet, "Psycho-dynamic Aspects of the Reading Problem," Journal of Orthopsychiatry 13 (1963):69-76.

<sup>17</sup>Leaky, Self-consistency, 254.

It is a picture of a child who sees himself as helpless and perhaps worthless. He sees himself, not as able to achieve or act constructively for his own enjoyment or benefit, but as having to be on the defensive in order to maintain integrity. He may simulate indifference or coldness: he may fight blindly and hopelessly, dig in his heels stubbornly, or withdraw into daydreams or unreachable passivity. While he may see himself as threatened and helpless, in the area of academic achievement, he can be the winner. No one can make him learn anything.

Levy<sup>18</sup> purported that an individual may view a town, a church or a school as perceived extensions of the self-concept. However, this behavior has been learned and can be modified. Individuals who have learned to view themselves as incapable are harnessed to this view. Some significant person in their lives can help them see themselves as worthwhile and capable.

Research studies have been directed toward the relationship between self-concept and achievement. Bodwin<sup>19</sup> studied the relationship of self-concept and reading achievement for 300 elementary students. He found correlations to be .72 at the third grade level and .62 for the sixth grade.

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<sup>18</sup>L. H. Levy, "The Meaning and Generality of Perceived Actual-Ideal Discrepancies," Journal of Consulting Psychology 20 (October 1956):396-398.

<sup>19</sup>F. B. Bodwin, "The Relationship Between Immature Self-concept and Certain Educational Disabilities" (Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1957).



The Coleman Report<sup>20</sup> described three expressions of student attitude and self-motivation in relationship to achievement. The expressions were: 1) students interest in school; 2) the students self-concept; 3) the students sense of control of environment. These three variables accounted for more variance in achievement than all the family background or school related variables together.

Karmos,<sup>21</sup> in a study involving 42 sixth grade students, further tested the Coleman Study. He found that the low reading group reflected a lower image of self than the high reading group.

Coopersmith and Fink<sup>22</sup> have obtained positive relationships between the self-concept and achievement. Bruck, Bodwin and Walsh<sup>23</sup> have hypothesized that lack of self-esteem may be a sufficient determiner of underachievement.

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<sup>20</sup>J. S. Coleman et al., Equality of Educational Opportunity (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966), p. 219-323.

<sup>21</sup>A. H. Karmos, "School Achievement and The Self-concept" (Carbondale, Ill.: Department of Curriculum, Instruction, and Media, 1975).

<sup>22</sup>Stanley Coopersmith, "A Method for Determining Types of Self-Esteem," Journal of Educational Psychology 59 (February 1959):87-94; and F. B. Fink, "Self-concept as it Relates to Academic Under-Achievement," California Journal of Educational Research 13 (March 1962):57-62.

<sup>23</sup>M. Bruck and R. F. Bodwin, "The Relationship Between Self-concept and the Presence and Absence of Scholastic Underachievement," Journal of Clinical Psychology 18 (April 1962): 181-182; and A. M. Walsh, Self-Concepts of Bright Boys With Learning Difficulties (New York: Bureau of Publications, 1956).

Generally, literature suggested a small positive relationship between self-concept and achievement across grade levels. The relationship appeared to diminish as students reached older ages. Wattenberg and Clifford<sup>24</sup> found that self-concept measures were positively correlated with reading readiness for kindergarten students. Pruneda's<sup>25</sup> research indicated a positive correlation between self-concept and achievement at grades six and eight but no relationship between the two factors at grade ten.

In an investigation by Calsyn<sup>26</sup> it was revealed that achievement appeared to be predominant over self-concept. He suggested that higher achievement led to a higher self-concept rather than visa versa.

Results of research concerning self-concept and achievement at various grade levels have shown mixed results. Generally, it suggested a small positive relationship between the two variables.

#### Family Membership

The impact environment has on personal development has long been established. Research relating environment to

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<sup>24</sup>W. W. Wattenberg and C. Clifford, "Relation of Self-concepts to Beginning Achievement in Reading," Child Development 35 (June 1964):260-467.

<sup>25</sup>M. C. Pruneda, "Acculturation, Self-concept and Achievement of Mexican-American Students" (Ph.D. dissertation, East Texas State University, 1973).

<sup>26</sup>R. J. Calsyn, "The Causal Relationship Between Self-esteem, a Locus of Control, and Achievement: Cross-lagged Panel Analysis" (Ph.D. dissertation, Northwestern University, 1973).

attitude development and achievement is extensive. Particular concern was paid to the formation of attitudes and to levels of achievement which resulted from membership in families and peer groups. Ringness<sup>27</sup> believed that the family provided the primary sources of identification; and, that through the internalization of family modeling, attitudes and values form. Coleman's<sup>28</sup> study suggested that throughout the school years, family background was the single most important factor in determining student achievement.

Typically, literature refers to home background in two ways. The first is concerned with the status of the family. Here, concern is directed towards the socioeconomic level of the family, the occupations of the parents, the educational level of the parents, and potential resources for educational support. The second is concerned with the interaction process between parents and children. That is: how parents interact with their children to encourage and stimulate positive attitudes toward educational development.

Kifer<sup>29</sup> explains the interaction process as being composed of three conceptual dimensions of the home environment.

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<sup>27</sup>Thomas A. Ringness, The Affective Domain in Education (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1975), 84.

<sup>28</sup>James S. Coleman, The Adolescent Society (New York: Free Press, 1961).

<sup>29</sup>Edward Kifer, "A Cross-Cultural Study of the Impact of Home Environment Variables on Academic Achievement and Affective Traits," paper prepared for the annual AERA meeting, New York City, 8 April 1977.

The first dimension is the verbal environment. This environment includes such activities as: talking ubiquitously to infants, reading to children, and encouraging children to express themselves both in speech and writing. In homes that expect accurate communication of children, abilities tend to develop which give them increased power to comprehend what is expected of them in school. Children with a mature verbal facility tend to be more successful in academic tasks.

The second dimension includes activities in the home which are congruent with the expectations and demands of the school. Examples of this dimension include providing a time and place for students to complete homework, working with a child when he or she is faced with a difficult school task, and taking interest in what a child is doing in school. Through a variety of these types of interactions, the child learns not only that what happens in school is important, but also is given active support for task completion.

The third dimension is the general cultural level of the home. Homes which emphasize reading, discussions, attending cultural activities, museums and zoos, provide an environment in which students' attitudes increase the probability of success in a school setting.

These dimensions of the interacting process stimulate intellectual and social development. They also provide experiences which enhance a child's skills, knowledge and attitudes. This increases the probability that the child will function successfully in a school setting.

Educators can do nothing to enhance the status position of the family. It is the process variable that is of prime interest to those concerned with education.

If parents have a negative attitude towards education, schools will have the task of convincing the student that education is important. The relationship between a negative interaction process in the home and difficulty in learning is supported by research.

Morrow and Wilson<sup>30</sup> examined the family attitudes of high and low achieving high school males. They found that high achievers held more positive attitudes toward their home and parents. Findings also revealed that high achievers viewed their parents as approving and trusting. Conclusions of the study suggested that supportive family relations contribute to achievement by promoting positive attitudes toward teachers, schools, and intellectual activities.

Barwick and Arbuckle<sup>31</sup> further substantiated the importance of parental acceptance and student achievement. They concluded that for high achieving males, acceptance of the father seemed more important than acceptance from the mother. Females at all achievement levels perceived mothers

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<sup>30</sup>William R. Morrow and Robert C. Wilson, "Family Relations of Bright High-achieving and Under-achieving High School Males," Child Development 32 (September 1961):501-510.

<sup>31</sup>Janice M. Barwick and Dugald S. Arbuckle, "A Study of the Relationship Between Parental Acceptance and the Academic Achievement of Adolescents," Journal of Educational Research 56 (November 1962):148-151.

as more accepting than fathers. Increased acceptance by both parents was associated with heightened achievement.

Kifer,<sup>32</sup> in a study of 10 and 14 year old students from 14 different countries, found that positive relationships between process variables, achievement, and affective traits tend to increase slightly with age. He concluded that the home is not only the nucleus for activities which increase the probability for achievement but also the center in which positive school related attitudes are formed.

Since we know that the home has a powerful influence on the attitudes and achievement of its children in school, it appears that both home and school have a shared responsibility for providing optimal environments for the development of the young.

#### Peer Group Membership

Without minimizing the effect of family background on children's attitudinal formation, additional influence is internalized that is the accepted attitudes and values of peer groups.

Literature reveals a number of studies which are concerned with the relationship between the child and the peer group. It appears that peer groups possess attitudinal qualities which are characteristic of social development stages. Among elementary students, qualities found among the

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<sup>32</sup>Kifer, "A Cross Cultural Study," p. 6.

most popular children are friendliness and sociability. Hostility, withdrawal and negative attitudes are qualities most often seen in children who are faced with peer rejection. Intelligence and creativity, if not too far above the level of the group, are additional qualities valued by peer groups.

Elementary school males value athletic strength and coordination in themselves and in others. These qualities continue to be of importance throughout the high school years.<sup>33</sup>

Tyron<sup>34</sup> conducted an early study which investigated the personal qualities valued by early adolescent peer groups. It was found that the qualities most admired in males shifted from being daring, aggressive and boisterous in the seventh grade to being poised, likable and personable in the ninth grade. Qualities most admired in females shifted from being docile, prim and ladylike in the seventh grade to being a good sport, popular, friendly, enthusiastic, happy, daring and having a good sense of humor in the ninth grade. This study emphasized the dynamics of peer group culture by showing that qualities valued at one maturity level, often fade and are replaced by other qualities as the group gets older.

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<sup>33</sup>Hugh V. Perkins, Human Development (Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1975), 7:211.

<sup>34</sup>Caroline M. Tyron, "Evaluations of Adolescent Personality by Adolescents," Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development 4 (1939).

Coleman,<sup>35</sup> in a large scale study of adolescent values, found that males most valued being a star athlete and females most valued being an activities leader. Each group favored these gender specific qualities more than academia. At the time of this study, in order to get into the most popular group, a female needed to have nice clothes, and a good reputation. Males needed athletic ability and a good car. It was found that achievement was valued only among one's own sex group. Cars and clothes contributed more to popularity with the opposite sex.

Today's high school students maintain some of these values, others have been abandoned and replaced. Athletic ability remains a valued quality among males; but for many, career plans and personal interest is more important. The value of having a car has probably increased. This is primarily due to rates of high teen-age employment and to the increased affluence of American society. For many adolescents, nice clothes and careful grooming are no longer a prime value. Today's high school students often choose to wear jeans, shorts, T-shirts, and surplus Army clothing. These changes have resulted in more traditional high schools losing the battle of maintaining a dress code.

A change has also occurred in the social and personal values of today's adolescents. It is becoming increasingly

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<sup>35</sup>Coleman, Adolescent Society.



more important to be true and real to one's self than to be virile or glamorous. Being human is a quality that is highly valued.

There are many phenomena that are of concern to those persons investigating peer group cultures in that a variety of forms express the needs of children and adolescents. The peer group can help members become skilled, find emotional support and develop a sense of identity. Conversely, it can lessen individuality and require conformity to the point that a person is enslaved to the group and its values.

Damico<sup>36</sup> found that achievement followed peer group membership rather than achievement allowing membership. This implies that it is possible for a student to become involved with a group that provides incentives to achieve. However, it was revealed that male students could ignore academic responsibilities in order to meet the desire for peer acceptance. Further conclusions of this study indicated that peer group membership was related to academic performance but not attitude toward school.

Coleman<sup>37</sup> suggested that the qualities valued by the leading peer group in high school influenced whether or not students were motivated in the direction of academic achievement or in other directions.

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<sup>36</sup>Sandra B. Damico, "Clique Membership and its Relationship to Academic Achievement and Attitude Toward School," Journal of Research and Development in Education 9 (1976):29-35.

<sup>37</sup>Coleman, Adolescent Society.

Sherif and Sherif<sup>38</sup> concluded, from an intensive study of adolescent self-systems and behavior, that attitudes and goals are profoundly affected by the interaction process, as well as by the status structure. They found that the extent to which peer group norms and goals became a part of the self-concept was dependent on the extent of the availability of other social ties. Such social ties were directly linked to family, school, community, adult authority and other age mates. Results also indicated that competition or conflict with other peers and pressures from adults typically increased attachment to the peer group.

Peer acceptance is an achievement that the child or adolescent must accomplish alone. Educators can benefit and achieve a more effective position by accepting and working with the peer group instead of trying to control it.

### School Experiences

Crow<sup>39</sup> believed that an adolescent's school experiences exert a potent influence on the developing personality pattern. The school shares with the home the responsibility of helping a young person achieve those behavior characteristics that can ensure the making of satisfactory adjustments to the demands

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<sup>38</sup>Muzafer Sherif and Carolyn W. Sherif, Reference Groups: Exploration into Conformity and Deviation of Adolescents (New York: Harper and Row, 1964).

<sup>39</sup>Lester D. Crow and Alice Crow, Adolescent Development and Adjustment, 2nd ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965), 404.

of present and future life activities. He further stated that educators must keep in mind that students bring to school a set of habits and attitudes that have been forming since early childhood. These habits and attitudes have been influenced by home environment and other interactive processes. Often a young person's attitude toward self and other people may make adjustment to school difficult. If frank, objective consideration is given to a student's attitudes, interests, and abilities, satisfactory school experiences should occur.

The literature shows that concerns exist for the attitudes students bring to school and their consequent affect on achievement. Malpass<sup>40</sup> found no relationship between attitude toward school and achievement test scores. However, a significant relationship was reported between overall attitude and grades. Jackson and Getzels<sup>41</sup> found no significant differences between satisfied and dissatisfied high school students in ability and achievement. Williams<sup>42</sup> found that satisfied as compared to dissatisfied high school students scored significantly higher in ability, achievement and

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<sup>40</sup>L. F. Malpass, "Some Relationships Between Student's Perceptions of School and Their Achievement," Journal of Educational Psychology 44 (1953):475-482.

<sup>41</sup>P. W. Jackson and J. W. Getzels, "Psychological Health and Classroom Functioning: A Study of Dissatisfaction With School Among Adolescents," Journal of Educational Psychology 50 (1959):295-300.

<sup>42</sup>R. L. Williams, "Personality Ability, and Achievement Correlates of Scholastic Attitudes," Journal of Educational Research 63 (1970):401-403.

personality areas. Jackson and LaHaderne<sup>43</sup> suggested an interesting possibility in relation to students' attitudes and achievement. They suggested that perhaps students typically neither hate nor love school; instead, they feel rather neutral towards classroom experiences. Another possibility they suggested was that teachers and parents behave in ways that effectively weaken whatever connection might exist. In most classrooms students are required to master minimal objectives whether they want to or not. Assignments are regularly made, deadlines are set, frequent checks are made by teachers and parents, and reports are sent home. These are several ways teachers, parents, and general school conditions may interfere with the condition of a natural relationship between attitude and school achievement. Based on the conclusions and suggestions found in literature, it appears that the total characteristics of the student should be considered when contemplating the effects personal attitude has on school achievement.

#### The Relationship Between Student Attitudes and School Achievement

There have been many investigations of the relationships between students' school related attitudes and achievement. The findings appear inconsistent. For example, McBee

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<sup>43</sup>Philip W. Jackson and Henriette M. LaHaderne, "Scholastic Success and Attitude Toward School in a Population of Sixth Graders," Journal of Educational Psychology 58 (February 1967):15-18.

and Duke, Brodie, Finger and Schlessner, Williams and other investigators found a significant relationship between school attitudes and academic achievement.<sup>44</sup> Jackson<sup>45</sup> after a review of research in the area concluded that nearly all investigations of the relationship have found no significance between the two variables.

Majoribanks<sup>46</sup> suggested that the inconsistency is partly due to the statistical procedures used for analysis of the data. Also, to the failure of most studies to include an examination of the cognitive abilities of the student. Aiken<sup>47</sup> added support to this criticism when he suggested that the correlation between attitude and achievement may vary with the level of ability of the student. He proposed that ability scores rather than attitude scores are more accurate determiners of achievement.

Majoribanks<sup>48</sup> in an effort to overcome investigative weaknesses pertaining to measurement of attitude and achievement used complex multiple regression surfaces and included

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<sup>44</sup>Kevin Majoribanks, "School Attitudes, Cognitive Ability, and Academic Success," Journal of Educational Psychology 68 (December 1976):653.

<sup>45</sup>Jackson and Lahaderne, "Scholastic Success and Attitude Toward School in a Population of Sixth Graders," p. 15-18.

<sup>46</sup>Majoribanks, "School Attitudes," pp. 653-654.

<sup>47</sup>L. R. Aiken, "Attitudes Toward Mathematics," Review of Educational Research 40 (1970):551-596.

<sup>48</sup>Majoribanks, "School Attitudes," pp. 653-659.

measures of cognitive ability in the analysis. The investigation consisted of a battery of cognitive and attitudinal measures and was administered to 450 twelve year old students. Findings suggested that at each attitude level, increase in ability was related to increase in achievement; and at each level of ability, increase in attitude was generally related to achievement. However, conclusions were that for each academic subject, the nature and strength of the relations between achievement, ability, and attitudes differed among males and females and depended on the ability being investigated.

These findings support the previously cited findings of Aikens; but do not support the synthesis Jackson drew from the literature review. Jackson<sup>49</sup> suggested that the difficulty in obtaining consistency among research stems from an existing difficulty in interpreting the educational significance of correlations between attitude and achievement. He explained this difficulty by the fact that students who achieve receive more positive reinforcement than those who do not achieve. As a result, achievers develop more positive attitudes. A second suggestion was that favorable attitudes, in some way, cause students to learn more.

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<sup>49</sup>Jackson, "Scholastic Success."

Neale, Gill and Tismer<sup>50</sup> subscribed to this general thesis and purport that one of the reasons favorable attitudes toward school is accepted as a desirable objective is the assumption that such attitudes have motivational consequences. They viewed students with favorable attitudes as being expected to learn more about a given subject because of a liking toward it and a general gain in satisfaction from learning more about it. In an effort to substantiate their belief, a study was designed which focused on the general relationship between attitudes and achievement on the question of the causal role of attitudes in school achievement. The investigation involved 105 males and 110 females in the sixth grade. Results of the study revealed a slight to insignificant measure between attitude and achievement. For males, attitudes and achievement were significantly correlated (.01) for social studies, arithmetic, and reading. Correlations for science bordered on significance. For females, the only significant correlation was for reading. Composite attitude and achievement scores correlated at the .01 level of significance for males and .05 level for females. When investigating the question of the causal role of attitudes in school achievement, results of multiple regression analysis revealed that attitudes toward school subjects made little or no contribution to predictions

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<sup>50</sup>Daniel C. Neale, Noel Gill, and Werner Tismer, "Relationship Between Attitudes Toward School Subjects and School Achievement," The Journal of Educational Research 63 (January 1970):232-237.

in achievement. They concluded that attitudes toward specific subjects are more related to school achievement than is general attitude towards school.

### Summary

Literature suggests that some societies create specific times within which students are expected to accomplish learning tasks. The American society has established the ages of 6-7 as the years of learning initial reading skills. Some students are developmentally able to meet this demand, others are not. Consequences are felt by both kinds of student. Often the effect is seen in the personality of the student. Students who were able to acquire reading skills tend to exhibit more positive aspects of personality. Students who were not able to acquire reading skills often tend to see themselves as failures and tend to exhibit more negative aspects of personality. Research studies support the idea that a relationship exists between certain personality variables and reading achievement.

Self-concept, group membership and school environment contribute to the formation of the attitudes of the total personality of students. Self-concept reflects the picture one has of self and is carefully guarded throughout life. Although the self-concept is basically formed by the adolescent years, it can ascend or descend according to the experiences encountered in the environment.



The attitude and support given by parents and significant others is of prime importance to the development of the self-image. If positive reinforcement is received, a positive self-image will result. If negative reinforcement is received a negative self-image will emerge.

The kind of self-image students bring with them to school affects the learning process. A lack of self-esteem often causes underachievement and the development of an array of defense mechanisms which are for the purpose of protecting the image of self.

Research revealed that the relationship of self-concept to achievement lessens as students reach maturity. A stronger relationship exists among students who are in kindergarten than among students in high school. Generally, research shows a small positive relationship between self-concept and achievement in school.

The home environment has an impact on the development of attitudes and personality. Of prime concern to educators is the interaction process that occurs in the home. It is through this process that children develop positive or negative attitudes toward school and learning. It is a reflection of the way parents feel about education. Consequently, the home has a powerful influence on the attitudes and achievement of children in school.

Additional influence on attitude formation is received from peer groups. Peer groups have definite values and its

members must subscribe to them. Peer values often change with maturity, but the necessity to conform to the current value structure does not lessen. Peer groups appear to have the ability to foster incentives for achievement. It was found that achievement followed peer groups rather than achievement allowing for membership in a group. That achievement does or does not occur depends on the value structure of the particular peer group. It was suggested that educators could benefit if awareness and acceptance of the peer group were displayed rather than trying to control it.

The school shares the responsibility of the home in contributing to the formation of personal attitudes of students. The contribution schools make can ensure the development of abilities needed to meet present and future societal demands. Conclusions and suggestions found in literature suggest that total characteristics of the student should be considered as well as the agents which contributed during the formation process. This total consideration will aid educational endeavors in being more effective.

Reports of the relationship of student attitude to school achievement appear to be inconsistent. Some investigators found significant relationships, some did not. Conclusions that often appear relate achievement in school to student attitudes toward specific subjects; also, that it is ability, not attitude, that is the better predictor of school achievement.

Attitude is composed of such a complex network of variables that it appears to be difficult to measure. Also, attitude measures are necessarily of the type and construction that many researchers question their usefulness.

### CHAPTER III

#### PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

The group of students from which the sample was drawn were attending a nongraded alternative high school in the Oklahoma City Public School System. All students were administered the Oklahoma Scales and the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Survey F, Form 1 as a pretest. The same was administered as a posttest, except the alternate form, F2, of the reading test was used.

The pre and posttests were administered by the researcher. The pretest was administered during the last two weeks of September. The administration of the reading survey preceded the administration of the Oklahoma Scales by one week. The reason for time difference was to allow the researcher to identify students who scored in a range that necessitated oral administration. This was determined by the comprehension grade equivalent score revealed by the reading survey. The same procedure was followed for posttesting. Posttesting occurred during the first and second week of the last month of the school term. Three hypotheses were tested using data from the total raw scores obtained from the pre and posttests.

The problem of the study was to determine whether students who attended an alternative high school experienced a change in attitude toward school, self and others; and, if any change was reflected in improvement in reading ability.

### Subject Selection

The population of the alternative high school was composed of a stratified random sample of Oklahoma City Public Schools total student population. Each student was admitted upon satisfaction of predetermined program requirements. The program required that the student must have been enrolled in one of Oklahoma City Public Schools tenth, eleventh, or twelfth grades or was 16 years old or older. The student made application for attendance and was chosen by a random lottery process for final admission. Additional requirements considered in the student selection process were: sending school, gender, grade, and race. This process yielded a student population that was representative of the Oklahoma City Public Schools student population.<sup>1</sup>

Subjects for this study were selected from the total population of the school. Any student enrolled during the pretesting sessions was eligible for the study. The study sample is composed of students who had been in attendance there for the entire school year. They range in grade level

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<sup>1</sup>Maxie Wood, Evaluation of Central Innovative High School (Oklahoma City: Oklahoma City Public Schools, 1976), p. 3.

from tenth through twelfth grade. They had all attended traditional high schools.

Of the 250 students pretested, 190 did not meet the full school term limitation; therefore, they were eliminated from the study. From the 60 remaining subjects, a random sample of 20 males and 20 females was made for the study sample.

### Instruments

The Oklahoma Scales was chosen as an appropriate measure of attitude. The test measures three components of attitude: 1) Attitude toward school; 2) Attitude toward self; 3) Attitude toward others. This scale may be administered to a group or individually and is designed to measure the attitudes of students ranging from grade four through grade twelve. In order to complete this scale independently, students should have the ability to read at a fourth grade level. The examiner is required to read items aloud to students who cannot read at the appropriate level.

The scale consists of 120 items. Some of the items are positive, some are negative and a few are neutral. Forty items assess each of the three attitudes. Heading each group of forty items is the type of attitude being measured. Each item response is given a numerical value. The values range from 1 through 5. Positive responses receive a higher value, and negative responses receive a lower value. Total scores

for each scale may range from 40-200. The median score for the scale is 120. For each of the three scales, a higher score indicates a more positive attitude while a lower score indicates a more negative attitude.

Construct validity has been established for the Oklahoma Scales. Reliability of the three scales is based on measures of internal consistency and ranges from .79 to .89. Norms were established for Oklahoma in 1975.<sup>2</sup>

The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Survey F (1969 revision) was chosen to determine students reading vocabulary and reading comprehension scores. Alternate forms of the test were available for pre and posttesting. This test is a power test because the items become more difficult when proceeding through it. Items for the survey were selected by a nationwide tryout. Student responses to items were computed to determine difficulty and discrimination indices. It is a timed test. The most recent norms were established in 1969. The testing for the new norms was completed in March and April. Norms for October, February, and May were established by linear interpolation between grade levels. This was done under the assumption that the period of schooling between grades was ten months. Previous normative studies with other levels of this test revealed that the assumption of linear growth was a reasonable basis for norms when applied to students

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<sup>2</sup>Oklahoma State Department of Education, Oklahoma, pp. 2-3.

at the level for which Form F was designed. Reliability was based on alternate form co-efficients and ranged from .85 to .91. Concurrent validity was established and ranged from .78 to .84.<sup>3</sup>

### Procedures

The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Survey F, Form 1 (1969 revision) and the Oklahoma Scales were administered to all enrolled students during the first and last month of the school term. Student responses were marked on separate hand-scorable answer sheets. Pre and posttesting was done in groups of 20-25 students. All testing and scoring was done by the researcher. Timing and directions for administration were adhered to closely.

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<sup>3</sup>Arthur I. Gates and Walter H. MacGinitie, Manual for Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests (New York: Teachers College Press, 1969), pp. 1-2.



## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

The problem of the study was to determine whether students who attended an alternative high school experienced a change in attitude toward school, self and others, and if any change was reflected in improvement in reading ability. Raw scores (Appendix) from Form 1 and 2 of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Survey and the Oklahoma Scales were used for statistical analysis.

Descriptive statistics were computed for male and female groups. They were used to test three null hypotheses. The .05 level of significance was adopted for acceptance for each of the hypotheses.

Hypothesis  $H_{01}$  was concerned with differences in mean raw scores on attitude toward school, self and others on pre and posttests for males and females. A  $t$  test for correlated data was computed to compare differences between means for each component of the attitude scales for each group. The critical value of  $t$  with one degree of freedom at the .05 level is 2.093.

The results of the statistical analysis indicated that significant mean differences existed between pre and posttest scores for females attitude toward school, self and

others. For the male group, significance existed in attitude toward self (Table 1). Therefore, the Hypothesis: There were no statistically significant differences in mean raw scores on attitude toward school, self and others on pre and post-tests for males and females, was rejected.

TABLE 1  
A COMPARISON OF PRE AND POSTTEST MEAN RAW SCORES  
ON THE OKLAHOMA SCALES FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Subscales	Pre		Post		t-value
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	
Males (N=20)					
School	134.25	11.07	136.60	11.19	.472
Self	128.80	15.30	145.85	19.47	3.213*
Others	134.60	12.21	141.60	13.17	1.697
Females (N=20)					
School	134.75	9.73	152.20	15.71	2.910*
Self	119.85	6.83	150.95	23.03	6.714**
Others	131.05	8.70	152.15	17.27	3.540*

\*Significant at the .01 confidence level.

\*\*Significant at the .001 confidence level.

Hypothesis  $H_{02}$  was concerned with differences in mean raw scores in reading vocabulary and reading comprehension on pre and posttests for males and females. A  $t$  test for correlated data was computed to compare differences between means for each component of reading for each group. The critical value of  $t$  with one degree of freedom at the .05 level is 2.093.

The results of the statistical analysis indicated that significant mean differences existed between pre and posttest scores in reading comprehension for both males and females (Table 2). There were no significant mean differences existing between pre and posttests in reading vocabulary for males and females. Therefore, the hypothesis: There are no statistically significant differences in mean raw scores in reading vocabulary and reading comprehension on pre and posttests for males and females was accepted for differences in reading vocabulary among males and females. It was rejected for differences in reading comprehension among males and females.

TABLE 2

A COMPARISON OF PRE AND POSTTEST MEAN RAW SCORES ON  
THE GATES-MacGINITIE READING SURVEY F  
FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Subtests	Pre		Post		t-value
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	
Males (N=20)					
Vocabulary	24.95	8.83	26.10	8.87	.735
Comprehension	22.90	8.58	26.60	8.97	3.000*
Females (N=20)					
Vocabulary	28.40	7.61	29.25	7.63	1.388
Comprehension	28.55	10.03	31.65	10.27	3.707*

\*Significant at the .01 confidence level.

Hypothesis  $H_{o_3}$  was concerned with relationships between attitudes toward school, self and others and reading

vocabulary and reading comprehension on pre and posttests for males and females. Chi Square with Yates Correction Factor was computed to determine if relationships existed between measured attitudes and reading vocabulary and comprehension. Yates Correction Factor was applied because the expected frequency was small. Chi Square was applied to a 2 x 2 contingency table because the expected frequency for the No Gain cells was less than two.<sup>1</sup> These frequencies were dropped from the analysis. The Phi Coefficient was computed for each Chi Square. The critical level of .05 was determined with one degree of freedom for groups of unequal size.

Results of the statistical analysis indicated a significant relationship between attitudes toward school and others and reading comprehension for males. Other significant relationships did not appear in the male group (Table 3). Analysis of the female group scores did not show significant relationships between the measured variables of attitude and reading.

Wilkenson<sup>2</sup> suggested the necessity, for repeated tests of significance, of determining if the number of significant items is great enough to indicate nonchance occurrence. With

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<sup>1</sup>N. M. Downie and R. W. Heath, Basic Statistical Methods, 4th ed. (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1974), pp. 196-199.

<sup>2</sup>Bryan Wilkenson, "A Statistical Consideration in Psychological Research," Psychological Bulletin 48 (1951): 156-158.

reference to the table he provided, the probability of obtaining two significant results from twelve by chance is twelve times in one hundred; consequently, there probably is no relationship between the measured variables of attitude and reading. Therefore, the hypothesis: There are no statistically significant relationships between attitude toward school, self and others and reading vocabulary and reading comprehension on pre and posttests for males and females was accepted. Students who attend an alternative high school did not reflect change in attitude in relation to improvement in reading ability.

TABLE 3

CHI SQUARE AND PHI COEFFICIENT FOR RELATIONSHIPS  
BETWEEN CHANGES IN ATTITUDE AND READING  
IMPROVEMENT FOR MALES AND FEMALES

	Chi Square	Phi Coefficient
Males (N=20)		
School - vocabulary	1.125	.250
School - comprehension	4.158	.454*
Self - vocabulary	.125	.088
Self - comprehension	1.330	.264
Others - vocabulary	.125	.083
Others - comprehension	4.160	.456*
Females (N=20)		
School - vocabulary	.571	.181
School - comprehension	.000	.000
Self - vocabulary	2.280	.366
Self - comprehension	.000	.000
Others - vocabulary	.800	.012
Others - comprehension	.250	.122

\*Significant at the .05 confidence level.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

The problem of the study was to determine whether significant differences and relationships existed between mean raw scores in reading achievement of students attending an alternative high school who reflected positive or negative attitudes toward school, self and others. The purpose of the study was to determine whether students who attend an alternative high school experienced a change in attitude toward school, self and others, and if any change was reflected in improvement in reading ability.

The testing instruments used in this study were Gates-MacGinitie Reading Survey F, Forms 1 and 2 and the Oklahoma Scales. The instruments were administered, as pre and post-test assessments, in groups of 20. The subjects included an equal number of males and females (N=20) and ranged in grade level from tenth through twelfth. All subjects had previously attended traditional high schools. Subjects were identified by having attended the school for the complete school term.

Mean raw scores were used for comparison of differences in attitude toward school, self and others, also for differences on reading vocabulary and comprehension. Raw scores were

used for the comparison of relationships between change in attitudes toward school, self and others and improvement in reading vocabulary and comprehension. Significant differences in means were found for: change in attitude toward school, self and others and reading comprehension among male and female groups. The relationship found between attitude variables and reading improvement was minimal. It was attributed to chance and considered as an insignificant relationship.

### Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn from the study:

1. The male and female subjects showed a positive change in attitude toward school, self and others.
2. Male and female subjects showed significant growth in reading comprehension.
3. Male and female subjects did not show significant growth in reading vocabulary.
4. Attitudes toward school and others had a significant relationship to improvement in reading comprehension among male subjects.
5. Changes in attitudes toward school, self and others were not related to improvement in reading vocabulary or comprehension in the female group.
6. Changes in attitudes toward school, self and others and the relationship to improvement in reading vocabulary and comprehension among males and females attending an alternative high school were not significant.

7. In general, the conclusions drawn from this study supported results obtained from research studies reported in the literature.

### Recommendations

Several recommendations result from this study:

1. Most subjects in this study had been attending the alternative high school for more than one year. This suggests the possibility that some change in attitudes occurred prior to the period of data gathering for this study. It is recommended that further investigation of this study, assessing attitude and relationship to reading improvement, proceed with measurement occurring upon student entry into an alternative high school program.

2. It is recommended that further investigative efforts be directed toward comparing changes of attitude and its relationship to reading improvement among students attending traditional high schools to those students attending alternative high schools.

3. Literature suggests that individual attitudes become more indelible as students grow older. It is recommended that further investigation of this study, which includes samples of younger age groups, may clarify the issue concerning the relationship between change in attitude and reading improvement.



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APPENDIX A

GATES-MacGINITIE READING TESTS, SURVEY F, FORMS  
1 AND 2, AND OKLAHOMA SCALES RAW SCORES  
FOR MALES AND FEMALES

TABLE 4

GATES-MacGINITIE READING SURVEY F, FORMS 1 AND 2,  
AND OKLAHOMA SCALES RAW SCORES FOR MALES

Males	<u>Gates-MacGinitie Reading</u> <u>Survey F</u>				<u>Oklahoma Scales</u>					
	Pre (Form 1)		Post (Form 2)		Pre			Post		
	Vocab	Comp	Vocab	Comp	School	Self	Others	School	Self	Others
1	24	22	26	29	126	116	129	115	139	140
2	15	12	8	13	137	143	138	113	123	130
3	26	36	34	28	135	143	142	116	129	132
4	17	13	17	21	176	179	189	183	177	188
5	37	40	41	48	129	112	126	140	146	138
6	36	34	38	44	142	137	133	151	136	122
7	29	11	35	27	136	109	120	144	151	130
8	33	36	36	39	125	117	126	150	148	146
9	35	23	35	25	141	118	123	157	158	149
10	42	45	47	48	129	114	125	149	152	148
11	29	25	25	32	120	103	133	143	172	159
12	12	13	17	14	136	116	129	125	119	113
13	43	42	44	45	146	124	136	122	137	138
14	9	18	22	11	120	125	126	117	112	124
15	48	27	30	32	146	185	165	131	188	178
16	16	8	10	11	113	119	112	121	126	131
17	23	22	16	26	157	151	156	159	162	147
18	9	3	9	10	141	114	139	137	142	125
19	10	19	19	16	129	117	123	94	117	114
20	6	9	13	13	101	135	122	165	183	180

TABLE 5

GATES-MacGINITIE READING SURVEY F, FORMS 1 AND 2,  
AND OKLAHOMA SCALES RAW SCORES FOR FEMALES

Fe- males	<u>Gates-MacGinitie Reading</u> <u>Survey F</u>				<u>Oklahoma Scales</u>					
	Pre (Form 1)		Post (Form 2)		Pre			Post		
	Vocab	Comp	Vocab	Comp	School	Self	Others	School	Self	Others
1	17	16	17	19	144	118	118	151	142	188
2	22	15	21	21	150	129	165	127	130	140
3	34	50	38	50	171	135	143	155	146	145
4	39	38	37	38	127	115	126	146	165	173
5	24	24	24	21	125	109	137	120	127	135
6	27	22	30	25	116	126	125	190	187	129
7	21	13	20	20	135	115	128	137	145	113
8	39	36	40	42	145	112	153	183	177	188
9	6	6	7	10	130	121	129	160	104	102
10	33	32	36	45	149	151	144	170	166	194
11	49	51	50	52	131	115	124	88	137	147
12	27	20	22	24	138	118	127	171	159	134
13	25	36	24	34	128	117	129	182	179	185
14	36	30	33	33	124	115	124	156	153	157
15	28	27	32	33	113	113	130	144	140	149
16	18	12	19	15	122	116	127	151	158	155
17	38	49	44	49	147	109	121	152	141	139
18	42	46	47	46	146	117	116	158	159	166
19	34	41	34	42	134	118	140	169	157	164
20	9	7	10	14	120	128	115	134	147	140