

COMPARISON OF TWO GROUPS OF HOME ECONOMICS FRESHMEN
DIFFERING IN SCHOLASTIC POTENTIAL USING
SELECTED DEVELOPMENTAL FACTORS

by

PATRICIA IRENE HELMS

B. S., Kansas State University, 1963

A MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Family and Child Development

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1966

Approved by:

Marpia Steth
Major Professor

LD
2668
T4
1966
H487
C.2
Document

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author is grateful to Dr. Marjorie Stith, major advisor and Head of the Department of Family and Child Development, for her valuable guidance and assistance. She also wishes to express appreciation to members of the advisory committee, Dr. Carroll E. Kennedy, Jr., and Dr. E. Robert Sinnett, for their encouragement and helpful criticism on many aspects of the study.

Special appreciation goes to the staff of the Kansas State University Counseling Center for, without the released data, this study could never have been completed.

Special thanks goes to Dr. T. Kenneth Allan and Dr. Martin Bohn for their support and innumerable suggestions.

A particularly important contribution was made by the author's daughter, Missy, who both gave and gave up a great deal.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
LIST OF TABLES	iv
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. LITERATURE CITED	3
III. METHODOLOGY	19
IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	27
V. SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH	39
APPENDICES	45
LITERATURE CITED	52

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Summary of E-Scale and F-Scale Scores According to Level of Academic Potential	28
2. Pearson's Product Moment Correlations Between E-Scale Scores, F-Scale Scores and Independence Training Measures	29
3. Intercorrelation Matrix of Independence Training Measures	30
4. Point Biserial Correlation of E-Scale and F-Scale Scores with the Dichotomous Criterion of Scholastic Potential	31
5. Point Biserial Correlation of Independence Training Measures with the Dichotomous Criterion of Scholastic Potential	32
6. Probability of Encouragement of Early Independence Training Measures by the Age of Nine Years in Relation to the Dichotomous Criterion of Scholastic Potential	34

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Measurement by psychological tests, both of intellectual and personality attributes, has been on the upswing in recent years, and has elicited much attention in popular and professional writings. One of the more common reasons for such testing has been that of predicting academic success. Extensive testing programs have been instituted in order to assess scholastic potential of prospective college students.

Sanford (1962), in discussing college admissions, theorized that more attention will be given to personality factors and less emphasis given to the prediction of performance in academic subjects. More consideration may be given to assessing the kinds of potentials that might be developed under the influence of education.

The prediction of success, however, has been related to the discovery of reasons for failure. It may be of importance to delineate more fully the kinds of students who do not find success in higher education.

In exploring academic failure or success, the origin of attitudes toward education seemed to be one of the more fruitful areas to explore. Two particularly useful works concerning origins of achievement motive were those of McClelland (1953)

and Atkinson (1958). Both pointed to the importance of early learning in the formation of motives. Particular attention was paid to the place of independence training in relation to achievement motivation and to attitude toward education.

Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships among factors which may influence or be concomitants of achievement potential.

Academic potential as measured by a widely used college aptitude test, personality traits which may affect attitudes toward education, and childhood independence training which may form the basis of attitudes toward education were considered in this study.

Specifically, the following general null hypotheses were formulated:

- (1) There are no differences between low scholastic potential home economics freshmen and high scholastic potential home economics freshmen in selected measures of two personality traits.
- (2) There are no differences between low scholastic potential home economics freshmen and high scholastic potential home economics freshmen in selected independence training measures.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE CITED

Educational success has certainly been related to intellectual potential for achievement. It has been evident, however, that other factors can and do affect scholastic performance. The attitudes, values, and opinions of the student play an important part in determining the relative success of that student. It may be of importance to describe more fully the low and high scholastic potential student with the aid of selected personality and independence training measures.

Perusal of literature, then, was confined to material concerning achievement, achievement motives, and intelligence when considered in relation to certain measured factors. Considered as indicative of rigidity in patterns of cognitive functioning were ethnocentrism and anti-democratic thought. In an attempt to determine the origin of independence as a possible factor in scholastic potential, measures of independence training were considered. Grouping of the studies was made according to the personality factor or independence training measure employed.

Ethnocentrism

Recently a good deal of attention has been focused upon the definition of and exploration of prejudice and upon

personality rigidity, particularly anti-democratic thought, which underlies prejudice. One of the most widely quoted sources concerning such personality structure has been that of Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson, and Sanford (1950): The Authoritarian Personality. This was one in a series of five volumes sponsored and financed by the American Jewish Committee. The series, Studies in Prejudice, was designed to deal with two aspects of prejudice: the underlying personality structure which predisposes an individual to hostility toward racial and religious groups, and the social situation which encourages such underlying predispositions. The researchers were particularly motivated by the conditions in Nazi Germany which made possible the persecution and extermination of many Jewish people.

Research reported in The Authoritarian Personality (Adorno et al., 1950) was guided by the following hypothesis: the political, economic, and social beliefs of an individual form a broad pattern and this pattern is an expression of deep-seated personality trends. Four major scales and numerous subscales were formulated to measure enduring aspects of personality.

Ethnocentrism was defined as provincialism or cultural narrow-mindedness (Levinson, 1950). Considered characteristic of ethnocentrism was the tendency to be rigid in acceptance of the culturally similar and rejection of the culturally dissimilar. According to the investigators, high scorers on a scale measuring ethnocentrism had in common a general manner

of thinking about groups.

Ethnocentrism is based on a pervasive and rigid ingroup-outgroup distinction; it involves stereotyped negative imagery and hostile attitudes regarding outgroups, stereotyped positive imagery and submissive attitudes regarding ingroups, and a hierarchical authoritarian view of group interaction in which ingroups are rightly dominant, outgroups subordinate (Levinson, 1950, p. 150).

The measure of ethnocentrism developed by Adorno et al. (1950) was known as the E-scale. Three subscales were outlined: six items of the final scale dealt with Negroes, six with Jews, and eight with other minorities and with patriotism. Items dealing with patriotism were designed to tap a pseudopatriotism involving blind attachment to cultural values, uncritical conformity to the contemporary ingroup, and rejection of other nations as outgroups.

In a comparison of E-scale scores with intelligence test scores, Levinson (1950) found a low but consistent negative relationship between ethnocentrism and intelligence. In three groups of subjects with intelligence quotients of approximately 100 or above, the most ethnocentric subjects were, on the average, less intelligent than the least ethnocentric. Correlation was only moderately high, contributing evidence that intelligence was only one of many variables which determined E-scale scores.

Interview material was considered by Frenkel-Brunswik (1950) in a study of individuals who had completed the E-scale. It was hypothesized that submission to parents was related to submission to authority in general. The degree of submission

to authority would have an impact on social behavior toward persons with or without power. There were marked differences between low and high prejudice subjects. Submission to parents as authority figures was present in both high scoring men and high scoring women, although not as frequent in men, nor as intense, as in women. Principled independence, designated as the opposite of submission to authority, was found in eight of the fifteen low scoring women and in none of the twenty-five high scoring women.

Relationships among ethnocentrism of mothers, ethnocentrism of children and maternal authoritarian rearing practices were investigated by Mosher and Scodel (1960). Mothers of sixth- and seventh-grade children completed two instruments: the E-scale as a measure of ethnocentrism and a nineteen-item questionnaire designed to reflect parental attitudes toward authoritarian child-rearing practices. A social distance test, used as a measure of ethnocentrism of children, was administered in the classroom. High positive correlations were found between maternal authoritarian child-rearing practices and maternal ethnocentrism and between maternal ethnocentrism and ethnocentrism of children. Test results, although insignificant, seemed to indicate a negative relationship between ethnocentrism of children and maternal belief in authoritarian child-rearing practices.

Upon initial analysis, these results seem to contradict one of the theories of Adorno et al. (1950), specifically that power-oriented child-rearing methods may foster the rejection

of outgroups. Mosher and Scodel (1960) offered an explanatory hypothesis, however. They maintained that ethnic attitudes were rather specific, may have been openly displayed, and were relatively easy to transmit from parent to child. However, effects of authoritarian child-rearing practices may have required a longer time span to become manifest. Personality traits, such as those underlying ethnocentrism, require longer periods of time for formation and greater reinforcement to take effect.

The sorts of frustrating experiences that lead to extreme repression and conventionality with consequent projection of unacceptable impulses onto outgroups are ordinarily absent from the world of children who range in age from 11 to 13. In later life, when competition with peers becomes a more realistic consideration and the pressure of the adult world becomes more directly intrusive, the need to focus resentment on particular groups, if it exists as a result of cumulative frustration, will become overt (Mosher and Scodel, 1960, pp. 374-375).

The authors suggested that, in five years, the correlation between authoritarian child-rearing practices and ethnocentrism of children might be significant and that a test of the hypothesis should be made with a group of young adults such as college students (Mosher and Scodel, 1960).

Ethnocentrism, as measured by the E-scale, has had a part in the description of the college drop-out. Plant, as reported in The American College (Sanford, 1962), studied the E-scale scores of students at San Jose State College over a two-year period. Subjects were initially matched on intelligence and E-scale scores. The ethnocentrism of those students who persisted in school dropped significantly, while the scores

of those students who withdrew did not. It is suggested by Plant that the effects of education could diminish ethnocentrism, if the student remained in college. This suggestion was partially confirmed in another study reported in the same source (Sanford, 1962). Webster, Freedman and Heist utilized data obtained by Sanford over a four-year period on persisting Vassar College students. A large decrease in E-scale scores occurred between the freshman year and the senior year.

In summary, high ethnocentrism, as measured by the E-scale, has been shown to be related positively to submission to parental authority and negatively to intelligence (Levinson, 1950) and principled independence (Frenkel-Brunswik, 1950). There was a positive correlation between maternal E-scale scores and ethnocentrism of children (Mosher and Scodel, 1960); however, questions were raised concerning the age at which measures of ethnocentrism of children reflect the impact of authoritarian child-rearing practices. Finally, ethnocentrism scores of college students have been shown to decrease as these students persist in school (Sanford, 1962).

Anti-democratic Thought

A more subtle measure of prejudice than that provided by the ethnocentrism scale was the anti-democratic thinking scale, or F-scale. Study of individual case material led Sanford et al. (1950) to conclude that certain underlying personality traits contributed to ethnocentrism. Several variables were then defined and regarded as central or basic trends

expressed on the surface in certain opinions and attitudes. Attitudes measured concerned rigid adherence to conventional values, uncritical submission to the ingroup authority, rejection of violators of the conventional value system, and opposition to the subjective and imaginative viewpoint. Preoccupation with and identification with power figures, generalized hostility, and the tendency to rigidly categorize or stereotype were also considered. In addition, items were developed to probe beliefs in wild and dangerous happenings as the outward expression of unconscious emotional impulses, to measure exaggerated concern with the sexual activity of others, and to measure the belief in fate or magical determination of the future. Such variables were thought of as forming an enduring structure, marked by a receptivity to anti-democratic propaganda.

F-scale scores were negatively related to intelligence quotient scores as had been true of scores on the E-scale. The relationship was more marked, however, for F-scale scores than for E-scale scores. Certain F-scale clusters, such as the one dealing with superstition and stereotypy, may have contributed to the higher F-scale correlation (Levinson, 1950).

In a comparison of F-scale scores obtained during the freshman year and the senior year of college, Webster, Freedman and Heist (1962) noted large decreases in F-scale scores. From interview material, it appeared to the authors that, in spite of the average decrease in F-scale scores, " . . . for some high F-scale scorers, earlier fixations were so severe as to prevent a significant decrease in F scores during college

(Webster, Freedman and Heist, 1962, p. 834)." Interview material gave rise to the supposition that the severity of some early fixations prevents the lowering of F-scale scores.

Brown (1953) theorized that parents who keep a child dependent for too long a period do not adequately train the child for independent achievement. Consequently, the child will have many bitter experiences in learning situations and will learn to anticipate such unpleasant outcomes. However, occasional successes may have been so well rewarded as to result in continued attempts to succeed. The author has shown a positive relationship between high F-scale scores, achievement anxiety, and rigidity in solving problems in an ego-involving situation. In a more relaxed testing situation, anxiety over achievement was positively related to high F-scale scores, but not to rigidity in the problem-solving situation. The Einstellung arithmetic problems, requiring a choice between a "set" mode of problem solving and the discovery of a short method, was used as a measure of problem-solving rigidity.

Anti-democratic thinking, then, as measured by the F-scale, has been shown to be negatively related to intelligence. As was found in the study of ethnocentrism measure scores, F-scale scores decreased notably over four years of college. It was suggested that earlier fixations of some persisting college students were so severe as to prevent a significant decrease in F-scale scores. High F-scale scores were positively related to anxiety over achievement, produced possibly by inadequate training for independent achievement.

Participation in ego-involving activity led to rigidity in solving problems for the high F-scale scorer. Such lack of flexibility may also be related to inadequate independence training.

Subsequent to the initial development of the F-scale, a number of writers have used it to measure personality attributes of individuals described as "authoritarian." Rokeach (1956) pointed out that although this designation coincides with the title of the book, The Authoritarian Personality (Adorno et al., 1950) the designation is unfortunate. Even though some aspects of a personal mode of relation to authority are measured by the F-scale, using the scale as only a measure of authoritarian personality seems to be limiting the intended scope of the F-scale. Research using this limited definition of the F-scale was not involved in describing the area of concern for this study.

Independence Training

Discussion up to this point has been concerned with measures of two aspects of late adolescent or adult personality: ethnocentrism and anti-democratic thinking, and with concomitants of such personality traits. Consideration of such traits in a person may seem meaningless without additional personal information for, as Jersild (1960) noted, the understanding of human beings has required the study of their beginnings. Jersild points out that there are critical periods in the life of an individual when certain types of behavior are influenced. Although at these critical times the individual may be

particularly vulnerable to harm, there has been a positive forward direction for growth. The development of a skill or capacity has been dependent upon the tendency to use that skill, and, when combined with the influence of outside forces, determined the state of health for the individual.

Security was accorded a focal point in an examination of healthy personality formation (Blatz, 1944). Human development begins with dependence upon parents during childhood and continues through stages characterized by increasing independence and maturity.

The gradual shift from dependence to independence has not occurred spontaneously. Parents hold certain expectations for child behavior, both in physical control and social development. Dubin and Dubin (1963), in reviewing twenty-five usable behavioral reports, discussed socialization in relation to parental enforcement of expected behaviors. These writers delineate the period from birth to six through ten years of age as an authority inception period: the period during which parents designated a course of action for the child when a choice may have been perceived by both. Authority occurred in relation to physical action during the first two years of life. The choices were simple, usually involving two alternatives. Between the ages of two and three years a gap seemed to occur when no action was started or completed.

After three years of age, the authority inception period became more complex. A wider choice of alternatives was available and choice areas involved action in social situations.

By the time the child entered school, the major areas of his life were regulated by authoritative demands from parents. It is during this authority inception period that basic concepts of authority figures were formed. The child had been accorded the opportunity to test limits within the parent-child relationship. The authoritative nature of the parental role seemed to be essential to the socialization process. "It is under direction that the child has orderly experiences with available behavioral choices (Dubin and Dubin, 1963, p. 896, italics mine)."

According to Dubin and Dubin then, during a certain period the gradual achievement of independence seemed to affect socialization. This gradual achievement of independence has been related also to change in intelligence quotient scores (Sontag and Baker, 1958). Personality rating scales based on accumulated longitudinal data and Stanford-Binet Intelligence Tests were used in evaluating records of 140 six-year-old children. It was found that, during preschool years, emotional dependence on parents was related to a drop in intelligence quotient scores while those children exhibiting a gain in intelligence quotient scores seemed to be making steps to achieve independence. Sontag and Baker (1958) suggested that, during early years, mental growth may be influenced by the exploration and curiosity shown by the child characterized by emotional independence from parents.

Two articles concerning encouragement of independence and intelligence were written utilizing data collected by

Winterbottom (McClelland, 1953; Winterbottom, 1958). Mothers of twenty-nine 8- to 10-year-old boys were asked to complete a check list concerning encouraged behavior. Twenty behavior expectations were listed. The mother was asked to check each item she considered important to encourage before her son reached ten years of age, and to indicate the age at which she thought the child should have learned this behavior. In addition, strength of achievement motive was determined by the nature of responses to verbal cues; each boy was asked to construct a story when given a set situation. Analyses of the data pointed to a positive relationship between independence training and achievement motivation.

In considering the demand items checked by mothers of low-achievement motivated boys and those checked by mothers of high-achievement motivated boys, a difference was evident to McClelland (1953). Before their sons reached the age of eight, mothers of high-achievement motivated scorers encouraged independence on items which related to the child as a separate entity. Such mothers were desirous that the boy develop away from her. Mothers of high and low scorers did not differ significantly on the encouragement of items relating to the freeing of parental time and effort, such as looking after his own possessions.

McClelland (1953), in relating the work of Adorno et al. (1950) and Brown (1953), pointed out that low achievement motivation may have come from the same protective family situation which was associated with race prejudice and the stressing of

conventional moral standards.

Individual differences in school progress as related to differences in maternal attitude toward independence training were assessed in a study of fifty-two mother-child relationships (Chance, 1961). Eight items were added to the twenty originally devised by Winterbottom (1958). The Revised Stanford-Binet Scale, Form L, provided a measurement of intelligence, reading achievement and arithmetic achievement for the first-grade children. The results of this analysis were contrary to those of Winterbottom (1958) in that statistical significance in every case was in a direction " . . . suggesting that children whose mothers favor earlier demands for independence make poorer school progress relative to their intelligence level than children whose mothers favor later independence demands. The differences appear, at least superficially, to be more marked in girls than in boys and more marked in reading than arithmetic (Chance, 1961, p. 153)." The author suggested the following hypothesis in relation to the data: maternal attitude toward independence training would influence the child and the school performance of the child depending upon the interpersonal relationship between mother and child. The maternal motivation for independence training would then have an effect upon the child.

Maternal reactions to achievement behaviors were observed as potential determinates of the achievement development of the child in a study conducted by Crandall, Preston and Rabson (1960). Relationships between independence and

achievement behavior of the children were also considered. Ratings on thirty children three to five years of age were based on observations in the home and the nursery school. Four variables were rated: amount of achievement effort, approval seeking, help seeking, and emotional support seeking. The maternal reactions to achievement behaviors of the child in the home were also rated. It was found that children rated as making a high achievement effort were less dependent on adults for help and support; this behavior was moderately consistent from home to nursery school. Knowledge of independence training was useful in predicting achievement behavior of children. Direct maternal rewards for achievement effort and approval seeking were predictive of achievement behavior of children. Mothers who consistently rewarded achievement effort were less nurturant than were mothers who did not; however, the maternal affection of these two groups of mothers was not different.

The early experiences, then, have been shown to be particularly important in the gradual attaining of independence. During the first six to ten years at least two areas are initially explored: the child has experience with choice under direction and the first association with an authority figure. Study of pre-school children has shown a positive relationship between intelligence quotient scores and gaining independence from parents. Independence training, as reported by mothers, was positively related to achievement motivation of sons. One study of first-grade children showed a relationship between independence training and poorer school progress relative to

intelligence level. The hypothesis was advanced that the performance of the child may depend upon the mother-child relationship. No difference in affection was found, however, between mothers of children with low achievement motive and children with high achievement motive in a study of nursery school children. Here, too, independence training was related positively to the achievement behavior of the child.

Intellectual Functioning

In the previous discussion, some aspect of intelligence, achievement motive, or achievement behavior has been pervasive. In studies utilizing adult test scores, intelligence has been related negatively to high E-scale scores and high F-scale scores. Persisting college students showed a lowering of scores on both scales over a period of years. Also, anxiety over achievement has been positively related to high F-scale scores.

The pervasiveness of intelligence and achievement related factors was present also in a variety of studies of children. Emotional dependence in pre-school children was related to a drop in intelligence quotient scores while progress toward independence was related to a rise in intelligence. Mental growth may be enhanced by the curiosity characteristic of an individual attaining emotional independence from parents. In separate studies, achievement motivation of eight- to ten-year-old boys was positively related to independence training while achievement of first-grade children was negatively

related to the same independence training measures. Achievement behavior was positively related to independence training in a study of nursery school children.

In conclusion, this survey of the literature suggests that the individual expressing prejudice and/or exhibiting anti-democratic thought seemed to be less intelligent. Success in college, indicative perhaps of higher intelligence, was accompanied by a lowering of F-scale scores. In children, emotional independence gave rise to a higher intelligence quotient. Although evidence was inconclusive as to the direction of relationship or critical age, studies showed some relationship between independence training and achievement.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study investigates relationships that exist between two groups of home economics freshmen differing in scholastic potential. Selected measures of two personality traits and seven independence training items were instrumental in determining relationships.

Grade point average predictions derived from American College Testing (ACT) scores were utilized in the selection of the criterion groups for this study. Although admissions requirements for Kansas State University included participation in the ACT program, applications for admissions were not rejected as a result of low scores.

The American College Testing battery included four sections: two designed to test application of known facts and two designed to measure comprehension and utilization of new material. Although comparison with national norms was possible, the predicted grade point average utilized in this study related the ACT performance of the student to the academic performance in previous years of students at Kansas State University in the College of Home Economics with similar scores.

ACT English measured student knowledge of basic elements of punctuation, capitalization, word choice and organization,

and phraseology. The ability to put this knowledge into an actual writing situation was considered. ACT Mathematics measured memory of high school geometry and first-year algebra and the ability to use this knowledge in solving problems. ACT Social Studies measured development in the ability to consider and evaluate writings in social science and to reason in a manner characteristic of the social sciences. ACT Natural Science measured development in the ability to consider and evaluate writings in natural science and to reason in a manner characteristic of the natural sciences.

The ACT battery was included in the 1963 Kansas State University pre-enrollment testing battery as was the E-scale, the F-scale, a twenty-nine-item biographical questionnaire and other psychological measures. The pre-enrollment testing program was administered by the Kansas State University Student Counseling Center. Scores obtained during the testing program were made available by the Counseling Center for this study.

The final twenty-item E-scale and twenty-nine of the final thirty-item F-scale suggested by Adorno et al. (1950) were utilized by the Counseling Center for the pre-enrollment battery. One item of the F-scale, concerning the use of force to preserve the American way of life, was not included. No adequate explanation of the omission can be offered although the omission may have occurred because of a change in numerical designation. Confusion evidently arose when two items were assigned the same number by Adorno et al. (1950). A true-false answering system was employed by the Counseling Center for the

E-scale and the F-scale.

Seven items designed to assess independence training were included in the biographical questionnaire. In selecting independence training items, the Counseling Center considered the data presented by Chance (1961). Chance, after adding eight items, used chi square analysis in tests of significance. Several of these items seemed most critical in differentiating among early- and late-independence-training mothers. The seven items subsequently chosen differentiated significantly between mothers encouraging early independence and mothers who did not encourage early independence. Although three other of the twenty-eight items were also significant at the .01 level, those items concerning staying at home during the day alone, eating alone without help in cutting and handling food, and leading other children were not included in the pre-enrollment battery. An age range divided into six equal sections and a "never" category allowed the subject seven choices in responding to each independence training item.

Subjects

Using predicted grade point average derived from ACT scores as criterion, two groups of twenty-five freshman home economics women were selected. A numerical ranking by predicted grade point average was obtained from the Student Counseling Center for 221 freshman home economics students. All had completed enrollment during the orientation and enrollment period, September, 1963. Those twenty-five with lowest

predicted grade point average were categorized as the "Low Scholastic Potential" group (LSP), and the twenty-five with highest predicted grade point average were classified as the "High Scholastic Potential" group (HSP).

E-scale scores, F-scale scores, and independence training measure scores were available for sixteen of the twenty-five LSP women. The predicted grade point average for this group ranged from 0.23 to 1.27 on a 4.00 system. Data mentioned previously were available on nineteen of the twenty-five HSP women. The predicted grade point averages for the HSP women ranged from 2.88 to 3.38.

Instruments

The E-Scale

The E-scale (Appendix A, pp. 45, 46), developed by Adorno et al. (1950), has been described as a measure of ethnocentrism. Various trial scales were utilized in the revision of the original thirty-four item scale, resulting in the final E-scale of twenty items. Three subscales were defined, purporting to measure ethnocentric feelings toward Jews, Negroes, and other minorities and patriotism. Each of the final items was chosen on the basis of statistical adequacy and theoretical significance.

Because of their availability, college students were the original subjects involved in E-scale testing. The researchers then examined various other groups including as many varieties of sociological variables as possible. Included as

experimental groups were prison inmates, psychiatric clinic patients, middle and working class men and women, service club men, employment service men veterans, and maritime school men.

All E-scale items were negative or hostile to the group in question. A high score was indicative of an individual with certain patterns of ingroup-outgroup rigidity. A range of scores from 0, indicating disagreement with all twenty items, to 20, indicating agreement with every item, was possible.

Validation of the E-scale by Adorno et al. (1950) was through the use of case study material. E-scale responses were compared to interview material and found to be consistent with that material. Pronounced idealization of the ingroup and rejection of the outgroup was shown clearly in interview material of a high E-scale scorer. Similar exploration of interview material of an extremely low E-scale scorer showed an individual who strongly believed in social equality for minorities and democratic internationalism.

Overall reliabilities on the trial E-scales from which the final items were taken ranged from .79 to .91. Although reliability for the final E-scale was not established, the authors state that the reliability of the final E-scale was probably about .85 on the average (Adorno et al., 1950).

The F-Scale

The F-scale (Appendix B, pp. 47-49), described previously as a measure of anti-democratic thought, was developed in the same manner as the E-scale. Revision of the original

thirty-eight-item scale led to the final thirty-item scale. Twenty-nine of the final thirty items were available for analysis.

Responses of college students were utilized in testing the original scale. Subsequent revisions were tested on the same groups utilized in the development of the E-scale.

F-scale items were stated in such a manner that high scores indicated a high degree of anti-democratic thought. A range of scores from 0, indicating disagreement with all twenty-nine items, to 29, indicating agreement with all items, was theoretically possible.

Validation of the F-scale was through the use of case study material. Although a wider diversity of personality tendencies was explored by the F-scale, interview material reinforced personality differences in high and low F-scale scorers.

Overall reliability for the trial scales ranged from .74 to .90. As was the case with the E-scale, a reliability study was not completed for the final scale. The .90 reliability occurred, however, on the trial scale tested previous to the formulation of the final form.

Independence Training Items

Seven of the twenty independence training measures used originally by Winterbottom (1958) were revised and administered as part of a biographical questionnaire (Appendix C, pp. 50, 51). In the original items, designed to assess maternal action, the

mother was able to indicate training demands by checking those items she expected her son to be able to do when he was ten years old and to write in the age at which she expected such behavior.

Change in the nature of the testing group necessitated revision of the items. Rather than asking a mother to indicate the age at which a child should learn an activity, the child, now a college freshman, was asked at what age the parent had encouraged the child to carry out a certain activity.

Six age ranges and a "never" category were available for response to each independence training item. The age range of zero to three years of age was scored 1, four to six years of age was scored 2, seven to nine years of age was scored 3, ten to twelve years of age was scored 4, thirteen to fifteen years of age was scored 5, sixteen to eighteen years of age was scored 6, and "never" was scored 7. Lower numerical scores, then, were indicative of earlier independence training.

Validity and reliability information was not offered in McClelland (1953), Winterbottom (1958), or Chance (1961).

In previous studies, scores represented maternal opinions concerning independence training. In this study, scores designate age ranges perceived by students as the age at which independence training had taken place.

Procedure

All freshman subjects completed the ACT battery, the E-scale, the F-scale, a twenty-nine item biographical questionnaire which included seven independence training items, and

other psychological measures as a part of the 1963 Kansas State University pre-enrollment battery. Scores obtained on these instruments were made available by the Student Counseling Center for this study. From the subjects who took the pre-enrollment battery the twenty-five lowest scholastic potential home economics women were selected. Complete data were available on nineteen HSP women and on sixteen LSP women. Analyses were based on the scores of subjects for whom the data were complete.

After data were obtained, IBM cards were punched for analysis on a standard computer program. A dichotomous division of high and low was utilized for scholastic potential while scores were available for the E-scale, the F-scale, and the age range designations for encouragement of the seven independence training measures. Correlations among the nine variables were obtained using Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient. Point biserial correlations were obtained for comparison of the nine variables to the criterion of academic potential. Fisher's exact test was utilized in measuring the relationship between academic potential and independence training.

Whereas the two groups examined in this study were not random samples of college students, an entirely appropriate test of significance could not be made. It must also be noted that the point biserial analysis has been considered a biased measure when used with extreme groups. Therefore, it was unlikely that as great a separation as that observed would occur by chance if the groups were random samples from a homogenous, nearly normal population.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

Correlations Among Variables

In order to determine the existence of relationships among the E-scale, the F-scale, and the seven independence training measures, correlations were obtained utilizing Pearson's product moment analysis.

Correlation between E-scale scores and F-scale scores was .73 which was significant, well above the .01 level.

As has been stated, the possible range of E-scale scores was 0 to 20 while the possible F-scale score range was 0 to 29. A range of E-scale scores from 1 to 15 was obtained for the thirty-five subjects while the overall F-scale range was 2 to 26.

E-scale scores for the sixteen LSP women ranged from 3 to 15 with a mean of 7.69 and a standard deviation of 3.94. In comparison, the E-scale scores for the nineteen HSP women ranged from 1 to 10 with a mean of 4.69 and a standard deviation of 2.65. The range, mean, and standard deviation of the E-scale scores was higher for LSP women than for HSP women. Such data seems to indicate greater ethnocentricity for low scholastic potential women than for high scholastic potential

women.

F-scale score range, mean, and standard deviation were higher for LSP women than for HSP women. The range of F-scale scores for LSP women was 10 to 26 with a standard deviation of 4.95 while the range for HSP women was 2 to 18 with a standard deviation of 3.57. Mean score for LSP women was 16.44, and 9.11 for HSP women. A greater tendency for anti-democratic thought among the LSP women than among the HSP women was indicated. The nature of the distribution and range of E-scale and F-scale scores in relation to academic potential is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
SUMMARY OF E-SCALE AND F-SCALE SCORES ACCORDING
TO LEVEL OF ACADEMIC POTENTIAL

Scholastic Group	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
E-Scale Scores			
HSP Women (N = 19)	1-10	4.69	2.65
LSP Women (N = 16)	3-15	7.69	3.94
F-Scale Scores			
HSP Women (N = 19)	2-18	9.11	3.57
LSP Women (N = 16)	10-26	16.44	4.95

Relationships between the independence training items and the two personality measures are shown in Table 2. One

significant correlation among fourteen was within chance expectancy. Item five, encouragement of the child to make decisions like choosing clothes or spending money, and F-scale scores were positively correlated at the .05 level of significance.

TABLE 2

PEARSON'S PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN
E-SCALE SCORES, F-SCALE SCORES AND
INDEPENDENCE TRAINING MEASURES

Independence Training Measure	E-scale Score	F-scale Score
Item #1. to try new things on your own without depending on parents for help (try new things)	0.01	0.17
Item #2. to try hard things for yourself without asking for help (try hard things)	-.02	.13
Item #3. to make your own friends among children of your own age (make own friends)	-.08	.10
Item #4. to have interests and hobbies of your own--to be able to entertain yourself (entertain self)	.22	.14
Item #5. to make for yourself decisions, like choosing your own clothes or how to spend money for toys, hobbies, recreation, etc. (make own decisions)	.24	.36*
Item #6. to do well in competition with other children--to try hard to come out on top in games and sports (compete with others)	-.26	-.21
Item #7. to decide on and purchase small gifts with your own money for family and close friends (spend money on others)	0.15	0.13

*Significant at .05 level, $r > .325$, $N = 35$

Later encouragement of such decision making may thus be related to high scores on the measure assessing anti-democratic thought.

Intercorrelation analysis was applied to the items assessing independence training in order to determine the nature of relationship among the items. Thirteen of the twenty-one intercorrelations were significant above the .05 level. All intercorrelations were positive, suggesting a single underlying factor or dimension. The results are presented in Table 3 in an intercorrelation matrix.

TABLE 3
INTERCORRELATION MATRIX OF INDEPENDENCE
TRAINING MEASURES

Independence Training Measure Number	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Try new things						
2. Try hard things	0.50**					
3. Make own friends	.36*	.46**				
4. Entertain self	.41*	.11	.48**			
5. Make own decisions	.65**	.34*	.37*	.53**		
6. Compete with others	.44**	.24	.16	.17	.35*	
7. Spend money on others	.30	.31	.29	.16	.43**	.63**

*Significant at .05 level, $r > .325$, $N = 35$

**Significant at .01 level, $r > .418$, $N = 35$

Correlations of Variables to Scholastic Potential

Point biserial correlation coefficient analysis was chosen for this portion of the study due to its appropriateness for comparison of a dichotomous measure to a range of scores. Results of comparisons between the selected measures of two personality traits and the dichotomous criterion of scholastic potential are shown in Table 4. The high negative correlations between E-scale scores and academic potential and between F-scale scores and academic potential are both significant. Low scholastic potential women were more ethnocentric and more apt to exhibit anti-democratic thought than high scholastic potential women.

TABLE 4

POINT BISERIAL CORRELATION OF E-SCALE AND F-SCALE
SCORES WITH THE DICHOTOMOUS CRITERION
OF SCHOLASTIC POTENTIAL

	Correlation with Criterion of Academic Potential
E-Scale	-0.43**
F-Scale	-0.65**

**Significant at .01 level, $r > .418$, $N = 35$

Results of the point biserial analysis show that HSP women reported earlier encouragement to:

try new things on your own without depending on parents for help (Item #1);

have interests and hobbies of your own--to be able to entertain yourself (Item #4); and

make for yourself decisions, like choosing your own clothes or how to spend money for toys, hobbies, recreation, etc. (Item #5).

Table 5 shows the results of the analysis of comparisons between independence training measures and the dichotomous criterion of academic potential.

TABLE 5

POINT BISERIAL CORRELATION OF INDEPENDENCE
TRAINING MEASURES WITH THE DICHOTOMOUS
CRITERION OF SCHOLASTIC POTENTIAL

Independence Training Measure Number	Correlation with Criterion
1. Try new things	-0.43**
2. Try hard things	- .12
3. Make own friends	- .17
4. Entertain self	- .39*
5. Make own decisions	- .41*
6. Compete with others	.06
7. Spend money on others	-0.17

*Significant at .05 level, $r > .325$, $N = 35$

**Significant at .01 level, $r > .418$, $N = 35$

The point biserial correlation analysis had been utilized to determine the direction of relationship and level of significance between independence training measures and achievement potential. Fisher's exact probability formula was then utilized in the identification of independence training measures which had been encouraged before a specific age. Use

of the Fisher's exact probability formula also served as a partial check on the bias which may have been produced by utilizing point biserial correlational analysis. Probability for each item was determined exclusive of all other items.

The age range of zero to nine years of age was chosen as the early independence training period while ten to eighteen years of age and the "never" category were chosen as indicative of later independence training. Two studies previously mentioned were considered in determining the critical age range for independence training. Dubin and Dubin (1963) delineated an authority inception period from birth to six through ten years of age. Research initiated by Winterbottom and reported by McClelland (1953) and Winterbottom (1958) used ten years of age as a ceiling for early independence training. For this study the range from zero to nine years of age was thought to most closely approximate the previous age range designations.

The two dimensions for this analysis were scholastic potential and independence training item age range designations. For each item analysis, four categories were utilized in determining data divisions for a 2 X 2 contingency table. The four categories were early trained HSP women, late trained HSP women, early trained LSP women, and late trained LSP women.

Analysis indicated that HSP women consistently received earlier independence training. Items with a probability of less than .02 indicate that HSP women report significantly earlier encouragement to:

try new things on your own without depending on parents for help (Item #1);

try hard things for yourself without asking for help (Item #2);

have interests and hobbies of your own--to be able to entertain yourself (Item #4); and

make for yourself decisions, like choosing your own clothes or how to spend money for toys, hobbies, recreation, etc. (Item #5).

Results of the Fisher's exact test analysis of relationships between independence training measures and the dichotomous criterion of academic potential are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6

PROBABILITY OF ENCOURAGEMENT OF EARLY INDEPENDENCE TRAINING MEASURES BY THE AGE OF NINE YEARS IN RELATION TO THE DICHOTOMOUS CRITERION OF SCHOLASTIC POTENTIAL

Independence Training Measure Number	Probability of True Relationship Between Variables Being Zero	Group Active During Age Range
1. Try new things	0.00145**	HSP
2. Try hard things	.00034**	HSP
3. Make own friends	.20321	
4. Entertain self	.00006**	HSP
5. Make own decisions	.01268 [†]	HSP
6. Compete with others	.56793	
7. Spend money on others	.11404	

[†]Significant at .02 level, N = 35

**Significant at .01 level, N = 35

Discussion

Data presented show a high positive relationship between the E-scale measuring ethnocentrism and the F-scale measuring anti-democratic thought. Generally high positive relationship was also obtained among the seven independence training measures. Correlations of the two personality measures to the seven independence training measures were generally non-significant.

Upon analysis of data in relation to academic potential, some significant relationships were found. E-scale scores and F-scale scores were found to be negatively related to achievement potential. Thus, students with higher academic potential were significantly less ethnocentric and exhibited fewer tendencies toward anti-democratic thought than the student with lower academic potential. The converse would also be true: lower academic potential students were more ethnocentric and exhibited a greater tendency toward anti-democratic thought. On the basis of the findings of this study, the hypothesis that no significant differences would occur between students differing in academic potential on selected measures of these two personality traits was rejected.

Significant differences emerge also when correlating independence training to academic potential. The four independence training items which emerge as significant seem, in particular, to deal with encouragement of the child to develop independent of the parent. The items concern the child doing something for himself, to have interests and hobbies of his

own, and to make decisions for himself.

The three items which emerged as non-significant dealt with the relationships of the child to other people in making friends with other children, in competing with other children, and in purchasing gifts for family and friends.

The significant items, then, may be said to deal with the development of intrinsic motivation, with skills and behaviors not related to other people.

The direction of relationship on one of the non-significant items was particularly noteworthy. In comparing achievement potential to the item measuring encouragement to do well in competition with other children--to try hard to come out on top in games and sports, the relationship was positive. The HSP women had been encouraged at a later date than LSP women to enter into competition with peers, to come out on top. The measure of competition, in this instance, may have been related to the pervading mother-child relationship. The child may not have existed for himself alone, but may have existed as a pawn to be used in competitive activities. The child was encouraged to develop in relation to others, to be best, rather than to develop in relation to himself, to do things for himself. The maternal motivation for encouragement in this case, would be instrumental in implanting in the child false motivations for success. The child may come to feel that success occurs in being measured against the mark set by others rather than success being related to an intrapersonal development or to a sharpening of personal skills.

In the development of independence, the child first needs to experience dependence. During this period of dependence, the child gains increasing freedom and continually extends limits of competency. It may be some time before he reaches the level of competency required in a competitive situation. The premature encouragement of the child to compete may result in a bypassing of the period of dependency and attainment of personal skill, thrusting the child into competition before he reaches any measure of personal competence. Since the period of dependency and development of personal competence had been bypassed, it may be that the child can no longer make realistic assessments of personal skills and can not develop healthy means for solving dependence-independence conflicts.

On the basis of the significant relationships found between independence training measures and academic potential, the hypothesis that there are no differences on the independence training measures among students differing in academic potential was rejected.

However, cause and effect relationship may not be in operation simply because two events occur in conjunction. It cannot be said that early independence training results in a lowering of the tendency for anti-democratic thought or lowered ethnocentrism. Nor can it be said that early independence training results in higher academic potential. It is true, however, that the three factors, independence training,

ethnocentrism, and anti-democratic thought, seemed to be related in some manner to achievement potential.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH

Summary

The purpose of this study was the investigation of relationships among academic potential, independence training, and selected personality traits. Subjects were thirty-five freshman women selected from a total population of 221 freshman women enrolled in the College of Home Economics at Kansas State University during the fall of 1963. Sixteen of the subjects were classified as being of low scholastic potential (LSP) while nineteen were classified as being of high scholastic potential (HSP) on the basis of American College Testing scores.

Two hypotheses were formulated:

- (1) There are no differences between LSP subjects and HSP subjects in ethnocentrism scores and anti-democratic thought scores.
- (2) There are no differences between LSP subjects and HSP subjects in selected independence training measures.

Scores on ethnocentrism and anti-democratic thought and seven independence training items were obtained from the Student Counseling Center. Point biserial correlations, Pearson's product moment correlation, and Fisher's exact test were used in determining relationships among academic potential,

independence training, ethnocentrism, and anti-democratic thought.

Upon analysis of the data, the null hypotheses were rejected. HSP women were significantly less ethnocentric and exhibited fewer tendencies toward anti-democratic thought than did LSP women. Also, HSP women were encouraged at an earlier age to take part in activities relating to their development as persons independent of their parents. Although not significant, there was a tendency for LSP women to have been urged to compete with peers.

Implications and Suggestions for Research

Results and implications of this study may have relevance to the total educative process. Primarily, three distinct disciplines would be involved: family life education, home economics education, and counseling. These three would approach the individual from different points of view.

A consideration of the total family life style would be appropriate to the family life educator. Some relationship between early independence training and academic potential was found in this study. It is possible that other child-rearing practices may be related to academic potential in a like manner. When a clearer picture of the antecedents of high academic potential are available, it may be possible to draw guidelines for the assistance of parents and professional educators in the preparation of the individual for optimum participation in formal education.

Research important to the family life educator may involve consideration of the pervading type of family atmosphere. A contrast could be drawn between two distinct styles of parental control. Parents who encourage independence may be more openminded and might also be more intelligent. Hence, the child may be more able to explore because of greater relative intelligence and openness to outside stimuli. While holding intelligence constant, it may be feasible to compare the effects of a controlling authoritarian family situation to the effects of a family situation which fosters curiosity and encourages questioning.

The motivations behind certain types of child-rearing practices could also be studied. It may be of interest to obtain maternal and paternal descriptions of the child, noting whether or not the child is described as a separate entity or is compared and contrasted with peers. Questions could be raised concerning the parental description of the child in relation to the subsequent achievement of that child in school.

It may be of importance to explore further the matter of critical age ranges in the encouragement of independence. Of particular interest may be the delineation of a period of dependence. The child, before venturing into new areas, must have some security and must have had some period of dependence on parents. Of worthwhile note might be a consideration of the strength and duration of this dependency period.

Home economics educators will have the opportunity to affect attitudes during teacher training and in the subsequent

dissemination of information to high school home economics students. Students on both the high school and college levels can be helped to view the guidance of a child from a qualitative rather than a quantitative viewpoint. An understanding and transmission of attitudes toward selective encouragement of independence may be facilitated. Such selective independence training may help the child define himself, not through comparison to peers, but through self definition and growth.

Home economics educators may wish to explore the relationship of personality characteristics, such as ethnocentrism and anti-democratic thought, to success in student teaching and success in teaching. It is of importance to describe more fully the personality characteristics of home economics educators who are most successful in relating to students in the classroom, in gaining the trust and confidence of the student, and in using creativity and imagination in transmitting information and in assisting in the formation of healthy student attitudes toward learning.

Counseling personnel may be involved in defining the approach of the individual to life processes. This study, while utilizing a readily available description of the student in terms of academic potential, offers some information on present personality characteristics and on events in the past which may affect participation in education. These factors would be of particular importance in the consideration of attitudes toward authority figures and approaches toward scholastic achievement.

Counseling personnel may find it provocative to explore the relationship between success and/or duration of counseling to pre- and post-counseling measures of ethnocentrism and anti-democratic thought. It may be that some students have such rigid perceptions that counseling may be a long and tenuous undertaking. An individual with a combination of low academic potential, high anti-democratic thought, and high ethnocentrism may be most costly in terms of counselor hours.

Counseling and student personnel workers may also be interested in the effect of early childhood training on the tendency of the student to learn independently, to experience success in the classroom situation, to explore extra-curricular activities, and to approach counseling situations. Research investigating the effect of different combinations of academic potential and early training may be worthwhile.

The effect of academic potential, independence training, and personality characteristics may have an impact on participation in group activities. It may be of importance to investigate the nature of combinations which facilitate group formation and healthy group dynamics. For example, the combination of students who are highly ethnocentric and have a tendency toward anti-democratic thought with students of opposing views may create a situation marked with tension, anxiety, and threat.

Research topics suggested as possibilities for family life educators, home economics educators, and counselors and student personnel workers only serve to indicate the wide

variety of questions and issues that may be explored. That there are many questions that can be asked is an understatement.

APPENDIX A

THE E-SCALE

The F-scale and the directions accompanying it appeared in the pre-enrollment testing booklet in order before the E-scale. Therefore, the instructions for the F-scale apply to the E-scale also. Presented below are the instructions immediately preceding the E-scale test items.

Please be as honest as possible with the following questions.

131. One trouble with Jewish businessmen is that they stick together and prevent other people from having a fair chance in competition.
132. Negroes have their rights, but it is best to keep them in their own districts and schools and to prevent too much contact with whites.
133. Zootsuits prove that when people of their type have too much money and freedom, they just take advantage and cause trouble.
134. I can hardly imagine myself marrying a Jew.
135. It would be a mistake ever to have Negroes for foremen and leaders over whites.
136. The worst danger to real Americanism during the last 50 years has come from foreign ideas and agitators.
137. There may be a few exceptions, but in general Jews are pretty much alike.
138. Negro musicians may sometimes be as good as white musicians, but it is a mistake to have mixed Negro-white bands.
139. Now that a new world organization is set up, America must be sure that she loses none of her independence and complete power as a sovereign nation.

140. The trouble with letting Jews into a nice neighborhood is that they gradually give it a typical Jewish atmosphere.
141. Manual labor and unskilled jobs seem to fit the Negro mentality and ability better than more skilled or responsible work.
142. Certain religious sects who refuse to salute the flag should be forced to conform to such a patriotic action, or else be abolished.
143. To end prejudice against Jews, the first step is for the Jews to try sincerely to get rid of their harmful and irritating faults.
144. There is something different and strange about Jews; it's hard to tell what they are thinking and planning, and what makes them tick.
145. People who raise all the talk about putting Negroes on the same level as whites are mostly radical agitators trying to stir up conflicts.
146. Filipinos are all right in their place, but they carry it too far when they dress lavishly and go around with white girls.
147. Most Negroes would become overbearing and disagreeable if not kept in their place.
148. America may not be perfect, but the American Way has brought us about as close as human beings can get to a perfect society.
149. It is only natural and right for each person to think that his family is better than any other.
150. The best guarantee of our national security is for America to have the biggest army and navy in the world and the secret of the atom bomb.

APPENDIX B

THE F-SCALE

Presented below are the instructions immediately preceding the F-scale test items. These instructions applied also to the E-scale items which appeared in the pre-enrollment booklet after the F-scale items.

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is true or false as it pertains to you personally.

46. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.
47. No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if we have enough will power.
48. Science has its place, but there are many important things that can never possibly be understood by the human mind.
49. Human nature being what it is, there will always be war and conflict.
50. Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question.
51. When a person has a problem or worry, it is best for him not to think about it, but to keep busy with more cheerful things.
52. A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.
53. What the youth needs most is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country.
54. Some people are born with an urge to jump from high places.

55. Nowadays when so many different kinds of people move around and mix together so much, a person has to protect himself especially carefully against catching an infection or disease from them.
56. An insult to our honor should always be punished.
57. Young people sometimes get rebellious ideas, but as they grow up they ought to get over them and settle down.
58. It is best to use some prewar authorities in Germany to keep order and prevent chaos.
59. What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their faith.
60. Sex crimes, such as rape and attacks on children, deserve more than mere imprisonment; such criminals ought to be publicly whipped, or worse.
61. People can be divided into two distinct classes: the weak and the strong.
62. There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.
63. Some day it will probably be shown that astrology can explain a lot of things.
64. Nowadays more and more people are prying into matters that should remain personal and private.
65. Wars and social troubles may someday be ended by an earthquake or flood that will destroy the whole world.
66. Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, and feeble-minded people.
67. The wild sex life of the old Greeks and Romans was tame compared to some of the goings-on in this country, even in places where people might least expect it.
68. If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off.
69. Most people don't realize how much our lives are controlled by plots hatched in secret places.
70. Homosexuals are hardly better than criminals and ought to be severely punished.

71. The business man and the manufacturer are much more important to society than the artist and the professor.
72. No sane, normal, decent person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative.
73. Familiarity breeds contempt.
74. Nobody ever learned anything really important except through suffering.

APPENDIX C

INDEPENDENCE TRAINING MEASURES

The seven independence training measures appeared as the last items in a twenty-nine-item biographical questionnaire. The numbers 1 through 7 have been substituted for the numbers 23 through 29 for ease of identification. The following directions were given:

At approximately what age did your parents encourage you (there are no right answers so be honest--give your best guess):

1. to try new things on your own without depending on them for help (circle one)

0 - 3 years of age	1
4 - 6 years of age	2
7 - 9 years of age	3
10 - 12 years of age	4
13 - 15 years of age	5
16 - 18 years of age	6
never	7

2. to try hard things for yourself without asking for help (circle one)

0 - 3 years of age	1
4 - 6 years of age	2
7 - 9 years of age	3
10 - 12 years of age	4
13 - 15 years of age	5
16 - 18 years of age	6
never	7

3. to make your own friends among children of your own age
(circle one)

0 - 3 years of age	1
4 - 6 years of age	2
7 - 9 years of age	3
10 - 12 years of age	4
13 - 15 years of age	5
16 - 18 years of age	6
never	7

4. to have interests and hobbies of your own--to be able to entertain yourself (circle one)

0 - 3 years of age	1
4 - 6 years of age	2
7 - 9 years of age	3
10 - 12 years of age	4
13 - 15 years of age	5
16 - 18 years of age	6
never	7

5. to make for yourself decisions, like choosing your own clothes or how to spend money for toys, hobbies, recreation, etc. (circle one)

0 - 3 years of age	1
4 - 6 years of age	2
7 - 9 years of age	3
10 - 12 years of age	4
13 - 15 years of age	5
16 - 18 years of age	6
never	7

6. to do well in competition with other children--to try hard to come out on top in games and sports (circle one)

0 - 3 years of age	1
4 - 6 years of age	2
7 - 9 years of age	3
10 - 12 years of age	4
13 - 15 years of age	5
16 - 18 years of age	6
never	7

7. to decide on and purchase small gifts with your own money for family and close friends (circle one)

0 - 3 years of age	1
4 - 6 years of age	2
7 - 9 years of age	3
10 - 12 years of age	4
13 - 15 years of age	5
16 - 18 years of age	6
never	7

LITERATURE CITED

- Adorno, T. W., Else Frenkel-Brunswik, D. J. Levinson, and R. N. Sanford.
The authoritarian personality. New York: Harper. 1950.
- Blatz, W. E.
Understanding the young child. New York: Morrow. 1944.
- Brown, Roger W.
A determinant of the relationship between rigidity and authoritarianism. J. abnorm. soc. Psychol. 48:469-476. 1953.
- Chance, June Elizabeth
Independence training and first grader's achievement. J. consult Psychol. 25:149-154. 1961.
- Crandall, Vaughn J., Anne Preston, and Alica Rabson.
Maternal reactions and the development of independence and achievement behavior in young children. Child Developm. 31:243-251. 1960.
- Dubin, Elizabeth Ruch, and Robert Dubin.
The authority inception period in socialization. Child Developm. 34:885-898. 1963.
- Frenkel-Brunswik, Else.
Parents and childhood as seen through interviews. In T. W. Adorno, Else Frenkel-Brunswik, D. J. Levinson, and R. N. Sanford. The authoritarian personality. New York: Harper. 1950.
- Jersild, Arthur T.
Child psychology. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall. 1960.
- Levinson, Daniel J.
Ethnocentrism in relation to intelligence and education. In T. W. Adorno, Else Frenkel-Brunswik, D. J. Levinson, and R. N. Sanford. The authoritarian personality. New York: Harper. 1950.
- Levinson, Daniel J.
The study of ethnocentric ideology. In T. W. Adorno, Else Frenkel-Brunswik, D. J. Levinson, and R. N. Sanford. The authoritarian personality. New York: Harper. 1950.

- McClelland, David G., John W. Atkinson, Russell A. Clark, and Edgar L. Lowell.
The achievement motive. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts. 1953.
- Mosher, Donald L., and Alvin Scodel.
Relationships between ethnocentrism in children and the ethnocentrism and authoritarian rearing practices of their mothers. *Child Developm.* 31:369-376. 1960.
- Rokeach, Milton.
Political and religious dogmatism, an alternative to the authoritarian personality. *Psychol. Monogr.* 18:1-43. 1956.
- Sanford, Nevitt.
The American college. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 1962.
- Sanford, R. Nevitt, T. W. Adorno, Else Frenkel-Brunswik, and Daniel J. Levinson.
The measurement of implicit anti-democratic trends. In T. W. Adorno, Else Frenkel-Brunswik, D. J. Levinson, and R. N. Sanford. *The authoritarian personality*. New York: Harper. 1950.
- Sontag, Lester W., and Charles T. Baker.
Personality, familial, and physical correlates of change in mental ability. In Lester W. Sontag, Charles T. Baker, and Virginia L. Nelson. *Mental growth and personality development: a longitudinal study*. *Monogr. Soc. Res. Child Developm.* 68:1-143. 1958.
- Webster, Harold, Mervin Freedman, and Paul Heist.
Personality changes in college students. In Nevitt Sanford. *The American college*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 1962.
- Winterbottom, Marian R.
The relation of need for achievement to learning experiences in independence and mastery. In J. W. Atkinson (Ed.). *Motives in fantasy, action, and society*. Princeton: Van Nostrand. 1958.

COMPARISON OF TWO GROUPS OF HOME ECONOMICS FRESHMEN
DIFFERING IN SCHOLASTIC POTENTIAL USING
SELECTED DEVELOPMENTAL FACTORS

by

PATRICIA IRENE HELMS

B. S., Kansas State University, 1963

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Family and Child Development

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1966

The purpose of this study was the investigation of relationships among academic potential, independence training, and selected personality traits. Subjects were thirty-five freshman women selected from a total population of 221 freshman women enrolled in the College of Home Economics at Kansas State University during the fall of 1963. Sixteen of the subjects were classified as being of low scholastic potential (LSP) while nineteen were classified as being of high scholastic potential (HSP) on the basis of American College Testing scores.

Two hypotheses were formulated:

- (1) There are no differences between LSP subjects and HSP subjects in ethnocentrism scores and anti-democratic thought scores.
- (2) There are no differences between LSP subjects and HSP subjects in selected independence training measures.

Scores on ethnocentrism and anti-democratic thought and seven independence training items were obtained from the Student Counseling Center. Point biserial correlations, Pearson's product moment correlation, and Fisher's exact test were used in determining relationships among academic potential, independence training, ethnocentrism, and anti-democratic thought.

Upon analysis of the data, the null hypotheses were rejected. HSP women were significantly less ethnocentric and exhibited fewer tendencies toward anti-democratic thought than did LSP women. Also, HSP women were encouraged at an earlier

age to take part in activities relating to their development as persons independent of their parents. Although not significant, there was a tendency for LSP women to have been urged to compete with peers.

Implications and suggestions for further research in selected disciplines were presented.