SELF CONCEPT AND SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT:
A comparison of the self concepts of normal achievers and underachievers and an evaluation of the efficacy of a group counselling program on the self concepts and achievement of underachievers.

Thesis submitted to the Department of Psychology, University of Cape Town, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Clinical Psychology.

by

Peter Brinley Harper

October, 1978.

"Let people realise clearly that every time they threaten someone or humiliate or hurt unnecessarily or dominate or reject another human being, they become forces for the creation of psychopathology, even if these be small forces. Let them recognise that every man who is kind, helpful, decent, psychologically democratic, affectionate and warm, is a psychotherapeutic force even though a small one."

Abraham H. Maslow

Motivation and Personality.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.

My sincere appreciation is extended to :

Mr. Renos Papadopoulos, my Supervisor, for his enthusiasm, guidance and support.

Mr. George Nortje for his time, assistance, interest and encouragement.

Mr. Lester Gilbert of the Department of Psychology, University of Cape Town, and Dr. Kotze of the Medical Research Council for help concerning statistics.

The Cape Education Department for their permission to conduct this research.

Mrs. Disa Child, who typed the manuscript.

My wife, Glynis, without whose support this thesis would never have been completed.

In addition, the financial assistance of the Human Sciences Research Council is hereby acknowledged. Opinions expressed or conclusions reached are mine, and are not to be regarded as a reflection of the opinions and conclusions of either the Human Sciences Research Council or the Cape Education Department.

Finally, my thanks go to the principals and pupils of the schools in which this research was conducted.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES.

LIST OF TABLES APPENDED.

SELF CONCEPT AND SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT:
A comparison of the self concepts
of normal achievers and underachievers
and an evaluation of the efficacy
of a group counselling program on the
self concepts and achievement of
underachievers.

Peter Brinley Harper.

The self concepts of academic underachievers and normal achievers were compared. These two academic types differed significantly on various dimensions of self concept on both an intra and an interpersonal level. In all cases underachievers perceived themselves in a significantly less favourable light than did normal achievers. Underachievers were then divided into control and experimental groups. The experimental group was involved in a group counselling program designed for exploration of the self, over approximately six months. One control group did their homework in the presence of the experimenter for an equivalent period of time. The second control group received no treatment. Psychometric assessment of self concept and level of achievement following the program did not show any significant change. Explanations for this are offered and suggestions are made that more subtle changes took place.

Introduction

The quest to understand the inner functioning of man can be traced to the seventeenth century where philosophers such as Descartes, Leibnitz and Spinoza were using the terms 'self' and 'psyche' in their consideration of the nonphysical aspects of man. Whereas philosophers regarded the self to be the knower with an executive function, William James (1890) in introducing self to the realm of psychology considered it to be the object of that which is known. Cooley (1902) introduced the term 'looking glass self' to incorporate the influence of the individual's perception of others' opinions of himself. Freud's concept of the ego is easily confused with the concept of the self. However, self should be seen as the object as the individual experiences himself. The ego is seen to include aspects of the individual's life of which the individual is unaware. McDougall (1908) and Mead (1934) stressed the importance of social interaction in the development of self concept and introduced the concept of the 'generalised other'. For Lecky (1945) self concept was the nucleus of personality and was motivated by a need to maintain a consistency of values between the view the individual held of himself and the manner in which he experienced his environment.

Snygg and Combs (1949) saw the self concept as being constituted by those parts of the phenomenal field which the individual had differentiated as definite characteristics of himself. The self is thus a unique set of perceptions of one's characteristics and operates to maintain inner consistency; to determine how experiences are interpreted and to provide a set of expectancies for the individual. It is "the individual's basic frame of reference, the central core around which the remainder of the perceptual field is organised." (Snygg and Combs, 1949, page 146).

The individual's self concept is not an instinctual 'given'. It develops with the accumulation of experience and is the product of a social interaction, being forged through the accumulation of experience and through adjustment in accordance with the external pressures imposed on the individual.

Considerable influence on self concept is provided by significant adults in the environment of the developing child. The behaviour of the developing child is considered to derive directly from his perception of himself; and the people who are important to him influence his perception of himself. It is during the early childhood years then that the child's conception of himself develops, and, for good or for ill, the child is moulded by the repeated behaviour of those in his environment who are significant to him. The role of parents in the shaping of self concept is crucial and should not be underestimated. Its influence extends beyond adolescence and into adulthood. Ultimately the self is constituted of an abstraction of the attributes, objects and activities which the individual possesses and pursues. The symbol 'me' is that abstraction which represents the person's idea of himself, and the appearance of language in the child gives him the ability to distinguish between 'me' and 'not me' in his symbolisation and understanding of his experiences.

It is in the context of family living that the child's earliest and most permanent self definitions are forged; and by the time he enters school he has a clear idea about himself and his abilities. Graduation to school requires a revision of self conception to incorporate a far wider social sphere. During this phase of development the child is however assisted by the expansion of his cognitive capacities. A final

phase in the development of self concept is that of adolescence. It is during this phase that the self becomes oriented toward future planning and longer term goals.

Self concept has been an area of concern in psychology for a number of years. However, it is a concept which often confuses many who consider it to be elusive and lacking in precision. There are few (if any) really effective measuring devices which are able to measure self concept directly. In order that the problem might be circumvented, it has been necessary to infer the nature of self concept from the behaviour of the individual. What the individual has to say about himself is one useful basis from which such inferences can be made.

The field of underachievement, like that of the self concept, seems to be beset by much controversy. Some theorists maintain that the concept of underachievement is a pseudo concept for if one is able to underachieve, one should logically also be able to over achieve. Followers of this notion maintain that it is not possible for any individual to perform at a level which is above the level of his capacity. However, it should be noted that there is no means by which a direct measurement of human capacity can take place. Intelligence and aptitude tests are capable only of making predictions sbout the performance of the individual. It is in terms of the predicted level of learning made by these instruments that it is possible to under and over achieve.

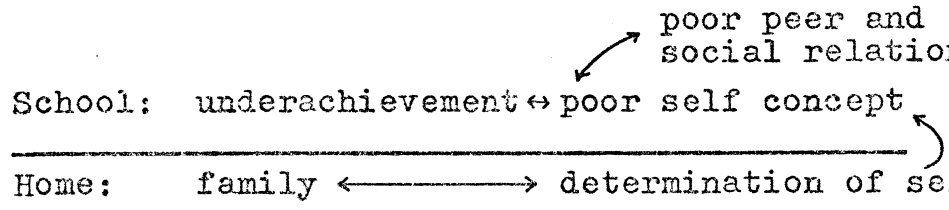
In predicting level of learning it is important that personality characteristics and environmental factors

should be taken into account. The fact that underachievers often obtain average and better scores on intelligence tests would appear to indicate that there are factors in addition to that of intelligence which are important in the determination of underachievement. Various authors have had different explanations for the causation of underachievement. Gough (1953) considers underachievement to be an a-social act. Other studies have related underachievement to such factors as emotional disturbances, organic brain damage, a poor home background, low sccio economic level and inadequate schooling facilities. These explanations are considered to be superficial and fragmented. The problem seems rather to be one of a primary operating force rather than a peripheral factor. The conceptualisation which appears to best satisfy the requirements of a molar motivating force behind underachievement is that of the self concept.

Roth and Meyersburg (1963) postulate a vicious circle of underachievement in which :

poor academic achievement results from
poor preparation, which grows out of
previous choices which are deeply rooted in self concept.

A developmental model of self concept takes account of the role of the family and significant adults in the development of the self concept and provides a more complete picture of the underachiever. This model could be conceptualised as follows :



Though most research has centred around secondary school and college populations the findings of studies linking self concept and scholastic achievement appear to be consistent for all levels of academic endeavour, from the kindergarten and elementary levels through to the college level. The notion that academic success is contingent upon ambition, cooperativeness, a sense of responsibility and seriousness, has been largely abandoned in favour of the more considerable evidence suggesting a relationship between self concept and academic achievement. Holder (1962), Bledsoe (1967), Roth and Puri (1967), Sears (1970) and Caplin (1969) have all reported a positive correlational relationship between self concept and academic achievement.

Several authors (Zimmerman and Allebrand 1965, Roberts, 1962, Morgan 1952, Shaw Edson and Bell, 1960 and Shaw and Alves, 1963) have noted that underachievers perceive themselves in a considerably less favourable light than do normal achievers. In summary they are isolated, lonely, sensitive to criticism, easily frustrated, have poor family and peer relationships, and employ constricted and fearful approaches in their problem solving attempts.

Hammachek (1971) noted that an improvement in the individual's belief of himself as a scholar was accompanied by a change in the level of his performance in the same direction as his view of himself had changed.

In accordance with the self theory of Carl Rogers in which adjustment is seen in part to be a function of the self concept and self acceptance, efforts to alter self concept so as to improve adjustment have taken place in the context of counselling and psychotherapy.

Studies on the counselling of underachievers rest on the assumptions of variability in capacity for scholastic achievement; the assumption that group intelligence tests will differentiate levels of mental ability for different individuals, and on an assumption that school marks will give some measure of actual level of achievement.

Bednar and Weinberg (1970) relate the following conditions to successful intervention in the sphere of underachievement :

i) the duration of the counselling contact - studies with more then 10 hours of counselling contact showed a greater improvement;

ii) the level of therapeutic conditions offered by the counsellor - increased success was found in approaches which were client centred, and

iii) client motivation to improve his own underachieving condition.

There has been very little research in the field of underachievement in South African schools, where it is considered that upward of 10% of pupils are underachievers. The accumulation of a sound body on knowledge about the underachiever will make it possible to direct intervention in the vicious circle of underachievement and hopefully to contribute to its amelioration. This study is intended to provide the initial steps in this direction.

Hypotheses:

i) Ha: There is a significant difference between the self concepts (and characteristics) of normalachievers and underachievers as assessed by various psychometric scales.

ii) Ha: There will be a significant difference before and after a group counselling program on the self concepts and level of scholastic achievement of a group of underachievers.

Method:

1. Subjects:
The subjects in this study were selected from a population of 167 White Standard 4 and 5 pupils attending two middle class male preparatory schools in the Cape Peninsula. The subjects were of an average age of 12 years and English speaking.
Subjects who were termed underachievers were those whose I.Q. stanine scores were two or more points higher than their stanine scores on a scholastic achievement test. Normal-achievers were those pupils whose scores did not show a similar discrepancy.

2. Apparatus:

i) New South African Group Test (NSAGT). This is a group intelligence test which has been standardised on the White population of South African children. This test was used to predict level of potential.

ii) Scholastic Achievement Test in Arithmetic.
This is a group test of scholastic achievement standardised on a population comparable to that of the NSAGT, and used in conjunction with the NSAGT in the identification of underachievers.

iii) Junior Scholastic Proficiency Battery:
A test used in Standard 5, 6 and 7 populations which measures the effectiveness with which a pupil has utilised his learning opportunities in obtaining proficiency in the scholastic field.

iv) Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale :
This is a self report instrument used in determination of self concept.

v) California Test of Personality :
This is a personality test which purports to measure a number of the components of personal and social adjustment.

vi) The Self Development Program :
This twelve unit program was designed to give pupils the opportunity to expand the boundaries of their awareness and to give them a means of insight into their personality structures and the way in which they cope with the diverse intra and inter personal situations of life. Areas of exploration included : "My Feelings about Myself" ; "My Basic Needs" ; "Dealing with Reality" ; "My Emotions" ; "My Body" ; "My Self Image" ; "Relating to Others" etc.

3. Procedure :
The method of selecting subjects participating in the study has already been enumerated. The two groups constituted consisted of 30 underachievers and 49 normalachievers. The Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale and the

California Test of Personality were then administered to all subjects. Delineation of the various components of self concept then made it possible to compare these two academic types.

Following this comparison, the group of 30 underachievers were randomly divided into three groups of 10 subjects each. The experimental group participated in the Self Development program (a group counselling program) enumerated previously, over a period of approximately six months. One control group - the Homework control group - did their homework (and where necessary received assistance from the experimenter) over the same time period as the experimental group. The second control group received no treatment at all.

The self concept tests were then re-administered. An assessment of scholastic achievement was also made.

Results :

Hotelling's T^2 test was appropriate in analysis of the significance of the differences of the scores obtained by underachievers and normalachievers on the various self concept measures. Significant differences were found to exist between the two groups' scores on the following dimensions :

Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale:

Behaviour	(T^2 = 68,44 p < ,01)
Intellectual and School Status	(T^2 = 72,13 p < ,01)
Physical Appearance and Attributes	(T^2 = 26,75 p < ,01)
Anxiety	(T^2 = 44,67 p < ,01)
Popularity	(T^2 = 54,45 p < ,01)
Happiness and Satisfaction	(T^2 = 34,85 p < ,01)

California Test of Personality:

Self Reliance	(T^2 = 28,40 p < ,01)
Sense of Personal Worth	(T^2 =211,57 p < ,01)
Sense of Personal Freedom	(T^2 = 44,94 p < ,01)
Feeling of Belonging	(T^2 = 97,31 p < ,01)
Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies	(T^2 = 86,54 p < ,01)
Freedom from Nervous Tendencies	(T^2 = 90,64 p < ,01)
Social Standards	(T^2 = 31,97 p < ,01)
Social Skills	(T^2 = 25,04 p < ,01)
Freedom from Anti-Social Tendencies	(T^2 =104,34 p < ,01)
Family Relations	(T^2 = 58,88 p < ,01)
School Relations	(T^2 = 84,31 p < ,01)
Community Relations.	(T^2 = 37,28 p < ,01)

No statistically significant changes were found in the Self Concepts of individuals involved in the self developmental program.

Discussion and Conclusions:

The present study has been an attempt to clarify some of the confusion found in the literature concerning itself with self concept and academic achievement, and to isolate those aspects of the self concept of the underachiever which differ from the self concept of the achieving pupil. Since positive self conception is central to optimal scholastic performance, and since high academic achievement and positive self conception are positively correlated (Caplin, 1969) a program of group counselling was used in an attempt to improve the self concept and ultimately the level of achievement of underachievers.

The results of this study show conclusively that normal achievers and underachievers differ significantly in terms of the inter and intra-personal perceptions of themselves. The underachiever feels that he is personally inferior in nearly all aspects of his life, from his social relationships through to his personal appearance. As a result he is likely to be defensive, threatened and retiring in life. The underachiever is not competitive and since he is often the anxious, guilty and frustrated individual, he is capable only of poor academic work. Clearly, if this condition is to be ameliorated, some form of direct intervention is necessary.

Assessment, following the implementation of the self development program used in this study did not reveal any statistically significant change of self concept or improvement in academic achievement as measured by the psychometric instruments employed. However, it is purported that more subtle changes in the underachievers involved in the program took place. Their teachers reported that there was an improvement in classroom behaviour, greater sociability and a more accepting attitude of authority.

Several factors may have contributed to the lack of significance of change of self perception following the self development program. In terms of the evidence of Chodorkoff (1954) subjects completing self assessments before involvement in a treatment program tend to defensively inflate self estimates prior to treatment and to lower such assessments following treatment. This, and an attitude of flippancy on the part of many subjects during assessment may well have been confounding variables.

In terms of confounding variables of design, situational factors should be considered. Being conducted on a Friday after school hours, group members may well have resented the program, and perceived it as punishment for underachieving. Clearly the program should be part of the school curriculum.

Since theoretically it has been shown that self concept is not a surface phenomenon but a complex structure in the life of the individual, a change cannot be expected to be revealed on psychometric instruments after so short a space of time. A program of longer duration should preclude this as an interfering variable.

Criticisms of the relatively small number of subjects involved in the study, though valid, do not consider the whole picture. The inclusion of greater numbers of underachievers would necessitate using a larger pool of schools, and in so doing, confounding variables such as varying socio-economic status are implicated.

Finally, regarding future research, it is considered important that the parents of underachievers should be implicated in research by way of offering them a resource for the counselling for which they are so obviously eager.

REFERENCES

Bednar, R. L. and Weinberg, S. L. — Ingredients of successful treatment programs for underachievers. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1970, 17, pp. 1 - 7.

Bledsoe, J. — Self concept of children and their intelligence, achievement interests and anxiety. Child Education, 1967, 43, pp. 436 - 438.

Caplin, M. D. — The relationship between self concept and academic achievement. Journal of Experimental Education, 1969, 37 (3), pp. 13 - 16.

Chodorkoff, B. — Adjustment and the discrepancy between perceived and ideal self. Journal of Clinical Psychology. 1954, 10, pp. 266 - 268.

Cooley, C. H. — Human Nature and the Social Order. New York, Scribner's 1902.

Gough, H. G. — What determines the academic achievement of high school students ? Journal of Educational Research, 1953 46, pp. 321 - 331.

Hammachek, D. E. — The self in growth, teaching and learning. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice Hall, 1971.

Holder, R. — Roundtable on underachievement in gifted children. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1962, 32, pp. 350 - 351.

James, W. — The principles of psychology. New York: Dover Publications, 1890

Lecky, P. — Self consistency: a theory of personality: New York, Island Press, 1945.

McDougall, W. — An introduction to social psychology. London : Methuen, 1908.

Mead, G. H. — Mind, self and society. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934.

Morgan, H. H. — A psychiatric comparison of achieving and non-achieving college students of high ability. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1952, 16, pp. 292 - 298.

Roberts, H. E. — Factors affecting the academic under-achievement of bright high school students. Journal of Educational Research, 1962, 56 (4), pp. 175 - 183.

Roth, R. M. and Meyersburg, H.A. — The nonachievement syndrome. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1963 41, pp. 535 - 540.

Roth, R. M. and Puri, P. — Direction of aggression and the non-achievement syndrome. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1967 14, pp. 278 - 281.

Sears, P. S. — Levels of aspiration in academically successful and unsuccessful children. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1970, 35, pp. 498 - 536.

Shaw, M. C. Edson, K. and Bell, H. M. — The self concept of bright under-achieving high school students as revealed by an adjective check list. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1960, 39, pp. 193 - 196.

Shaw, M. C. and Alves, G. J. — The self concept of bright academic underachievers. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1963, 42, pp. 401 - 403.

Snygg, D. and Combs, A. W. — Individual behaviour. New York : Harper and Row, 1949.

Zimmerman, I. L. and Allebrand, G. N. — Personality characteristics and attitudes toward achievement of good and poor readers. Journal of Educational Research, 1965, 59 (1), pp. 28 - 30.

1. INTRODUCTION.

1.1 SELF CONCEPT : AN HISTORICAL OVERVIEW, ITS CHARACTERISTICS AND ITS DEVELOPMENT.

> Man is born neither devil nor saint. He merely reflects in his behaviour the nature of relationships he has had since the time of his birth, with people who were important to him.
>
> Karen Horney.

1.1.1 An Historical Overview :

Though one can envisage man's more primitive ancestors gathered around the cave fire pondering about themselves, it is only formally possible to date man's thinking about his nonphysical self to the written records of the philosophers of the Middle Ages. During the seventeenth century Descartes, Leibnitz and Spinoza all used terms such as "self", "psyche", "mind", and "soul" interchangeably when considering man's psychological self. It was only during the late nineteenth century that the concept of the self entered the realm of psychology. The concerted effort to understand the inner functioning of man can be dated from this period.

The writings of William James (1890) reflect the considerable interest in the self shown in the early history of American psychology. Whereas philosophy had regarded the self as "the knower with an executive function," James considered the self to be "the object of what is known." James' view that man's awareness of himself was created via his interaction with his environment was founded in Plato's notion that awareness of the physical environment was a necessary precusor to the development of self awareness. The self, as viewed by James, consisted of those elements

which the individual viewed as belonging to himself. Encompassed in the self were material, social and spiritual elements. Others' views of the individual constituted the social self, whilst the emotions and desires of the individual constituted the spiritual self. For James, aspirations and values held by the individual were important in determining self regard, and the larger the discrepancy between aspirations and actual achievements, the lower the individual's self regard. Where this occurs in areas on which the individual places a high value, the individual's self regard is further depressed. James also regarded material possessions, family and children as important determinants of self regard.

Historically, Cooley (1902) succeeded James in advancing theories of the self, and defined the self in terms of the referrents of the first person singular pronoun "I", "me", "myself". Those facets of the individual's life which he labelled as "self" were considered to be capable of evoking stronger emotions than those considered to be beyond the realm of the self. It is the subjective element which is so important to the labelling of "self". Cooley introduced the concept of "looking glass self" to reflect that phenomenon by which the individual perceives himself as others perceive him.

The early twentieth century saw the advent of Freud's voluminous writings. He emphasised the ego and its development rather than giving an explicit formulation of a self construct. Self concept and ego are easily confused. However it should be noted that "ego" refers to an aspect of the individual's personality structure from which impersonal generalisations can be made. The ego includes such non-self mechanisms of self-preservation as repression and defences, i.e. the ego

includes aspects of the individual's psychic life of which the self is unaware. As opposed to "ego", "self" refers to the object as the individual experiences himself.

The advent of behaviourism in the 1920's, with its emphasis on observable stimuli and responses, precluded the inclusion of the phenomenological construct of the self and its adjuncts of awareness and consciousness, from the sphere of psychological investigation. An aura of mysticism surrounded the self concept as far as the behaviourist was concerned, for he could neither see nor touch a self concept. For this reason the self could not be experimentally verified by the behaviourist.

There were, however, exceptions to this general neglect of the self concept. Thinkers such as McDougall (1908) and Mead (1934) stressed the importance of social interaction in the development of self-awareness. In the socialisation process, Mead believed that the individual internalises the ideas and attitudes expressed by key figures in his life and expresses them as his own. The reflected appraisal of others is thus important in the determination of self-regard, and the individual anticipates the reactions of others by perceiving the world as they ("the generalised other") perceive the world. The individual is thereby able to experiment with different behaviours and to observe the effects of these manipulations on the reactions of others. (Goffman, 1959). Hence Mead wrote: "The self, as that which can be an object to itself, is essentially a social structure, and it arises in social experience....it is impossible to conceive of a self arising outside of social experience." (Mead, 1934, page 140). More simply, the individual gets to know himself by first knowing others and then differentiating himself from the "mass" in which he was initially immersed.

Whereas Lewin (1935) considered the self to be an inner, relatively permanent structure which gave consistency to the personality, Alfred Adler (1927) was more concerned with low self esteem and its causes, rather than self concept per se. Adler saw the self as continually striving for social superiority. The impetus and direction of the continual "upward drive" of the self concept was seen as being provided by the individual's perception of his own inferiority. For Adler, the mother-child relationship and the acceptance, support and encouragement of family and peers was seen to be crucial to healthy development and high self regard.

Karen Horney (1945, 1950) believes that anxiety is increased and self regard lowered by parental and peer indifference, erratic behaviour, lack of respect for the child's individual needs, lack of real guidance and disparagement. Horney maintains that the individual protects himself from feelings of anxiety and self-derogation by formulating an "idealised image" of his goals and capacities. Fromm's (1947) view that failure to fulfil one's potential leads to lifelong bitterness and anxiety, is founded upon this notion.

Sullivan (1953) expanded on Horney's formulation and stressed the importance of significant others, particularly the mother figure in the social interaction of the child. He used the term "reflected appraisal" to suggest that the way in which an individual is treated or judged by others will influence to a considerable degree that individual's view of himself. The self, for Sullivan, was constituted by a system of experience which was necessitated by the need to avoid or to minimise anxiety. Aiming for satisfaction, the child thus internalises the values and prohibitions which will serve as a means towards satisfaction.

"When I talk about the self-system, I want it clearly understood that I am talking about a dynamism which comes to be enormously important in understanding interpersonal relations. This dynamism is an explanatory conception, it is not a thing, a region or what not, such as superegos, egos ids, and so on." (Sullivan, 1953 in Epstein, 1973, page 404).

Lecky (1945) considered the self concept to be the nucleus of personality and saw the motivating force behind human behaviour as being the need to maintain a consistency of values. New experiences would thus be assimilated, rejected or modified by the self system which was continually striving for unification. "....the self is both an outcome of education, and, once it has developed, a condition for subsequent learning." (Staines, 1958, page 98).

Snygg and Combs (1949) defined the self concept in terms of the "parts of the phenomenal field which the individual has differentiated as definite and fairly stable characteristics of himself." Snygg and Combs, 1949, page 112). This, the individual's basic frame of reference, constitutes a central core around which the individual's perceptual field is organised. The self concept is a dynamic force of human life - it both produces, and is a product of experience.

Allport (1955) preferred the term proprium to self. The proprium incorporated the aspects of the individual which were of central importance to him. This inner core enabled man to establish his aspirations, and to set a purposeful and rational road for future development in the broader context of life.

The theories of Maslow (1954) and Rogers (1951, 1961) followed on from Lecky's conception. They expanded the view that man's behaviour is always meaningful and understandable in terms of his phenomenal perception of the world. Though this understanding can never be complete, a knowledge of the individual's self concept contributes towards a more complete understanding, and, by implication, advances the reliability of predictions about behaviour.

1.1.2 The Characteristics of the Self Concept :

The self concept can be discussed from a number of different theoretical viewpoints. Phenomenologically, the self concept is central to the adjustment and behaviour of the individual and is fundamental to the nondirective therapy of Carl Rogers (1951). The self structure is perceived of as "an organised configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness. It is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities, the percepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence." (Rogers, 1951, page 136).

From the structural point of view the self is to be seen in terms of the set of concepts from which the individual is able to define himself. The self is a unique set of perceptions and a powerful determinant of behaviour. It

i) operates as a mechanism for maintaining inner consistency;
ii) determines how experiences are interpreted, and
iii) provides a set of expectancies for the individual.

The parts of the self concept interact freely yet cohesively with each other and are blended together into a unified and dynamic whole. The self may be seen as a learned perceptual system, built on many perceptual experiences (internal and external to the individual) and then transformed by the individual to become conceptual.

The individual's self concept is a theory of self held by the individual. This theory is constructed by the individual as he interacts with his environment and is a process which is neither conscious nor intentional. The theory held by the individual is part of the broader view that the individual has of all his significant experience. (Epstein, 1973).

The self may also be seen in terms of psychological constructs; it is a conceptual tool which operates continually to bring the pleasure-pain continuum in the life of the individual into equalibrium. In this way the self concept operates to maintain the self esteem of the individual, it organises the experience of the individual so that he can cope with his experience.

Epstein (1973) regards the self concept as a dynamic organisation of internally consistent, hierarchical systems which strive for growth and which change with experience, particularly experience arising out of the social interaction with significant others. Further, the self concept organises data from the environment such that sequences of action and reaction are predictable. This enables the facilitation of need-fulfilment and the simultaneous avoidance of disapproval and anxiety.

Rogers (1951) postulates that the self concept arises as a result of experience in an interaction with the environment. Experiences are either symbolised and assimilated into the self, ignored (where there is no perceived relationship to the self); or denied or distorted if they are too discrepant from the self perception. Behaviours adopted are usually those consistent with conception of self. Those not consistent with the self organisation are usually perceived as threatening. Where threats are increased, the organisation of the self structure becomes rigid in a bid for survival.

Fitts et al (1971) consider three principal elements to the self :

i) The Identity self;
ii) The Behavioural self; and
iii) The Judging self.

The Identity self or self-as-object coincides with the views expounded by James (1890), but in essence is constituted from those symbols used by the individual to describe his identity. Throughout life, but particularly in infancy, behaviour precedes identity. Young children often are their behaviour, and before the development of self-description the child is what he is doing or feeling. He does not make any role part of his identity without also making it a part of his behaviour. The Behavioural self operates in response to internal and external stimuli. The consequences of responses determine whether the behaviours continue, and become incorporated into the behavioural repertoire and identity of the individual, or whether they are discarded. The Judging self operates as an evaluating mediator between the Behavioural self and the Identity self, and thereby provides the sustenance for self-esteem. The self perceptions of the Judging self focus only

on the characteristics of the Identity self and the actions of the Behavioural self which are contributing to the current enhancement of the self. Past attributes become unimportant if they do not make any contribution to current self esteem. Thus, it is the Judging self which determines the extent to which the individual is satisfied with himself. Fitts et al note that "low self-satisfaction tends to generate acute self consciousness, poor self esteem and perhaps basic mistrust of the self..... High self satisfaction, if based upon realistic self awareness, enables one to forget about the self, to focus one's attention and energies outward and to free the self to function in more constructive ways." (Fitts et al, 1971, page 20).

1.1.3 The Development of the Self Concept :

Although theories of self concept development vary considerably, there seems to be general agreement that the self concept develops as a result of experience during the life span of the individual and that it is not an instinctive construct which is "given" or inherent. Evidence supports the view that the self concept is forged through the accumulation of inner experience and through an adjustment (of the self) in accordance with the external pressure imposed by the individual's interaction within his phenomenal field.

"Every human is vitally influenced by those around him. The people who are important to him influence what he thinks of himself. The experiences which an individual has every day indicate to him that he is competent or incompetent, good or bad, worthy or unworthy." (Felker, 1974; page 6). Generally the individual is attracted to people offering him

positive evaluation, and he tends to dislike those who appraise him negatively. (Fromm, 1939 and Gergen, 1971).

Significant others are crucial in the formation of the self concept, and "for good or ill, the child is moulded by the repeated behaviour of the significant people in his environment." (Purkey, 1970, page 31). It is the early childhood years which are particularly important in the development of the child's self concept. The crucial role played by parents extends through to the adolescent years.

Self concept, then, as a precept, is not present at birth. It develops gradually as the perceptive powers of the individual develop. Ultimately the self is constituted of an abstraction of the attributes, objects and activities which the individual possesses and pursues. The symbol "me" is the abstraction representing the person's idea of himself.

Seemingly the recognition of others who are familiar to the young child precedes the development of a notion of the self as a separate individual. It is assumed that many cues in the environment of the child support the development of his body-self. Direct training is one method, though the more indirect methods for formulating the concept may also provide strong reinforcement. Social approval and disapproval constitutes one such means. Indirect reinforcement is also obtained by being able to distinguish between self and nonself as such a distinction allows for the organisation of the environment into a stable and predictable system, thereby allowing for more effective control of the environment.

Taylor (1953) considered the age of 6 - 7 months to mark the beginnings of self definition, and proposed that self delineation arose from exploratory activity and the individual's experience of his own body. During this early stage, self perceptions were thought to be egocentrically based, and that later they expanded to include the values acquired from interaction with others. Thereafter, the development of self concept was believed to be largely social in nature and to involve identification with others and introjection of aspects of significant others as the circle of ego involvements expanded.

Purkey (1970) is of the opinion that self definition in the form of mental organisation develops via the senses soon after birth when the infant learns much about the world and himself in physical terms.

Jersild (1960) considers the process of the infant's differentiation from his mother to be slow in the initial period when the infant is dependent. With the testing of limits and capacities the infant begins the process of self differentiation - a sense of worth begins to develop as soon as the infant is able to discriminate between "me" and "not me", and this process is accelerated by the appearance of language. Language gives the child the ability to "make a sharp distinction between himself and the world; to symbolise and to understand his experiences." (Fitts et al, 1971, page 29). The importance of language from the second year of life is stressed by Allport (1937). He also notes the importance of the child's name and the way in which his views about his name influence his views about himself. The use of the pronouns "I", "me" and "you" at about two years of age heightens the child's awareness of his individuality and provides evidence

of the differentiation of the self into self as receiver and self as doer.

Horney (1945), Freud (1950), Sullivan (1953), Rogers (1961) and Coopersmith (1967) have all commented on the development of personality and a sense of self through interpersonal relationships and the responses of others. The earliest of such interpersonal relationships usually involves the members of the individual's immediate family. This is emphasised by Combs and Snygg (1959, pages 134/135) when they wrote : "No experience in the development of the child's concepts of self is quite so important or far-reaching as his earliest experience in his family. It is the family which introduces a child to life, which provides him with his earliest and most permanent self-definitions. Here it is that he first discovers those basic concepts of self which will guide his behaviour for the rest of his life." It is thus within the context of the family that the individual initially feels adequate or inadequate, accepted or rejected. The family provides a base for "identification" and the establishment of goals, values and behaviour, particularly during the early childhood period of two to six years. The child thus has very concrete ideas about himself and his abilities by the time he enters school.

Erikson (1959) considers the first two years of life to be crucial, for it is from the experiences during this period that the individual's attitude toward himself, stems. He considers the child's "sense of autonomy" to be a function of parental self concept which is seen to exert a powerful influence over the self concept of the child.

There are far reaching implications for the self concept of the child in his transition from home to school, though he enters school with his sense of worth and his ability to cope successfully with his environment, already formed. Unfortunately the child, even at this early age, may hold an adverse opinion of himself.

Entering school requires a revision of self concept, as the child is exposed to new pressures in a wider sphere of social interaction. Whereas he customarily experienced unconditional acceptance by his parents, in entering school, he has to earn the acceptance of his peers. The revision of self concept as the child gets older is further aided by an increased cognitive capacity and a greater ability for abstraction from the immediate environment.

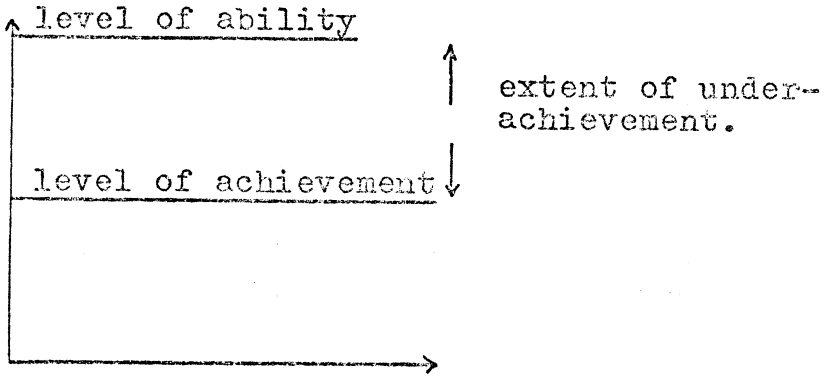
During later childhood the child becomes aware of his sex role and of sex differences. His self concept is further affected by an awareness of his religious, racial and social group.

Adolescence is crucial in the overall development of self concept. The physical changes of puberty and the increased social and cultural expectations facing the adolescent have important implications for his self concept. Where he does not live up to expectations, the adolescent is likely to encounter the criticism of his parents and teachers and often experiences an associated decline in self confidence. However, Rogers (1961), Maslow (1959) and Allport (1961) consider man to be strongly motivated to improve his social acceptance (and thereby his self concept). It is during adolescence that the self becomes oriented toward future goals and long term planning. For Allport the self is characterised by "propriate striving" during adolescence.

Gradually then, as the adolescent abandons the teenage subculture and adopts the roles and values of the adult world, a more realistic view of self emerges.

Recent work in the field of educational psychology has noted an association between poor self concept and academic underachievement. This association is reviewed in the present study.

1.2 THE CONCEPT OF UNDERACHIEVEMENT.



The field of underachievement is one beset by much controversy. Definitions acceptable to both psychologists and educationalists are a rare occurrence. By some an argument of logic is used: if it is possible to underachieve, it must also be possible to overachieve. However, supporters of this faction query whether a child can achieve more than he is capable of achieving. By way of analogy they maintain that a pint bottle cannot hold more than one pint.

These criticisms are valid if underachievement is related to capacity and capability directly. However, there is no means by which the direct measurement of human capacity or intellectual capability can take place. Instruments such as intelligence and aptitude tests are capable only of making predictions about the performance of the individual. It is in terms of the predicted level of learning (facilitated by psychometric instruments) that it is possible to under and over-achieve.

A review of related literature reveals that the

identification of underachievers has followed three major paths :-

i) Shaw and Brown (1957) and Shaw and McCuen (1960) used variations of the technique of central tendency or quadrant split. An underachiever was defined in terms of an achievement test score which fell below the median, or in the lower quarter of the spread of all scores and an associated intelligence test score falling above the median or in the upper quadrant of the population's scores on the intelligence test. Calhoun (1956) identified underachievers in terms of the disparity in months between the individual's mental age and his achievement age. The individual whose disparity was greater than that of the overall mean disparity, was classified as an underachiever.

ii) The "relative discrepancy" method was employed by Diener (1959). Here the average mark obtained in academic tests, and aptitude predictors are ranked independently. Under and over-achievers are then determined by an analysis of the discrepancy between the two rankings. This method is similar to that employed in obtaining Wilcoxon T scores.

iii) The third and statistically more sophisticated technique which makes use of the regression equation was employed by Gerbereich (1941) and involves 'smoothing' a scattergram of achievement scores predicted from aptitude measures. Underachievers are then defined as those individuals whose scores show a discrepancy of at least one standard deviation between the predicted level of achievement,

and their actual level of achievement. (Jackson, 1959). The problem of measurement error, which, according to Thorndike (1963) has rendered many underachievement studies invalid, is accounted for by using the standard error of estimate.

A number of studies have used grades assigned by the teacher as an indication of level of achievement rather than employing standardised scholastic achievement tests. Grades assigned by teachers are notoriously unreliable for they reflect much more than the actual achievements of the child. Classroom behaviour and the teacher's opinion of the child as a person are often reflected in the grade assigned to the child's work. Ignoring this "halo effect" casts doubt on the findings of many researchers.

The estimated extent of underachievement in the literature varies between figures of 10% and 25% of the American and British school populations. No statistics are available for the South African school populations, though it is thought that the white population could be compared with their British and American counterparts.

In predicting an individual's level of learning both personality characteristics and environmental factors should be taken into account. The fact that academic underachievers often obtain average or better scores on intelligence tests would appear to indicate that the primary operant factor in academic achievement is not intelligence alone. The present study relates the individual's conception of himself to his academic achievement.

There is no definitive explanation for the foregoing statement. Gough (1953) considers underachievement to be an a-social act; whereas Green (1955) sees the underachiever to be a person caught in a conflict between submission and aggressiveness. In separate studies, underachievement has also been related to such factors as emotional disturbances, organic brain damage, poor home background, low socio-economic level, and inadequate schooling facilities. However, these explanations are seemingly superficial and fragmentary. "It is suggested therefore that the problem is a central one rather than a peripheral motivating force, and further, that this force is essentially molar rather than molecular." (Fink, 1965, page 73).

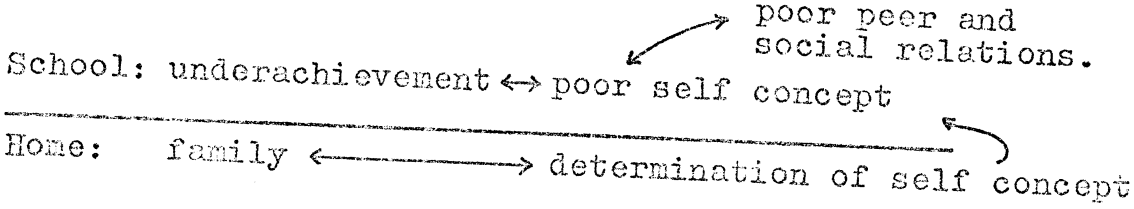
The conceptualisation which appears best to satisfy the requirements of a molar motivating force behind underachievement is possibly to be found in the concept of the self. This study is based on the relationship between academic achievement and self concept.

Roth and Meyersburg (1963) postulate a vicious circle of underachievement in which :

poor academic achievement
results from
poor preparation
which grows out of
previous choices
which are deeply rooted in self concept.

A developmental model of self concept takes account of the role of the family and significant adults in the development of the self concept and provides a

more complete picture of the underachiever. This model could be conceptualised as follows :



The characteristics of the underachieving pupil are often not readily noticable. This is especially so with regard to his ability. The underachiever is often not identified because in school he makes "satisfactory" progress and thus does not draw attention toward himself. All too often it has been the slow student who receives special attention when he fails to meet the academic level required by "the system." The student with superior capacity, even though he may be poorly adjusted, often manages to maintain a "satisfactory" scholastic rating, and thereby often continues through school relatively unnoticed, for he is "no problem" in the classroom.

There has been very little research in the field of underachievement in South African schools. The accumulation of a sound body of knowledge about the underachiever will make it possible to direct intervention in the vicious circle of underachievement, and hopefully to ameliorate it. It is hoped that this study will provide the initial steps in this direction.

1.3 SELF CONCEPT, ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, AND THE CHARACTERISTICS OF NORMAL ACHIEVERS AND UNDERACHIEVERS.

> "A person who doubts himself is like a man who would enlist in the ranks of his enemies and bear arms against himself. He makes his failure certain by himself being the first person to be convinced of it."
>
> Alexandre Dumas.

The area of measurement of self concept is a highly popular yet controversial and confused area in the field of psychological research. Unfortunately a concomitant of this confusion has been that the theoretical conceptions have outstripped the tools of measurement. Research data is therefore often conflicting and ambiguous.

Though most research has centred predominantly around secondary school pupils, the findings have some consistency for all levels of academic endeavour. Wattenberg and Clifford (1964) noted that a relationship between self concept and academic achievement existed not only in the case of the extremes, but for all elementary school pupils. Their findings showed that "measures of self concept and of ego strength taken at kindergarten level were predictive of reading achievement two-and-a-half years later." (Wattenberg and Clifford, 1964 page 466). Considering the importance of reading in school performance it is not surprising to note that reading is an important factor in relation to the self concept. Lamy (1965) in Purkey (1970) in investigating the relationship in kindergarten children found that the child's

perception of himself provided later reading predictions which were of equivalent success as were intelligence tests. The child's view of himself was considered to be a causal factor in his future reading achievement.

The notion that academic success is contingent upon ambition, cooperativeness, a sense of responsibility and seriousness has been largely abandoned. Precedence has been given to the now substantial evidence suggesting a relationship between self concept and academic achievement. (Harris, 1960). A positive correlational relationship of ,58 (significant at the ,001 level) between positive self concept and high academic achievement was reported by Caplin (1969). Similar findings, particularly in the case of males, have been reported by Holder (1962), Bledsoe (1967), Roth and Puri (1967) and Sears (1970).

This positive correlational relationship has also been demonstrated in primary school pupils by Williams and Cole (1968) and for high school pupils by Shaw and Alves (1963); and Caplin (1969) noted the existence of the described relationship in both black and white populations in America.

Theoretically, Rogers (1951) defined self evaluation in terms of the discrepancy between self perception and the concept of the ideal self. Subsequent authors (Borislow, 1962; Brookover and Thomas, 1964) note that the greater this discrepancy, the greater the degree of personality maladjustment. If we accept underachievement as a form of maladjustment then it is expected that potential underachievers would start their academic careers with lower self concepts than potential achievers. It is tentatively suggested that underachievement, in addition to resulting from a poor self

concept, also produces one; and the child who continually fails in his academic work is in danger of considering himself a failure. In this light, Stagner (1933) found that unstable and maladjusted students did less well in proportion to their intelligence than do stable persons; and Griffiths (1945) reported that unfavourable scores in emotionality and self sufficiency are associated with lower achievement than would have been predicted from intelligence alone. Gerberich's (1941) notion that poor study techniques and a poor expenditure of time are important factors in poor scholastic achievement, has lost favour as it does not take account of what is considered to be the "whole picture." It is, however, suggested by Entwistle and Welsh (1969) that non-intellectual factors play an increasingly important part in determining academic success beyond a certain intellectual level. Further, in suggesting a positive association between stability and academic achievement. Rushton (1966) considered well adjusted children to not be distracted to the same extent by their personal problems as maladjusted children. It is likely that such problems are likely to be intensified with age as the individual is subjected to higher expectations, in all spheres of life. Haun (1965) though is emphatic in his consideration that the greater the degree of "pathology" the poorer the performance of the student.

The positive relationship between self concept and academic performance as reported by Caplin (1969) is the expected result. Individuals with high academic achievement know this fact, and similarly, those with records of low academic achievement are aware of the level of their performance. The high achievers should therefore have the confidence which is the result of succeeding. Those ranking in the lower echelons of

academic achievement do not have as much self confidence and therefore may not rank themselves quite so highly. It is expected that the individual with low ability who continually meets failure is in danger of developing a negative self concept.

Roth and Meyersburg (1963) suggest that the psychodynamic organisation of the personality related to maladaptive achievement behaviour involves self boundaries which are particularly susceptible to disparagement. When the self is attacked it decompensates and the individual experiences anxiety and distress, snowballing until functioning is impaired, on both an academic and an interpersonal level. The inward direction of this hostility is supported by reports that the underachiever is characterised by self derogation and negative self attitudes, Kimball, 1953; Kirk, 1952 and Mitchell, 1959) and a feeling of worthlessness. (Barrett, 1957; Kurtz and Swenson, 1951). As a result he views himself as less accepted and less adequate than his friends (Malloy, 1954), and this leads to the adoption of those values which prevent him from utilising his potential. (Roth and Puri, 1967).

Dizney (1963) showed that neither the size of school nor the amount of money available for instruction had any significant effect on achievement.

Borislow (1962) contended that where the striving for good marks was the prime goal, where the individual's student self concept is good and where he does attain a high academic standard, his overall self concept is more favourable. Borislow found that the underachiever clearly possesses a more negative view of himself than the achiever, both prior to and subsequent to academic performance. A positive conception of oneself was thus seen as a central factor in striving to get ahead; in enthusiasm,

for study and in "optimal scholastic performance."

An important source of children considering themselves unable to do academic work, may be that they have learned to consider themselves as being unable to achieve academically. Hammachek (1971). The individual's perception of his intelligence plays a greater role than his tested intelligence. Individuals are assumed to 'act like' the sort of person they perceive themselves to be, living as consistently as possible within the framework of their beliefs about themselves. Such beliefs particularly in the case of the nonachieving student are upheld in academic assessments. Since he avoids study, and he finds numerous excuses to do so, the nonachiever receives a lower assessment than the predicted level by virtue of his capability. His school report then "proves" that he is less able. Such "objective proof" takes the focus away from the individual considering that the source of his lack of achievement lies in his subjective evaluation of himself.

Explanations of the self concept - academic achievement relationship in the literature have assumed contradictory positions: self concept has been postulated as standing in a causal relationship with performance and vice versa. The circular argument has also been used. (Felker, 1974) : low self concept may produce lower performance, which in turn feeds back to lower the self concept which in turn produces lower performance.

The self concept-academic achievement relationship has also been explained in terms of a low self concept inhibiting the individual's participation in significant learning tasks. Maw and Maw (1970) found

boys of high curiosity to have higher self concepts than low curiosity boys - the explanations of this are to be found in terms of the findings of Mahone (1960) in which individuals whose self concepts were low, showed strong motivation to avoid failure by not exhibiting curiosity. Alternatively, Maw and Maw (1970) have advanced the thesis that in failing to interact with the environment, low curiosity boys fail to gain experiences leading to the development of high self esteem.

Felker (1974) agrees that individuals with low self concepts in failing to reach or seek out tasks fail to encounter new learning experiences.

The adage "nothing succeeds like success" holds good in the field of academic achievement where increased confidence and increased academic performance is contingent upon success. Undoubtedly man has a need to maintain consistently in his self structure. (Lecky, 1945). The student who has a poor conception of himself has an associated scholastic record which is poor. However, Hammachek (1971) noted that an improvement in the individual's belief of himself as a scholar was accompanied by a change in performance in the direction of being consistent with the change in self view.

Hammachek (1971) and Purkey (1970) see self concept and learning experience as mutually reinforcing - they are seen as being in a "two way street" type of communication. A positive change in the one is thus seen to facilitate a positive change in the other. That is "when learning of the kind that makes a real difference, from the learner's point of view, has taken place, there is self involvement. The experience makes a difference to the total psychology of the individual." (Hammachek, 1971, page 189).

An important dimension to a person's perception and feelings about himself has its source in the introjection of those qualities which he perceives others to assign to him. The individual's generalised feelings towards others then predisposes him to reacting specifically to their valuation of him. He then interprets, accepts, resists or rejects what he meets in the school in the light of his self concept (Jersild, 1960). At school the individual encounters academic material in terms of the way he perceives himself generally, and as a student specifically. Thompson (1974) reports a difference in the self concept and in the influence of significant others on school children whose teachers perceive them as either adjusted or maladjusted and delinquent.

Irrespective of whether there is an initial causal relationship, academic performance influences, both subtly and obviously, the student's conception of himself. The school plays an important role in the development of the self concept for it dispenses praise, reproachment, acceptance or rejection on a wide scale. Furthermore, the arch critics of society are to be found in the school environment: one's peers and one's teachers. Both continually remind the individual of either his success or his shortcomings. Wattenberg and Clifford (1964) have shown that a negative self concept retards reading achievement as early as the kindergarten years. Shaw and McCuen (1960) contend that the predisposition to underachievement increases steadily as the child progresses through school.

Axline (1947) postulates that an inconsistency in the child's attitudinal system, or difficulty in resolving a conflict between self as a poor reader versus self as a good reader may cause poor reading.

In short, there are many factors to which the self concept and academic performance are related - these include : attitudes towards school, teachers and peers; the assumption of responsibility for learning; motivation, goals, morale, class participation and behaviour etc. "Perhaps a fair summary of all these studies could be stated like this : an individual's general image of himself as a person will usually show some relationship to his academic achievement. If he has an optimal self concept, he is apt to use his intellectual resources more efficiently, and this may be a critical factor in his achievement if his intellectual resources or educational background are borderline. Otherwise his self concept will probably be closely related to the noncognitive aspects of his behaviour within the academic setting." (Fitts, 1972, page 43).

The implications of the more stable and predictable relationship in males suggests that achievement is a more important self concept factor for boys, or that girls receive their positive feedback from other facets of life. Adequate achievement seems to be a universal feminine characteristic.

Shaw and Alves (1963) note that the individual with a low self concept is often the individual who is the underachiever. Negative self perceptions have been shown by Hammachek (1971) to be characteristic of the underachiever who typically lacks academic involvement and whose motivation is misdirected.

Kirk (1952) noted that support for the "inward direction of hostility" thesis is provided by reports that the underachiever is characterised by negative self attitudes and self derogation. In terms of his self concept the underachiever feels worthless, and he therefore views himself as less adequate and less acceptable than his peers. As a result he adopts

those strategies which prevent him from utilising his potential. Combs (1964) found underachievers to be more defensive and to use rebellion and "oppositional behaviour" more than achieving pupils who accepted limits more readily.

The underachiever then, seems unable to give vent to his anger by way of outward expression. He is intropunitive, as opposed to the achiever who tends to be extropunitive, expressing his anger overtly. Shaw and McCuen (1960) showed differences between achievers and underachievers to exist in the early school years. Coupled with the evidence of Wattenberg and Clifford (1964) it seems reasonable to assume that underachievement is not a surface phenomenon to be treated flippantly.

Walsh (1956) in Hammachek (1971) noted that low achievers differed reliably from high achievers in

i) feelings of being criticised, rejected or isolated;

ii) acting defensively through compliance, evasion or negativism; and

iii) being unable to express themselves appropriately in actions and feelings.

Zimmerman and Allebrand (1965) in studying children referred for remedial reading found that their (the poor readers') emotional maladjustment was reflected in a negative approach to learning. The inability of retarded readers to acknowledge or accept blame and an inability to search for solutions to their conflicts (Spache, 1957) can only be viewed as compounding the maladjustment of the underachieving reader. The non-acceptance of rules by underachieving readers was noted by Granzow (1954). The evidence presented is decisive in its conclusion that the underachiever is emotionally maladjusted. Blackham (1955) found them to be immature, emotionally unstable and to possess feelings of inadequacy.

Abrams (1956) elaborated on the characteristics of the underachiever, finding him to be shrouded in a bond of insecurity and instability which became manifest in an inability to adjust both at home and at school. The goals of the underachiever appear to be immediate : the avoidance of achievement featuring high on the list of ephemeral goals. In spite of asserting "I don't care whether I fail or not," failure does breed a "failure-feeling" in the underachieving individual. (Borislow, 1962).

Zimmerman and Allebrand (1965) found that good readers differed significantly from poor readers in areas of personal, rather than social adjustment. Poor readers were more aware of their nervous symptoms, felt isolated, experienced limited personal freedom and felt they had minimal social skills and standards. Their achieving counterparts on the other hand described themselves favourably, stressing their feelings of personal worth; an absence of withdrawing tendencies; a feeling of belongingness, good school relations, a feeling of self reliance and an absence of nervous symptoms.

Roberts (1962) in investigating the source of underachievement, hypothesised that it (the source) was to be found in the student's feelings about himself and his environment. He noted differences between achievers and underachievers in the following areas :

i) the cognitive area: here Roberts confirmed Granzow's (1954) contention that the underachiever does not take account of detail or rules in school work. A significant difference (at the ,01 level of significance) was found to exist in time spent viewing television. (Whereas high achievers spent 4,43 hours watching television each week, the

underachievers spent 9,95 hours in this passive form of entertainment each week).

ii) In the sphere of physical health the fact that the absentee rate of the underachieving group was twice as high as that of the achieving group might be erroneously taken to indicate better health on the part of the achiever. Further ivestigating of health does not support this assumption. Instead it is purported that there is a divergence in the value placed upon school and academic matters by the achiever and the underachiever.

iii) Where personality differences were concerned, the findings of Zimmerman and Allebrand (1965) have confirmed the characteristics described by Roberts. In terms of Gough's scale of socialisation, Roberts (1962) found that, as opposed to low achievers, high achievers were honest, serious, industrious, modest, obliging, sincere, steady rather than defensive, demanding, resentful, stubborn, headstrong, rebellious and undependable. The underachiever also appears to be self centred, impulsive and to show little concern for others, as opposed to the achiever who is responsible, conscientious, cooperative and diligent. In short, the underachiever is poorly adjusted to the school, yet another manifestation of his low self conception. Differences in the need for self esteem in addition to being affected by the total perception of the self may be affected momentarily by success or failure. Failure tends

> to lower self esteem and thereby to increase the need for self confidence. As already mentioned, unfulfilled esteem needs make for the increased importance of the approval of others - this deficit serves as a motivating mechanism to achieve such approval.

Morgan (1952) listed as the characteristics of the high achiever maturity, seriousness, awareness of and concern for others, a sense of responsibility, dominance, persuasiveness, self-confidence, and motivation to achieve. Psychometrically he found achieving students to reflect ascendancy in social relationships, and this was associated with optimism, persuasiveness and a responsibility indicative of dependability, integrity and seriousness. Intellectually the achiever is more efficient, self confident and realistic as well as more insightful than the underachiever. Nonachievers showed such characteristics as callousness, social insensitivity, irresponsibility and self centredness. The significance of this study is that probably for the first time, non-intellectual factors and personality variables were shown to relate positively to academic achievement.

Shaw, Edson and Bell (1960) present descriptions which concur with the descriptions offered by Morgan (1952). They note that underachievers differ from achievers in terms of the following adjectives : stable, realistic, optimistic, enthusiastic, reliable, clear thinking and intelligent. Underachievers are seen to differ from achievers in terms of the following adjectives : immodest, reckless, relaxed, mischievous, argumentative and restless. In support

of Barrett (1957) it is thus postulated that the male underachiever lacks a feeling of worth as an individual, whereas the achiever feels more positively about himself. Shaw and Alves (1963) confirm these opinions.

Gough (1949) is amongst the authors who have noted the negativism towards school shown by the underachiever. The underachiever appears to be less interested in reading and to withdraw from competition. They fail to expend their time and energy appropriately; set either no goals or goals of an impossible extreme; and to lack interest in themselves, their endeavours and in their social milieu. They are anything but enthusiastic and activity-oriented in their view of life. (Wellington and Wellington, 1965). He further adds that underachievers were immature and disinclined to admit personal problems.

Teigland et al (1966) found achievers to score significantly higher on all scales of the California Test of Personality, and postulated that underachievement involved the global personality of the pupil, and that it could not be considered to simply be a surface phenomenon.

The high achiever perceives himself as nonconformist, but accepts authority and sees anxiety, frustration and guilt as being alien to himself. (Everett, 1971). For the low or underachiever, examinations and authority have connotations of anxiety, frustration and guilt. All of these are associated with the keeping of irregular hours and playing truant.

Rosenburg (1965) in Thompson (1974) found adolescents

with low esteem to exhibit the following characteristics :

a) the displaying of a number of psychosomatic symptoms;

b) the necessity to present a false front;

c) a feeling of isolation and loneliness;

d) a sensitivity to criticism and attack;

e) a difficulty in making friends;

f) little faith in people, and

g) a shyness and unwillingness to initiate conversations.

Coopersmith (1967) found similar characteristics in ten-year-old boys who were low in self esteem.

In comparing achieving and underachieving boys, Fink (1965) found the latter to be alienated from society and from their families, and that they do not hold the same values and goals as their counterparts. The underachiever, though pleasure-oriented, often lacks the ability to achieve his goals, and instead complains of his relative powerlessness. Achievers, on the other hand, displayed a basic acceptance of themselves.

Where the underachiever accepts himself, Mitchell (1959) suggests that he either sets low goals for himself and achieves at this low level, or his ego needs are fulfilled in other spheres of his life. This individual is not ambitious or willing to expend much energy in order to attain the goals set. Where the self acceptant underachiever does fall short of his goals, he recognises this but shows little concern about it.

In the case of the underachiever who is self rejectant, there is very little motivation at all. The existence of such an individual, academically speaking, is an effort. He lacks concentration, does not try hard and gives up very easily. The optimism of the self rejectant underachiever is reflected in the goals which he sets for himself. He sets a goal which is higher than his expected level of attainment. "However there ensues a precipitous drop in goal - obviously related to lack of motivation as well as initial over-estimation. Perhaps it is because of his unrealistic goal-setting behaviour, his lack of motivation and his chronic non-attainment that the self rejectant underachiever feels at times that he is 'not good at all'. One suspects that the self rejectant underachiever expends much psychic energy in defence manoeuvres of one kind or another - a psychic life characterised by strong repressive tendencies and defensive reactions results in manifest anxiety and equally manifest underachievement." (Mitchell, 1959, pages 102/103.)

In the external environment of underachievers, Norman and Daley (1959) found areas of difficulty to cluster around :

i) poor family interaction
ii) rejection by others
iii) being frustrated by others
iv) conflicts about other-dominance
v) environmental deprivation

The more internally expressed needs of retarded readers were seen to be centred around :

i) aggression towards others
ii) impulsivity in action
iii) rejection by others
iv) inferiority feelings

It is seemingly logical, in view of the above, that

following scales of the California Test of Personality :-

Sense of Personal Worth
Nervous Symptoms
Family Relations
School Relations

Teigland et al (1966) however noted that an achieving group scored significantly higher or towards adjustment on all the scales of the test. This conclusive evidence points strongly to the notion that underachievement involves more than a temporary surface phenomenon. The definite personal problems of the underachiever seem to conflict with his attempt to attain a satisfactory learning experience in the classroom. Clearly the predisposition to academic underachievement is present when the underachiever enters school, and from the point of view of prevention and remediation, the underachiever should be understood in terms of the personal characteristics peculiar to him, for his condition represents an adaptation by the underachiever to his unique experience of his needs.

Combs (1964) provides a very comprehensive summary :

In seeing himself as inadequate, the underachiever is unable to handle the problems occurring in the school situation. Problems are approached fearfully, with the initial premise that he does not have the ability to overcome them. Lack of initiative and helplessness in the face of crisis and when decision making is a necessity, is a strong characteristic of the underachiever. The underachiever seems to be obsessed with the notion that he is not liked or accepted by his peers, and such a belief is manifest in his strong defence against others. In short, the underachiever seriously lacks integration in his life. The underachiever does not exhibit the acceptance and warmth

shown by his achieving counterpart, and in the place of understanding and sympathy the underachiever is fearful and threatened. In feeling threatened by adults the underachiever does not accept adults generally, and questions his motivations to the extent that he avoids contact with adults. Techniques of rebellion and defensiveness consume much of the energy of the underachiever, whose emotions are blocked and manifest as apathy, exaggeration and fear.

".... the most obvious implication (of all the information offered in the literature) ... is the need for the early identification of the underachiever ... for while counselling with underachievers may prove successful at all levels, it requires less time with younger students." (Shaw and McCuen, 1960, page 107).

Teigland et al (1966) notes that for the underachiever to be given the opportunity to gain the maximum from his exposure to the educational system it is necessary to have descriptive information about him. Too often underachievers are lumped together and generalisations made about them. The individuality of each person must never be forgotten in the attempt to create a meaningful approach to his problems and the factors surrounding it. The individual must not be viewed in isolation: the most comprehensive view of the underachiever and his functioning is to be obtained when he is viewed in conjunction with his poor peer relationships, his personality problems and the conflict in which he finds himself in facing the requirements of the classroom situation.

"... by now it is fairly clear that both the cause and alleviation of scholastic underachievement

involve complex variables and must be dealt with accordingly ... the search for factors related to scholastic achievement or the lack of it, have revealed that mental ability is by no means the exclusive determinant of academic success." (Calhoun, 1956, page 312).

Undeniably, underachievement is the symptom of underlying emotional maladjustment, and one of the aims of counselling is the reduction of the maladjustments which give rise to both under and over-achievement. It may be useful to get the underachiever to think about himself, his desires and needs, such that in this self examination he might come to understand and accept himself. Felker (1974) offers five postulates for the development of positive self concepts :

i) Adults, praise yourselves.
ii) Help children to evaluate realistically.
iii) Teach children to set reasonable goals.
iv) Teach children to praise themselves.
v) Teach children to praise others.

These principles encapsulate the learning approach to self concept enhancement and are based on the notion that children learn by imitation in addition to learning from direct teaching.

A question which must continually be kept in mind by the researcher investigating the field of underachievement is, is not the achiever merely a vocal proponent of 'middle class morality' ? Without a doubt the individual who may be considered an achiever displays a grasp of the concepts of adjustment and motivation prized by teachers and psychologists, and he presents himself in this light. Such concepts have been inculcated into the achiever in contrast to the underachiever "who willingly admits to feelings

of discouragement, inadequacy, and nervousness, and whose preclaimed goals are often ephemeral or immediate - especially in avoiding achievement." (Zimmerman and Allebrand, 1965, page 30). The question of whether the achiever or the underachiever is the more honest in his existence, has, I feel been answered in the review of literature presented above.

The teacher often applies pressure to the individual in an attempt to get the desired scholastic output from him. For the underachiever such stress only serves to reduce his feelings of personal adequacy. The adequate achiever can and does benefit from such pressure from teachers, and thus, when it is applied and the succeeder succeeds and the underachiever does not, the gap between the two is widened, and the underachiever withdraws into himself even further. "The underachiever fails to achieve because he lacks a feeling of personal adequacy. He lacks the feeling that he is accepted either by his peers or by the adults with whom he deals. Because he feels unacceptable, he cannot invest in others or run the risk of failure." (Combs, 1964, page 50). Being threatened, the underachiever evaluates in a subjective devaluation frame of mind with the result that he cannot either adapt or incorporate and use the personal data with which he is in contact. Basic acceptance of the underachieving individual, in the context of a trusting relationship is, it seems, the most likely relationship which will penetrate the defensive blocks built up over the years, and aid the individual to accept himself and to perceive of himself as an individual capable of success.

A neat summary is presented by Kurtz and Swenson (1951) on the "life conditions" of achieving and underachieving pupils :

Conditions in lives of two pupils whose school achievement was above, and of two whose achievement was below, expectations.

Area	Eighth-Grade Boys		Tenth-Grade Girls	
	Plus Achiever	Minus Achiever	Plus Achiever	Minus Achiever
Home conditions	Interested parents; they attend school functions regularly; child always reports doings to parents.	Parents are old; father partially disabled; child had nothing to say about parents during interview.	Mother very proud of this girl; girl looks to mother for advice; there is evidence of mutual respect.	Father has been in mental institution; mother works, away from home much of the time; girl has shouldered heavy home responsibilities, now leaves house whenever she can.
Peer relations	Reported as getting along well with age mates; active in group games and school affairs.	Generally seen alone, would rather be with his dog; does not seem to fit into class group very well.	Two close friends mentioned, both plus achievers; associations limited in quantity but not in quality.	Derogatory implications about friends appear in interview notes; one medium and one low achiever mentioned, both equally antagonistic toward school.
Physical and mental well being	Evidence of temper but under control; a showman and enjoys it; good looking; active in sports.	Changeable; industrious to indifferent; willing participant but regarded as mediocre (intelligence quotient 109); older, inferiority complex.	Described as retiring but friendly at the same time; ineffectual appearing, but intent on class activity; evidence of poor health.	Self-conscious large stout girl; coarse; believes others antagonistic; resents exclusion from clique, has crept into shell, wants to be popular with the boys.

Area	Eighth-Grade Boys		Tenth-Grade Girls	
	Plus Achiever	Minus Achiever	Plus Achiever	Minus Achiever
Academic inclination	Keen interest in class activity; eager to participate constantly and follows all discussions.	Tries at times but ends up disliking school; interested in working with hands, hunting and fishing.	Evidence lacking, except healthy respect for good school record and marked attentiveness in class.	Attends school under protest; more interested in social life - in dates and in popularity with boys.
Aspirations and prospects for the future	Desires college education but uncertain of being able to attend; wishes to be an engineer or athletic coach; general education value also appreciated.	Not expected to finish high school; specifies coal mining or driving a steam shovel as vocational aim; schooling seen in terms of job value only.	Desires and expects high-school graduation; thinks of becoming a secretary; teacher recommends college attendance.	No reasonable aim apparent; wants to work on a river boat (a girl) ready to quit school now; attends because mother insists.

(Kurtz and Swenson, 1951, page 477).

1.4 FAMILY AND PEER RELATIONSHIPS AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT.

The importance of the influence of the family and peers on self concept, and by association, on academic achievement has been cursorily mentioned. The influence of these relationships should not be underestimated. They are therefore reviewed in greater depth below.

The intimate interaction within the home significantly influences the personalities of the children of the home. A primary source of achievement motivation is assumed to flow from the kind of relationship that has been established between parent and child. The importance of this relationship is seen by Christopher (1967) to extend beyond childhood and into adolescence. That is, family values with regard to achievement persist as referents in spite of the trend to sever familial ties in adolescence. There are two extreme viewpoints regarding the type of family atmosphere most conducive to achievement motivation. Some psychoanalysts argue that in the more authoritarian restrictive home environment the frustration resulting from parental restriction is likely to increase the child's anxiety and to result in impaired intellectual efficiency. Others argue that total freedom does not facilitate the acquisition of knowledge and the symbols of society, as the child operates only according to the pleasure principle. A more moderate viewpoint (Christopher 1967) argues that academic achievement is functionally related to the perceived strength of the parent-child relationship and perceived parental attitudes toward achievement.

Drews and Teahan (1957) found that high achievers tended to be children whose home environment was a rigidly defined one which the child was expected to accept docilely. In this light, there is small wonder as to Gough's (1953) discovery that successful students were conforming, orderly, docile, conventional people from families in which the adult value of knowing what is best for the child was seldom questioned. From the point of view of the teacher it is not difficult to see how the ideal pupil is that one who readily accepts the adult dictums initially made by his parents.

Teahan (1965) and Christopher (1967) both found sex to be a significant variable in the parent-child relationship described above. In males it was the father's attitudes which seemed to play a most significant role in determining academic achievement. Where males were high achievers in the "superior" category, the mother was also found to be "child-oriented." Fathers of high achieving sons were generally not too busy to answer their son's questions; and further, they allowed their sons to participate in their adult conversations. The fathers of low-achieving sons felt that their sons should make only minor personal decisions; and that complete parental control was important. Their sons, however, differed significantly from their fathers on both these issues. In most areas there was no similar disparity between high achieving males and their fathers.

Parents of high achieving children were found to allow their children more freedom in that they were not expected to play only in the immediate surroundings of the home as low/underachieving children were expected to. The more domineering and over-restrictive parents of underachievers were reported

by Kimball (1955) to either baby their youngsters or to push them excessively and to use more severe and frequent punishment. Such control was found to be less effectual than the modes employed by the parents of achievers. Generally, with high-achieving children there is a feeling of closeness and family "belongingness" between parent and child. Such parents were found to give their children more praise and approval, and to show more interest in them. Underachievers often reported feeling "materially deprived" in their families. (Shaw and Brown, 1957; Morrow and Wilson, 1961). It is therefore obvious why there is more tension and more parental disagreements about the standards of behaviour expected in the home of underachieving children.

Available data therefore "supports the hypothesis that supportive family relations foster academic achievement via promoting positive attitudes toward teachers, school and intellectual activities, as symbols of the adult world of parents." (Morrow and Wilson, 1961, page 508).

Halperin (1965) considers the term "underachiever" to spread beyond the area of academic endeavour to all areas of the child's life. Such a child is usually reluctant to help at home and often ignores the demands of his parents. In trying to establish himself as a separate person, the underachiever usually rebels against his parents in a passive way; by not achieving. In saying "I can't" rather than being actively aggressive and saying "I won't" the underachiever fails to recognise his anger and will not take responsibility in expressing it directly. Serene (1953) however felt that the parents of underachievers failed to exercise adequate control over their children, and that they seldom if ever, sat down and discussed problems with their children.

The underachiever often finds himself in a dilemma: when he accepts the criticism of his parents and teachers that he could perform at a higher level and then does in fact achieve success he is told that "we knew you could do it", or "I told you so". The child then has little incentive to continue doing well, for further success will only prove that he did not try previously, and he will receive no credit himself. The adults are thus always triumphant and vindicated while the underachieving child remains the guilty one. The situation in which the child is subject to criticism no matter how he reacts, is similar to the "double bind" hypothesis of Bateson et al (1956).

With respect to peer relations, Kurtz and Swenson (1951), Barrett (1957) and Teigland et al (1966) all found that underachievers were selected significantly less often by their peers than were achievers. This attitude on the part of achievers extends further than simply choosing not to work with the underachievers: they also often choose not to play with the underachiever. The consequence of underachievers all having to work together may intensify their academic difficulty and is hypothesised to further increase their relating with peers.

Thompson (1972) draws attention to the close association between a deviant self concept and deviant interpersonal behaviour:....."good interpersonal communication is associated with a well-integrated self concept.....individuals with healthy self concepts are more active in behaviours which involve expressing affection, inclusion and control towards others than they are in seeking these behaviours from others." (Thompson, 1972, page 80).

Shaw and Alves (1963) found students who view themselves positively to be emotionally well adjusted; to have a higher conception of themselves and to enjoy higher social status among their peers than did low self concept students.

1.5 COUNSELLING THE UNDERACHIEVER.

"The human individual, given a chance, tends to develop his particular human potentialities."

Karen Horney.

"True learning, learning that is permanent and useful, that leads to intelligent action and further learning - can arise only out of the experience, interests and concerns of the learner."

John Holt.

Russell's (1958) definition of the underachiever gives an almost direct reference to the impatience and anger that the underachiever can arouse in those who attempt to work with him. He comments : "In a very general sense the underachiever is the person who performs markedly below his capacities to learn, to make applications of learning, and to complete tasks. Speaking figuratively, he is the person who sits on his potential, resisting various motivational procedures to get him off his potential and possibly needing an adroitly directed kick in that same potential." (Russell, 1958, page 66).

Problems regarding the accuracy of prediction of academic underachievement have already been mentioned. Difficulties in this area as well as the depth and seriousness or duration of the non-intellective problems of the underachiever play an important role in the success of special programs for individual students and should play a role in the kind of help any specific student will receive.

In assessing the effectiveness of counselling the underachiever there are certain assumptions which are implicit and which should be noted :-

i) there is a variation amongst individuals in their capacity for scholastic achievement;

ii) group intelligence tests are capable of differentiating the individual's capacity for academic activity; and

iii) standardised achievement batteries and school marks will give some measure of the actual level of achievement.

The underachiever, according to Kirk (1952) is unaware of the reasons for his underachievement and is characteristically uncommunicative in counselling or therapy. The unrealistic, superficial and largely implausible rationalisations they give in defence of their performance, make them difficult to work with. Goldberg (1965) contends that by high-school age many students are beyond profiting from any direct help from the school counsellor. Others disagree.

The individual counselling method used by Calhoun (1956) was a set of three interviews. In the first interview the underachiever was shown an "under-achievement card" which gave a graphical representation of his ability, achievement and the disparity between the two in terms of mental age. In indicating a desire to eliminate this discrepancy the next step of compiling a data sheet was undertaken and information of the pupil's home and family situation, school history, educational and vocational plans and study habits, were

obtained. In doing this the student's expression of his attitudes and opinions was facilitated, and the pupil was, for possibly the first time, given the opportunity to investigate without coersive pressure, the possible sources of his underachievement. Plans were then made in terms of the data obtained. Pupils themselves were instrumental in the compilation of plans of action to alleviate their underachieving condition. Emphasis was placed on being "non prescriptive" in planning courses of action. The counsellor at no time imposed his views upon the student. Results, though not statistically significant, showed a definite improvement in school marks.

Serene (1953) preceded Calhoun and paid special attention to the pupil's understanding of how to study and his motivation for study. In attempting to conduct a "conversation between equals" Serene confronted the underachiever with the clear-cut reality of his situation, and discovered that few underachievers had any consistent study schedule, and though aware of their responsibility in the matter, the underachievers freely admitted that they were unable to discipline themselves to study. The success of this program (not statistically verified) was attributed to Serene's treatment of the underachiever on equal terms; in confronting him with reality and then in being able to offer concrete, tangible means for overcoming the problem at hand.

Hill and Grieneeks (1966) note that an important feature in the counselling of the underachiever is that they should spontaneously seek counselling for the improvement of their condition. This, they justify in terms of client motivation for counselling and

improvement. These authors are sceptical about counselling success with underachievers maintaining that "....underachievers improved no more than matched underachieving controls, but their improvement was significantly greater than the decrement in grade point average of matched overachieving controls.... Further analysis showed that the greater gain for underachievers could be attributed to a greater regression effect rather than a beneficial effect of counselling." (Hill and Grieneeks, 1966, page 225).

Drasgow (1965) supports Kirk (1952) in her dynamic explanation that underachievement satisfies an unconscious hostility motive usually directed toward a father who demands success. Drasgow perceives the role of the counsellor as being one of aiding the underachiever who has encountered failure, to change from an alien curriculum which has invariably been selected by parents. In helping the underachiever discover an appropriate curriculum, his parents may also require counselling. This author feels that the feeling of failure may be a counselling prerequisite for both underachiever and parent. Drasgow maintains that the underachiever cannot, in short term educational or vocational counselling, reach the insight of identifying the person who is the target of his "passive-aggressive" behaviour. This, he feels, is the function of psychotherapy, and not of counselling.

This latter point is hotly disputed by Motto (1965) who found that underachievers were able to benefit from therapeutic counselling: "They seemed to be looking for someone to tell them to save face by making it possible for them to avail themselves of help without having to admit that they needed help." (Motto, 1965, page 638). Ineffectual counselling

was seen to be the result of the assumption that it was possible to deal with the complex phenomenon of underachievement in any short term manner. Some degree of insight into why the individual's intellectual potential was suppressed was seen as necessary if the underachiever was to break free from his continual 'failure'. Simple repeated warnings from virtually anyone are notoriously unsuccessful in improving the achievement of the underachiever. As has already been noted, underachievement is a behavioural manifestation of personality inconsistencies as well as the consequent paralysing effects of anxiety: It seems naive to relate underachievement simply to an incongruent curriculum choice. Underachievement may well be the symptom, but it is rarely the problem.

In counselling parents, Halperin (1965) feels that parents should communicate to their underachieving child that it is he, the child, who will either suffer from failure or who can reap the pleasures of achievement. "This does not mean an attitude of uncaring indifference. The underachiever, as all children, needs parental concern, guidance, and affection. But if he is helped to feel the separateness of his own life, it should restore his lost natural desires to do well by that life." (Halperin, 1965, page 584).

Passow (1958) and Goldberg (1965) noted two necessary elements in the classroom if the underachiever's status was to be improved: firstly, a consistently supportive teacher who was interested in and who gave attention to each pupil as an individual, and secondly the necessity to offer assistance in the learning of skills not acquired at an earlier point. It was considered advisable that schools should separate their teaching and guidance functions such that the adult who was closely involved with assisting the underachiever was not the person who evaluated his work.

Passow also noted that underachievers when grouped together in a classroom would give each other negative support which was difficult to change in the classroom context.

Goldburgh and Penney (1965) are in favour of narrowing the goal of treatment in dealing with the underachiever. They are in favour of "sector counselling" rather than in the reorganisation of the total personality, and feel it necessary for the counsellor to ally himself only with that part of the pupil's ego which wants to succeed academically. Focus on a study plan for the individual is important; "After some insight into the significant psychodynamic factors has been achieved, a realistic, carefully considered decision of the student to change school or program, even though suggested tentatively by the counsellor, can be a useful step in the rehabilitation of many underachievers." (Goldburgh and Penney, 1965, page 563).

The studies mentioned above all involve individual counselling. Though some of the aims of individual and group counselling are similar, there are some important differences. In terms of their similarities both aim for the resolution of personal problems and an adjustment to a more satisfactory mode of living; in both methods the structuring and maintenance of a therapeutic relationship allows freedom for the exploration of attitudes, a clarification of conflict areas and the opportunity to explore possible solutions to their problems.

In the group context the individual has the opportunity of working at problems of personal relationships in vivo, and therefore, realistically. The understanding and acceptance of several people, as is possible in groups is considered to be more potent than being understood by one therapist. Furthermore, the group situation

facilitates the expression of several viewpoints which might never have been explored, it allows the client the opportunity to give and to receive help; it allows the individual to check out his own observations of himself with the impressions of others; in offering membership the group promotes a sense of belongingness; and it offers the opportunity to hear others talk about the same difficulties as one experiences oneself.

Groups however are only partial, and it is considered that individual therapy is necessary for the exploration of problems with deep unconscious causes. Groups can be extremely anxiety-provoking and inhibiting for some individuals. They lack the security of the warm "face to face" relationship of individual therapy; and also lack the singleness of purpose which is characteristic of individual counselling. Groups are however economical in terms of "therapeutic-man-hours."

Clinical observations demonstrate the general effectiveness of group therapy, though there appears to be a relative dearth of objective verification. Where there have been studies, these have been largely in the realm of the nondirective school of thought.

Sheldon and Landsman (1950) showed that the grade point average (GPA) of underachieving college students was raised in a nondirective group. Baymur and Patterson (1965) however considered it better to leave underachievers alone, rather than pointing out their lack of adequate achievement and exhorting them to do something about it. Winborn and Schmidt (1965) felt though, that short term (six - one hour) group counselling had a negative effect on the academic achievement of underachieving college freshmen.

The study of Winkler et al (1965) showed that boys involved in group counselling did significantly (in terms of overall GPA) better than girls involved in a similar experience. Howard and Zimpfer (1972) quote many authors (Crow, 1971, Lodato, Sokoloff and Schwartz, 1964) as effective in changing numerous adjustment variables (attitude to school, learning, peers, teachers attendance, and self concept) by use of the traditional group counselling approach.

Investigations of the efficacy of group versus individual counselling are equally ambivalent in their findings. Bilovsky et al (1953) showed an equality in terms of "realistic vocational choices" made by participants in group and individual therapy. Hoyt (1955), also in the sphere of vocational guidance, found both methods to be preferable to no counselling at all, but found no significant difference between the two methods. These studies are however in a rather "cognitive" area and it is considered that a difference may be shown in problems of a more affective nature.

Bednar and Weinberg (1970) in reviewing the literature, confirm what has emerged from above : the results of counselling on academic performance are both contradictory and ambiguous, as positive and negative results have both been obtained. In some cases, "therapeutic" intervention therefore appears noxious. Bednar and Weinberg attempt to extrapolate the dimensions of treatment programs associated with improved academic performance. They relate the following variables to improved academic achievement :-

i) duration of "treatment" (counselling contact);

ii) structure and group vs. individual counselling;

iii) the level of therapeutic conditions offered by the counsellor (empathy, warmth and genuineness);

iv) client motivation.

The treatment program in which the duration of counselling contact exceeded 10 hours reported effective raising of grade point average in 75% of the cases reviewed. Where this contact was less then 10 hours, 37% of the studies reported positive increases. The structuring variable which was isolated was found to be a potent variable in determining the success of the treatment program. A success rate of more than 60% is reported for structured treatment programs. Structured programs are those which are directive, academic, prescriptive and/or authoritarian, whereas unstructured programs are those which are nondirective client-centred, non-prescriptive and affectively orientated.

In terms of the level of therapeutic conditions offered, Dickenson and Truax (1966) found that the higher the level of conditions offered to the underachieving student, the more the improvement - i.e. the greater was the increase in the student's GPA. Simply offering instruction in academic skill without accompanying counselling relationship conditions has been found to be ineffective in improving the academic achievement of the underachiever. Greatest success is to be found in cases in which remediation and the counselling relationship are both subsets of the treatment program.

Mitchell and Piatkowska (1974) however offer the conclusion that successful counselling of the underachiever is superior when it is unstructured. They support

Bednar and Weinberg (1970) in noting that duration of treatment is an important aspect of the program. Possibly the most striking finding is that "grade gains do not consistently accompany improvements in any of the behaviours established as treatment targets." (Mitchell and Piatkowska, 1974 page 500). In other words, though the self concept of the individual may show desirable improvement, this may not lead directly to better academic achievement. Greater precision is required in formulating the aim or target of counselling.

Undoubtedly though, self concept and academic under-achievement are complex phenomena, involving the total person. The resolution of underachievement because of its complexity calls for all the depth, skill and psychological understanding that the counsellor can bring to bear on the situation.

1.6 GENERAL AIMS.

Though there is still some controversy in the field, authors generally agree that self concept and academic achievement are positively related. (Borislow, 1962; Brookover and Thomas, 1964; Caplin, 1969; Everett, 1971; Kurtz and Swenson, 1951 and Roth and Meyersburg, 1963). It would appear to be logical that those qualities the individual attributes to himself will influence his behaviour. Those qualities attributed to himself are derived from family and social interactions in which others' perceptions of the individual influence his perception of himself; and by extension influence his behaviour. Academic behaviour, being a subsystem of all behaviour, is thus influenced by the individual's self perception. Where self perception is low, academic achievement is also likely to be low.

The present study aimed at enumerating the characteristics of self of individuals whose academic performance varied independently of their measured level of potential (I.Q.).

In an era in which optimum performance is demanded for success (and its payoffs), an individual who, from an early age, is unable to apply all his resources to the full, is likely to continually confirm his view of himself as a "failure". For such an individual (the underachiever), life itself might well become an effort.

In the South African context there has been very little research in the field of underachievement. The accumulation of a sound body of knowledge about the underachiever will make it possible to construct an appropriate means of intervention into the vicious

circle of underachievement, and hopefully to ameliorate its immediate and long term effects. This study is intended to provide a foundation for such a sound body of knowledge. In comparing underachievers and normal achievers in terms of the way they perceive themselves both inter and intrapersonally it is hoped that educationalists will become aware of the fact that all is not necessarily well if pupils are performing "satisfactorily" in the teacher's eyes. Underachievers are often personally dissatisfied, but unable to implement the necessary steps to remediate their condition, on their own.

Furthermore, in identifying the characteristics of self in which the underachiever is experiencing difficulty, it becomes possible to devise a program which would offer the underachievers the opportunity to explore the inter and intrapersonal difficulties he experiences, and then to act on the insight thus obtained. Such a program might well be included in the frame of "personality guidance" in the Guidance Syllabus currently in use in Cape Schools.

Since it is departmental opinion that remedial education after the age of 10 to 11 years lacks significance in changing academic achievement, an alternative method of intervention in the vicious circle of underachievement is vitally necessary. Furthermore, it should be noted that remedial education is a form of intervention directed at the symptom viz., poor academic achievement, rather than the source. A self development program of the nature envisaged in this study is aimed at primary prevention i.e. it directs itself at the source of the problem: the pupil's poor self

conception. In these terms the consequences should be far reaching.

This study also attempts, within the boundaries of Guidance syllabus of the Cape Education Department, to offer a means of intervention which is economical, and hopefully effective. Calhoun (1956) has reported success in individual counselling of underachievers. However, realistically the more economical group method of intervention is more practical in an educational system in which the reality of pressure of time is a constant problem.

A group counselling program implemented over six months has thus been used in an attempt to intervene in the vicious circle of underachievement. Educational opinion holds that unless some change is apparent in the performance of pupils receiving remedial education, further remediation after six months is fruitless. For this reason the six month period was used in this study.

It is hoped to present an overview of how the self perceptions of pupils who "achieve" and those who do not, differ independently of their level of potential; and secondly to evaluate the efficacy of a group counselling program designed to alter the self concept of a group of underachievers, and hopefully to improve the level of their achievement.

1.7 HYPOTHESES.

Section 'A' Comparison of normal and underachievers.

1.7.1 Ho : There is no significant difference between the self concepts (i.e. inter and intrapersonal perceptions) of normalachievers and underachievers, as assessed by the California Test of Personality and The Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale.

Ha : There is a significant difference between the self concepts (i.e. inter and intra personal perceptions) of normalachievers and underachievers, as assessed by the California Test of Personality and The Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale.

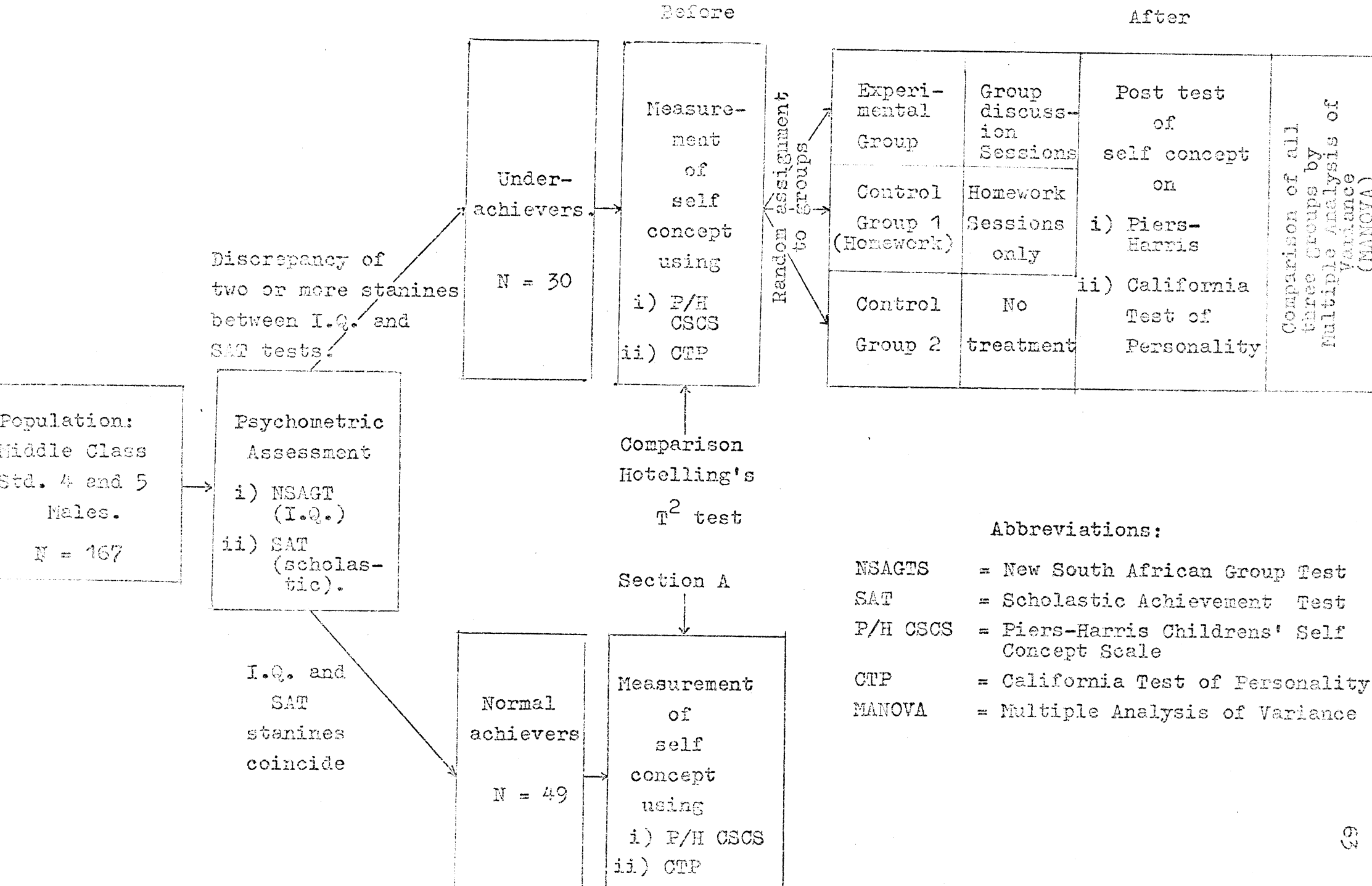
Section 'B' The effect of a group counselling program on the self concepts and level of achievement of a group of underachievers.

1.7.2 Ho : There is no significant difference, before and after a group counselling program on the self concepts (i.e. inter and intrapersonal perceptions) and level of achievement of a group of underachievers.

Ha : There is a significant difference before and after a group counselling program on the self concepts (i.e. inter and intrapersonal perceptions) and level of achievement of a group of underachievers.

2. METHOD

2.1 DESIGN.



Abbreviations:

NSAGTS	= New South African Group Test
SAT	= Scholastic Achievement Test
P/H CSCS	= Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale
CTP	= California Test of Personality
MANOVA	= Multiple Analysis of Variance

2.2 SUBJECTS.

The subjects in this study were selected from a population of 167 White standard four and five male pupils attending two middle class boys' preparatory schools in the same suburbs of the Cape Peninsula. The subjects were of an average age of 12 years and only pupils who spoke English as first language were included. Home-situation was not a variable which was controlled, and subjects came from varying backgrounds and had parents occupying various occupational levels. All the subjects fell into the average or above average ranges of intelligence as assessed on the New South African Group Test.

Since this study concerns itself with the self concept of the school pupil it was decided to use subjects of an average age of 12 years such that the "traumatic adolescent" period in which the individual's conception of himself is likely to be confused, was effectively avoided. It was further assumed that if a poor self concept proved to be an instrumental factor in the determination of academic underachievement, the earlier in the child's school career this syndrome was isolated and eliminated, the more beneficial it would prove in the child's academic and personal life.

Pupils selected as subjects in this study were selected on the following basis :

An assessment of the intellectual capacity or potential was made by administration of the New South African Group Test (NSAGT). The I.Q. scores thus obtained were classified into

categories on a standard nine point scale (stanine). An indication of the pupils actual level of achievement was gained from their performance on the Human Sciences Research Council Scholastic Achievement Test in Mathematics appropriate to the pupil's standard. These scores were also classified into stanines.

Underachievers were then determined by comparison of the two stanine scores described above. Probable underachievement (at the 5% level of significance) can be determined by using the NSAGT and SAT in conjunction. A difference of two stanines between the stanines with the SAT stanine being the lesser one, was the criterion employed for determination of the thirty underachievers. Normal achievers were those individuals whose I.Q. and scholastic achievement stanines coincided.

2.3 APPARATUS.

2.3.1 New South African Group Test (NSAGT).

This is a group intelligence test with three levels :

Junior	...	(ages 8 - 11 years 11 months)
Intermediate	...	(ages 10 - 14 years 11 months)
Senior	...	(ages 13 - 17 years 11 months)

In this study the subjects had been tested in their Standard 3 year at school when they were at an average age of 10 years. The Junior level of the test was used in this case. The Intermediate level of the test was used to test subjects who were approximately 12 years of age and in Standard 5 at the time of this study.

Each series of the NSAGT consists of Nonverbal and Verbal Tests administered as follows :-

NonVerbal		Verbal	
Test 1	Number Series	Test 2	Classification of Pairs of Words
Test 3	Figure Analogies	Test 4	Verbal Reasoning
Test 5	Pattern Completion	Test 6	Analogies of Words

There are 30 items in each test, the first five of which serve as practice examples. The items are all of the multiple choice type, the testee being required to choose the correct answer from a set of five possible answers. Verbal, Nonverbal and total I.Q. scores are computed.

In standardising the test a sample was chosen to represent all White pupils in South Africa. The following controls were applied :-

i) a control for the ratio of Afrikaans speaking to English speaking pupils. (2 : 1)

ii) Geographical location: taking account of the size of school populations, pupils in White schools (provincial, private and provincial-aided) in all four provinces and South West Africa were used in the sample.

iii) Urban-rural distribution was controlled.

iv) Physically and mentally handicapped children were omitted.

v) Random sampling of ten pupils for each age group in each school was instituted.

The sample was constituted by 2923 Afrikaans speaking and 1525 English speaking pupils at the Junior level, and 3849 Afrikaans speaking and 1870 English speaking pupils at the Intermediate level.

Norms for the two groups were independently calculated.

The validity of the NSAGT in predicting school success is exhibited by a correlation of ,86 and ,81 for the Junior series verbal and nonverbal correlation with a Silent Reading Test. Similarly correlations of ,87 and ,88 are shown to exist in the case of the Intermediate Series.

The reliability of the test, calculated by means of the K-R21 formula (which is usually an under-estimation) for verbal, nonverbal and total scores ranges from ,89 to ,96 for both groups in the Junior series and,

similarly, the range of correlation co-efficients for the Intermediate series is ,88 to ,96.

The standard error of measurement which is an index of the variation of the I.Q. score due to factors of chance, is quoted to be 2,5 I.Q. points for the Junior series, and 3,0 I.Q. points for the Intermediate series.

Scores obtained on the NSAGT may be expressed as percentiles, deviation I.Q's, or in terms of mental age. However, it should be noted that I.Q. is not calculated by the $\frac{MA}{CA} \times 100$ method.

The requirement of the test that the child must be able to read before he can complete the test may result in a confounding of reading ability and verbal intelligence.

In the present study the author did not administer all the New South African Group Tests. Some had been routinely administered by a school psychologist. Random responding and peculiar response patterns on the answer sheet are factors controlled in administration of the test, though the former factor may be considered to be a limitation in that classes of approximately 40 pupils were tested by one tester.

The total I.Q. scores obtained from this test were converted into stanines and these stanines compared with the stanine of the scholastic achievement test used in order to determine those pupils who were achievers and those who were underachievers. (A difference of two or more stanines with the scholastic achievement stanine being the lesser determines a probable underachiever).

2.3.2 Scholastic Achievement Test in Arithmetic.

This is a group achievement test with six levels from Sub A to Standard 4 and aims to obtain a reliable, objective indication of pupils' achievement in arithmetic.

Each series of the test consists of three tests covering mechanical calculations, comprehension of subject matter and the application of concepts and calculations.

Each test has 23 items, the first three of which are practice examples. The items of the Standard 3 and 4 forms of the test are of the multiple choice type, the testee being required to choose the correct answer from a set of five possible answers.

At the beginning of the school year the Standard 3 test was applied to Standard 4 pupils; and the Standard 4 test to Standard 5 pupils. (This is in accordance with test instructions and the determination of test norms). From test answers it is possible to compute stanines for each separate test and for the total score.

The stanine scale is a nine-point scale, according to which the distribution of raw scores is divided into nine parts. The stanines indicate the position in which a pupil is placed on the nine-point scale in terms of the strength of his achievements.

Standardisation :

After a number of preliminary applications the test was applied to a representative group of pupils of

all the Provinces in the Republic of South Africa and South West Africa in October, 1971. The final form was applied to a similar population in October, 1972 with the purpose of calculating norms. For the standardisation of the Standard 3 form of the test, 418 pupils were used. In the standardisation of the Standard 4 form of the test, 415 pupils were used. These norm groups were drawn proportionately, on a random basis, from the urban, semi-urban and rural strata of each Province and of S.W.A.

The reliability of the test, calculated by means of the K-R 20 and K-R 21 formulae (which usually underestimate test-retest reliability) is given as ,92 for the Standard 3 total score; and as ,91 for the Standard 4 total score.

Standard Error of Measurement:
(i.e. variation of scores due to chance factors), is quoted at 3,55 for the total score of the Standard 3 form of the test; and at 3,58 for the total score of the Standard 4 form of the test.

The establishment of the content validity of the Scholastic Achievement Test in arithmetic (i.e. the ability of the test to measure the distinctive knowledge of understanding and application of arithmetic subject-matter by the pupil) was ensured by the following procedure : the syllabuses and contents of learning matter were comprehensively studied; a committee of subject specialists checked the items carefully; items were re-defined after an item analysis; and teachers' comments were considered when finally constructing the test.

In the research presented here the Standard 4 and 5 subjects were all tested on the appropriate form of

the test in order to constitute a "before measure" of level of achievement. Since the experimental program ran into the second half of the year it was not possible to re-test on the same test (for reasons regarding standardisation procedure mentioned previously). Thus Standard 4 pupils were tested on the Standard 4 form of the test to constitute an "after-measure." For Standard 5 pupils it was necessary to use a comparable measure of level of scholastic achievement - The Mathematics subtest of the Junior Scholastic Proficiency Battery was therefore used.

2.3.3 The Junior Scholastic Proficiency Battery. (JSPB).

This scholastic proficiency battery is essentially used as an aid in the placement of pupils in Standards 5, 6 and 7 in various fields of study and proficiency groups. It measures the effectiveness with which a pupil has utilised his aptitudes and learning opportunities for obtaining proficiency in the scholastic fields.

The battery consists of six subtests :

First language; second language; mathematics; Natural Sciences; Geography and History, and can be applied to groups or individually. The battery should be applied in the latter half of the year, and more particularly during the month of August.

The research reported here concerned itself only with the mathematics test of the battery. This is a 40 item test of the multiple choice type, with five possible answers being given, and the testee being required to choose the correct one.

The mathematics test measures proficiency in mathematics i.e. various computations with numbers.

In standardising the test the JSPB was applied to a representative sample of 1,500 pupils in each of Standard 5, 6 and 7 in the Republic of South Africa and South West Africa, at the beginning of the third quarter of 1975. Equal numbers of boys and girls were included per Province, and norms for language as well as sex groups were calculated jointly for all except the language tests.

The reliability of the test, calculated according to the K-R 20 formula shows that the battery is highly consistent and accurate in its measurement. The reliability for the mathematics test is given as ,833.

The JSPB is stated to have good differential predictive values. Predictive validity was established by correlating the December, 1975 examination marks of Standard 5, 6 and 7 pupils tested in August for establishing norms, with the JSPB scores. For English speaking Standard 5 boys the correlations between the JSPB and I.Q. scores and examination marks are given below :

Verbal I.Q.	correlated with Mathematics	= ,575
NonVerbal I.Q.	correlated with Mathematics	= ,540
Total I.Q.	correlated with Mathematics	= ,606

All are significant at the ,01 level.

2.3.4 The Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale (P/H CSCS).

Though the self concept has been the source of much

concern in psychology for a number of years, it remains a concept which is confusing, elusive and lacking in precision. There are few, if any, really effective measuring devices, and in order that the problem of measurement might be circumvented, it has been necessary to infer the nature of the self concept from the behaviour of the individual. What the individual has to say about himself is one useful basis from which such inferences can be made. It is with this in mind that the Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale and the California Test of Personality have been used in the present study.

The Piers-Harris is a self-report instrument designed for research into the development of childrens self attitudes, and correlates of these attitudes. The "self concept" as assessed by this instrument is in accord with"the phenomenological approach" and is "assumed to refer to a set of relatively stable self-attitudes." (Piers, 1977, page 1). Such attitudes are both descriptive and evaluative, e.g. "I am happy", "I am dumb at most things"; and the items are scored in a positive or negative direction to reflect this dimension of evaluation. Thus a high score is indicative of a favourable self concept, which Piers maintains becomes interchangeable with the terms "self-esteem" or "self-regard."

There have been several revisions of the test (Piers and Harris, 1969, Piers, 1977) and it is presently comprised of 80 declarative sentences worded at the Standard 3 reading level. The subject answers "yes" or "no" according to how he generally feels.

Factor Analytic Structure and Cluster Scores.

Initially a principal components factor analysis was reported for 457 sixth graders. Ten factors were extracted and rotated, with six factors finally being interpreted. Michael, Smith and Michael (1975) confirmed the cluster of the factors extracted by Piers and Harris (1969). The following clusters were reported :

i) Behaviour
ii) Intellectual and School Status
iii) Physical Appearance and Attributes
iv) Anxiety
v) Popularity
vi) Happiness and Satisfaction

In the study reported here the Revised Cluster Scores were used.

Standardisation.

Initially the 140 item scale was administered to four third-grade classes, four sixth-grade classes, and four tenth-grade classes. Several different schools were chosen to represent a wide cross-section of socio-economic levels, and children of low, average and high ability participated.

Three judges classified statements according to high or low self concept. Repetitious items were discarded such that 100 items remained, five of which were not scored in any direction. No significant sex differences were found and variability of scores was found to decrease consistently with age.

A final item analysis was made using 127 sixth-grade students. Eighty items were found to discriminate significantly between low and high self concepts and these items now constitute the final form of the test.

Reliability :

Kuder-Richardson reliability on the 95 item form of the test ranged from ,78 for Grade 10 girls to ,93 for Grade 3 boys. (Piers-Harris, 1964). On the 80 item form, Piers and Harris (1969) found the two and four month test-retest reliability for fifth grade subjects to be ,77. Wylie (1974) considers these reliabilities to be satisfactory for research purposes.

Validity.

Though the possible influence of social desirability on responses remains unresolved, Cronbach (1960) maintains that self reports are more reasonably interpreted as the subject's"public self concept," a construct which should correlate more closely with the individual's public behaviour. Phenomenologically it is irrelevant whether the self concept corresponds to ratings by others. However, where this has been attempted, (Cox, 1966 in Piers and Harris, 1969) there has been an appreciable correlation between self rating on the Piers-Harris and teacher and peer ratings of socially effective behaviour (,43 and ,31).

With respect to the convergent validity of the Piers-Harris," (Mayer 1967 in Piers and Harris, 1969) reports a correlation of ,68 with the Self Concept Scale for Children for 98 retarded, 12 to 16-year-old subjects. The discriminant validity of the Piers-Harris total score as differentiated from I.Q. is quoted to be low and insignificant by Piers and Harris (1969).

General.

There is no time limited imposed for completion of this test. Only approximately 20 minutes are required for completion, and the test can be administered in a group setting.

2.3.5 The California Test of Personality.

This test consists of a series of five questionnaires for successive developmental levels each with two equivalent forms and purports to measure a number of components of personal and social adjustment. It is a self report forced choice questionnaire requiring "yes" or "no" answers and can be administered in either a group or an individual contest. Questions in the test are divided into two main groups, Personal Adjustment and Social Adjustment and each group is divided into six sections of fifteen questions each.

The sections are :

Personal Adjustment:

This scale was used to give an overall view of the individual's intrapersonal perception.

a) Self Reliance :
this gives an indication of the individual's ability to be self-dependent in various situations and activities. A high score characterises emotional stability and responsibility in behaviour.

b) Sense of Personal Worth :
is derived largely from being regarded favourably by others and gives the individual a feeling of being capable and attractive.

c) Sense of Personal Freedom :
this is experienced by the individual who has a share in determining his conduct and in setting the general policies governing his life.

d) Feeling of Belonging:
is derived from being able to feel the love of family and friends and to be able to experience cordiality in relationships in general. A high scoring individual here usually gets on well with his teachers and is proud of his school.

e) Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies:
the individual who tends to withdraw is seen to enjoy living in fantasy rather than encountering success in real life. Withdrawn persons are characteristically self concerned and lonely in their maladjustment.

f) Freedom from Nervous Tendencies :
This section elicits physical symptoms thought to be an expression of emotional conflict. A relative freedom from such symptoms is indicative of adjustment.

Social Adjustment :
This scale was used to give an overall view of inter-personal perception.

g) Social Standards.
High scores here give an indication of the individual's ability to understand social standards, i.e. those things regarded as right and those regarded as wrong.

h) Social Skills.
An individual with well developed social skills favours an interest in the problems and activities of others rather than being egotistical with regard to his own problems and activities.

i) Freedom from Anti-Social Tendencies.
The anti-social individual (i.e. one who obtains a low score on this scale) aims at self satisfaction at the expense of others. Such an individual is usually a bully, disobedient, destructive to property, and is frequently involved in quarrels. A relative freedom from such tendencies characterises normal adjustment.

j) Family Relations.
The individual who feels loved, well-treated, secure and respected in his family relationships scores high on this section.

k) School Relations.
Good school relations result when the pupil is liked by his teachers and peers and when he finds that there is a concordance between his school work and the level of his interest and maturity.

l) Community Relations.
An individual who is well adjusted in the community is respectful of the laws/regulations regarding general welfare, and is able to mix happily with his neighbours.

The reliabilities of the Personal Adjustment and Social Adjustment scores of the elementary level of the test (the level used in this study) are given as ,93 and ,92 respectively. These reliabilities were based on the split-half method and were corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula determined from 648 subjects. Subtest reliabilities are stated to range

from ,64 to ,83 and are said to be sufficiently high to locate more restricted areas of personal difficulty. (California Test of Personality Manual). Vernon (in Buros, 1970) feels that the reliabilities seem quite adequate.

In terms of validity the California Test of Personality is seen to correlate more closely with clinical findings than any other personality test, and many items of the test have been validated by other workers.

Standardisation norms for the test are given in the form of percentile ranks. For the form used in this study, i.e. the Elementary Level 4,562 pupils in grades 4 to 8 inclusive in schools in Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Massachusetts and California were used in Standardisation. Median I.Q. was 100, with 85% of the population being caucasian.

Reviews of the test caution against its use for individual diagnosis, though the test is favourably regarded for research purposes. Sims (in Buros, 1970) is amongst the most sceptical of individuals reviewing the test. However, he concludes that "in spite of criticism, as personality inventories go, the California test would appear to be among the better ones available." (page 724).

2.4 THE SELF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM (SDP)

A rationale:

Figuratively speaking, modern man, in being a rational individual, "lives in his head." That is his everyday existence is both planned and controlled by his rational thoughts. Effectively, the individual's awareness of himself as a total being (both intra and interpersonally) becomes restricted.

This self development program was designed to give the pupil the opportunity, in a group counselling context, to explore his inter and intrapersonal perceptions such that an awareness of several aspects of self was possible. Specific areas for self exploration were, for example, "my body" and "my values" from an intrapersonal perspective, and "my needs" and "relating to others" from an interpersonal perspective.

In offering the pupil a frame or means of self evaluation it was intended that the pupil, though realising he is unique, would be able to establish his abilities and limitations; to accept them, to adapt to them and to use them as stepping stones in decision making. Self awareness provides one of the most important phases in preparation for the whole range of life experiences.

In counselling "for life and not just for a living" (Tyler, 1961), this program was designed to facilitate the pupil's "process of becoming." (Rogers, 1951). Frequently one hears the questions "Who am I really ?" "Where am I going ?"

"What do I want ?" If these questions are not asked directly, they are definitely implied in the verbalisations of the pupil. One pupil who participated in the self development program commented : "My problem is how to adopt friendly principles (to make friends etc) when a bad impression has already been formed."

The student needs above all to think through what he wants from life in general, which of the many rewards it holds out have the most meaning for him, what philosophical questions he is seeking answers to, what kinds of human relationships he wants most to cultivate and maintain, and what kind of contribution to the common good he expects to make. (Tyler, 1961).

The answers to the questions posed by the searching pupil are best found in the pupils themselves. The Freudian notion that we are bound by our past and ruled by our unconscious is not a fundamental assumption of the program. Instead it is assumed that given the climate and means, the pupil has the capacity to lead himself and to take action to choose the course which his life will take.

For Rogers (1967) man is continually striving to find his real self in order to answer the question, "Who am I ?" The first step of the process of "becoming" is that of self appraisal or self assessment: the learning of oneself, one's unused strengths and abilities, and ultimately to establish new possibilities for oneself.

In offering the following self development program, an implicit assumption which is made is that the pupil does this for himself. It is not an opportunity for the counsellor to probe into the life of the pupil, and pupils who participated in the SDP were told that should they not wish to they need not show their self assessments to anyone. This was a small, but important presupposition, for pupils are acutely aware of "meddling" in their private lives and many suffer from the fear that a confidentiality may "leak out" and lead to personal disaster.

The self development program presented here was developed from three main sources : Rast (1976); Zimmerman (1976); and Hopson and Hough (1975), and is divided into 12 units, designed to expand the individual's awareness of himself. These units were :

i) My Feelings about Myself.
ii) Becoming a Person
iii) My Basic Needs
iv) Dealing with Reality
v) My Emotions
vi) My Body
vii) Male versus Female
viii) My Self Image
ix) Relating to Others
x) Factors that May Erode the Family
xi) Communications Breakdown
xii) The Future.

At the first session it was necessary to give the group a general introduction describing the reasons for and the nature and limitations of the group

discussions. It was explained to the group how the opinion an individual holds of himself often influences his behaviour and his productivity. Members were told that these sessions were designed to enable them to explore various aspects of themselves both in and out of school. The necessity that individuals attend all 12 one-hour sessions was stressed and the limit of confidentiality imposed. The program proper was then implemented.

Session One : My Feelings About Myself.

i) Christian Names:
Each group member wrote his Christian name on a piece of paper, and then rewrote the name in reverse. Then, pretending it was a word from a new extraterrestrial language, each individual practised "rolling the word around" and pronouncing it. Thereafter he wrote down a dictionary translation/ definition of the word, e.g.

Julian — Nailuj — A monster of the deep waters.

Peter — Retep — A monster with a quick temper.

The new names were "pooled" and in a group discussion each person had the opportunity to say whether the name said anything about him as a person. The group leader facilitated the discussion by providing some phenomenological clues.

ii) Famous People :
A second exercise aimed at increasing self understanding and to reveal some possible fantasies of the individual was introduced by the group members

having to write down the names of three or four famous people, living or dead, whom they would most like to have been. These names were then ranked in order of choice. In the ensuing group discussion individuals were required to answer the following questions :

(a) Why did I order them this way ?

(b) What, if anything, do they have in common ?

(c) Why did I choose these - are they like me, as I would like to be or different aspects of me ?

The session was concluded after each individual had been given the opportunity to say what he had learned about himself from the exercises.

Session Two : Becoming a Person.

An introduction to this session was centred around a group discussion, lead by the group leader, which analysed the meaning of the phrase "becoming a person." The following aspects were emphasised and expanded upon :

i) "becoming" involves a movement in some direction, and by implication this involves some change on the part of the individual.

ii) To become a "person" requires that the individual be open; authentic and accepting of his uniqueness.

iii) The process of "becoming a Person" means:

(a) being open to experience;
(b) believing in oneself;
(c) choosing from within; and
(d) developing, not stagnating.

The group was then required to answer the following questions nonverbally, by drawing them :

What is something you are good at and something else you are trying to get better at ?

What is one belief or value you have that you would never give up ?

What is the most important material item you own ?

What was your greatest achievement and your biggest failure in the past year ? Draw two pictures.

If you could be someone else, who would that be ?

What three words or qualities would you give as your life's motto ?

The session was concluded after the group members had been given the opportunity to share their experiences and discoveries.

Session Three : My Basic Needs.

Discussion at the introduction was centred around the notion that we all have different needs which should be met, and that it is difficult "to become a person" unless certain basic needs are met. The

The difference between a need and a want required explanation. Thereafter individuals were required to name various needs they thought man had. The basic paradigm of Maslow's needs hierarchy was elicited, but particular attention was paid to the necessity to receive love and recognition, to function as a social and human being. The needs for freedom, independence and a challenge in life were also discussed. Individuals were then required to give thought to the question, "Am I really getting what I want or need out of life ?" And to differentiate between wants and basic needs from a list which was provided. Finally, the group members were required to list basic needs being gratified; and basic needs which were not being gratified. In the concluding discussion group members were able to exchange ideas as to how they might satisfy their ungratified needs.

Session Four : Dealing with Reality.

At this session the group was told how several people tend to live in the world as they perceive or assume it to be and not as it really is. The end product of acting upon a distorted reality was shown to retard the process of "becoming a person." Two pictures (Appendix 6) were projected on to a screen in the classroom to demonstrate how perceptions can often be inaccurate. For each picture the group members were asked to discuss what was happening in the picture. Once all had decided on their views of what was happening, an explanation of what was really happening was given, pointing out how easily one can misinterpret reality, by assuming that untested beliefs constitute the real situation. Group discussion was channelled to elicit from the group a set of procedures for determining reality

more effectively. In general terms the group was able to decide on the following steps :

i) Identify the perception/belief clearly.

ii) Look for evidence supporting the belief.

iii) Look for possible alternative explanations of the situation.

iv) Determine whether or not the new belief is consistent with other beliefs known to be valid.

For "homework" the group members were required to attempt to apply the rules elicited during the session to their own lives.

Session Five : My Emotions.

This session was introduced by telling the group that our handling of emotions effects our development as persons directly. Denial of emotions tends to lead to intellectual and superficial relationships whereas an inability to control our emotions can lead to social sanctioning.

Group members were then asked to write down the emotions which came to mind in one minute; and then to say how they felt whilst completing this task. (Many felt "rushed".) A frequency chart of the number of emotions thought of by each person was depicted on the blackboard and the group asked to decide upon which emotions were positive and which ones were negative. Group discussion was stimulated at this point as there were different viewpoints, particularly regarding "anger".

Having anticipated this, the group leader then presented the group with a series of sentences

which the group members were required to complete. e.g.

I become irritated when.....

When I get angry, I.....

When you get hot under the collar it is best to.....

Each group member read his sentences out to the group, and the justifiability of the emotion in various situations, highlighted. The "normality" of anger was stressed, and it was pointed out how it was possible to accept and love another individual but still to be angry with him. Discussion was directed such that the group concluded that (i) anger should be expressed, (ii) but that it should be expressed in an appropriate and socially acceptable manner.

Session Six : My Body.

This session required the group members to identify with one of several individuals projected on to the screen (Appendix 7). Each individual was given the opportunity to enumerate the similarities between their own bodies and those on the screen, and to say how they felt about their bodies. Spontaneously the group began to discuss how one's feelings about one's body affects one's behaviour. For each negative attribute assigned by group members, they were also required to name one positive attribute. In general discussion individuals were able to assess the extent to which their own perceptions coincided with the perceptions of their peers. The principles for evaluating perceptions which were learned in session four, were used in the discussion.

Session Seven : Male versus Female.

This session was introduced by the group being required to write down ten characteristics they considered to be masculine, and ten feminine ones. These were all pooled and group members asked to mark those items with which they identified. The group discussion highlighted the changing values of society, and noted that many characteristics could be classified under both categories. The group was concluded by emphasising the uniqueness of each individual; and by demonstrating with examples, how it was possible for an individual to have a completely masculine identity in spite of identifying "feminine" characteristics in himself.

Session Eight : My Self Image.

By this session, the group was accustomed to discussing their feelings about themselves. This session comprised two sections :

i) Twenty Questions :
Here the group members were required to answer the question, "Who am I ?" twenty times, after being told that the exercise required them to describe themselves and their roles in life. Each group member then read his answers to the group, and discussion was channelled to the fact that self image is constituted by a set of beliefs which we hold about ourselves, and that these beliefs are often acquired from others, e.g. parents, teachers and peers. Where the group felt that any individual held an unrealistic view about himself they were able to offer him different (usually positive) feedback.

ii) Secondly, the group were required to imagine that they were lemons, and to then draw themselves as a lemon. Finally, the group members individually described the similarities between themselves and their lemons.
The session was concluded by each group member telling each of his fellow members in what positive way they were distinctive.

Session Nine : Relating to Others.

Group discussion was initiated by the group being asked to discuss which characteristics they thought were necessary in a relationship/friendship. Discussion was further stimulated by projecting a number of characteristics (Appendix 8) on to a screen. The group was required to say which characteristics they thought were necessary to a good interpersonal relationship.

Finally group members were required to complete a worksheet (Appendix 9) which required them to identify characteristics as being familiar or foreign to themselves in their relationships. In addition they were required to write a few sentences to formulate how they might change in order to make the development of close interpersonal relationships easier for them.

Session Ten : Factors that may Erode the Family.

After discussing the group's views on what constituted a family, group members were required to write down the factors they thought could erode the composition of the family, and family life in

general. Topics such as alcohol, drugs, divorce, television, sport, money, extra-marital affairs and moving home were all enumerated. Group members offered limited discussion on selected topics from those enumerated, and discussed the roles played by television, sport, money and moving home in their families. Where group members were from "broken homes" discussion was gently moved to less emotionally charged factors.

The session was concluded by group members enumerating how they saw their own families would be when they became adults.

Session Eleven : Communications Breakdown.

At the beginning of this session the group was asked what factors they thought contributed to a breakdown of communications in the family. The following were discussed :

i) seeing different images while using the same words;

ii) the generation gap.

A large portion of this session was devoted to allowing the group ventilate their feelings about the roles of the above areas in their families.

To demonstrate how "message sent does not equal message received," or how communications are often distorted, five group members were sent from the room, one called in and told a story - he then had to convey the story to the next member called in ....until the last group member told the group his version of what he had heard. The group agreed that much of their communication was loose and inaccurate. They were left with the task to try to communicate clearly and unambigiously in their relationships.

Session Twelve : The Future.

This session was designed to allow the group to discuss what they had learned from the preceding sessions, and what their plans regarding themselves were for their future development as people.

2.5 PROCEDURE.

It has already been noted that the subjects in this study were selected from a population of 167 White standard four and five males, attending two boys preparatory schools in the same area.

i) Pupils attending one of the schools had been tested on the NSAGT in their standard three, and where applicable, in their standard five academic years by the school psychologist in that area. Their I.Q. scores were thus obtained from the school records.

Pupils attending the second school had not been assessed as above, and were tested, during school hours, on the NSAGT.

ii) With the experimenter assisting the school psychologist, the scholastic achievement tests in arithmetic, appropriate to the standard of the pupils, were administered to the entire population during school hours of the first quarter of the year.

iii) By comparing the stanines of the I.Q. test and achievement test it was possible to classify pupils into two groups. These groups are referred to as Underachievers and Normal-achievers. The former have a two point (or greater) discrepancy between the I.Q. and achievement test

stanines with the achievement test stanine being the lesser.

iv) All pupils who had failed one or more school standards; whose I.Q. was less than 90, or whose home language was anything but English, were excluded from this investigation. Pupils whose parents refused their permission for participation were also excluded.

Finally, 49 pupils constituted the Normalachieving group, and 30, the Underachieving group.

v) Assessment of self concept was made immediately after school hours, by administering The Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale, and the California Test of Personality on two successive days in each school. Testing took place in the classroom of the subjects, and subjects were told that the purpose of the tests was to give educationalists an insight into what young people think of things in general, and of themselves in particular. In order to assess "actual" rather than "ideal" self concept, subjects were asked to complete the questionnaires honestly and as they really saw themselves as opposed to how they would like to be.
Comparison of normal and underachievers in terms of self concept was thus possible.

vi) The second section of this study attempted to assess the efficacy of a group counselling program on the self concept and level of achievement of underachievers. The 30 underachievers were randomly assigned to three different groups, of 10 subjects each.

The experimental group was involved in 12 one-hour group counselling sessions, held over six months on Fridays, immediately after school hours. The "self development program" followed in these sessions has already been described. Ten subjects constituted Control Group 1 (Homework). In order to control for the personality of the experimenter affecting results, subjects from Control Group 1 were involved in 12 one-hour sessions, held over six months on Thursdays, immediately following the end of school. At these sessions subjects were required to do their homework for that day. Where they encountered difficulty they were able to enlist the aid of the experimenter. The experimenter had no contact with the 10 subjects who constituted Control Group 2, except in the psychometric assessment of the groups.

vii) At the end of the six months, pupils were reassessed on both self concept measures, and also on a measure of achievement in mathematics.

The results of these assessments follow.

3. RESULTS

3.1 COMPARISON OF THE SELF CONCEPTS OF NORMAL ACHIEVERS AND UNDERACHIEVERS.

Table 1 presents a summary of the means and standard deviations of scores of Normal achievers and Underachievers on the instruments used in assessment of self concept. The T^2 of 35,2546 (df = 3 , 77) is significant at the ,01 level and indicates an overall difference between the two groups of subjects. Also presented on this table are the Hotelling's T^2 scores for each of the 'self concept instruments' employed. The T^2 scores of 100,34 (df = 3 , 77) for the Piers-Harris Self Concept Scale; 140,60 (df = 3 , 77) for the California Test of Personality Personal Adjustment Score; and 104,92 (df = 3 , 77) for the California Test of Personality Social Adjustment score are all significant at the ,01 level and indicate that normalachievers and underachievers differ significantly on all three self concept measures employed in this study.

Table 2 presents a summary of the means and standard deviations of scores of normal and underachievers on the six subscales of the Piers-Harris Self Concept Scale. The obtained T^2 of 25,5178 (df = 6 , 77) is significant at the ,01 level; an overall difference between the two groups is indicated. For each of the subscales of the Piers-Harris (Behaviour T^2 = 68,34; Intellectual and School Status T^2 = 72,13. Physical Appearance and Attributes T^2 = 26,75; Anxiety T^2 = 44,67; Popularity T^2 = 54,45; and Happiness and Satisfaction T^2 = 34,85) the scores are significant at least at the ,01 level. The two groups of achievers thus differ significantly on each of the subscales of the Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale.

Table 3 summarises the means and standard deviations of scores of the two groups of subjects on the six subtests of the California Test of Personality and in showing a T^2 of 54,046 (df = 6 , 77), which is significant at the ,01 level, indicates an overall difference between the two groups in terms of intrapersonal perception. The summary table showing the subtests (Self Reliance T^2 = 28,40; Sense of Personal Worth T^2 = 211,57; Sense of Personal Freedom T^2 = 44,94; Feeling of Belonging T^2 = 97,31; Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies T^2 = 86,54; and Freedom from Nervous Tendencies T^2 = 90,64) of the Personal Adjustment Scale provides evidence that Normalachievers and Underachievers differ at at least the ,01 level of significance on each of the subtests.

Table 4 presents a summary of the means and standard deviations of scores of normal and underachievers on the six subtests of the California Test of Personality Social Adjustment Scale. The T^2 of 31,4305 (df = 6 , 77) shown on the Table is significant at the ,01 level and again indicates an overall difference between the two groups on the subtests. The T^2 scores of 31,97 for the Social Standards subtest; 25,04 for the Social Skills subtest; 104,34 for the Freedom from Anti-Social Tendencies subtest, 58,88 for the Family Relations subtest; 84,31 for the School Relations subtest and 37,28 for the Community Relations subtest provide evidence that normalachievers and underachievers differ at at least the ,01 level on each of the subtests of the California Test of Personality Social Adjustment Scale.

From this data it is concluded that normal and underachievers differ significantly in terms of their inter and intrapersonal perceptions. Null hypothesis 1.7.1

must thus be rejected and the alternate hypothesis accepted i.e. there is a significant difference between the self concepts (i.e. inter and intra personal perceptions) of normalachievers and underachievers, as assessed by the California Test of Personality and the Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale.

TABLE 1

	Means			Standard Deviations		
	PH/T	CTP/PA	CTP/SA	PH/T	CTP/PA	CTP/SA
Underachievers	58,43	48,10	50,23	11,67	11,98	10,25
Normal Achievers	68,02	60,14	59,47	5,81	6,64	6,28
Vector of Mean Differences	-9,59	-12,04	-9,24			
Vector of Standard errors				0,96	1,02	0,90

Correlation x 1000

1000

737 1000

623 701 1000

T^2 = 35,2546**

df = 3 , 77

F = 11,45**

df = 3 , 75

	PH/T	CTP/PA	CTP/SA
t =	-10,02	-11,86	-10,24
T^2 =	100,34**	140,60**	104,92**

** donates significant at the 0,01 level

Key PH/T = Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale: Total scale.

CTP/PA = California Test of Personality: Personal Adjustment score.

CTP/SA = California Test of Personality : Social Adjustment score.

COMPARISON OF NORMAL AND UNDERACHIEVERS on the Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale (PH/T). total score; The California Test of Personality Personal Adjustment Scale (CTP/PA) and the California Test of Personality Social Adjustment Scale (CTP/SA) by means of the Hotelling's T^2 Test for Independent Samples.

TABLE 2

	Means					
	Beh.	I & SS.	Phys. A.&.A.	Anx.	Pop.	Happ. & S.
Underachievers	10,87	10,13	7,93	9,87	8,60	8,63
Normal achievers	13,53	13,24	9,53	11,59	10,24	9,41
Vector of Mean Differences	-2,66	-3,11	-1,60	-1,73	-1,64	-0,78

Standard Deviations

Underachievers	3,51	3,90	3,19	2,80	2,57	1,65
Normal achievers	2,39	2,80	2,43	1,92	1,52	0,73
Vector of Standard Errors	0,32	0,37	0,31	0,26	0,22	0,13

Correlation x 1000

1000

361 1000

091 610 1000

391 472 308 1000

396 515 518 615 1000

474 398 404 455 487 1000

T^2	= 25,5178**
df	= 6 , 77
F	= 3,97681**
df	= 6 , 72

	Beh.	I.& S.S.	Phys. A.& A.	Anx.	Pop.	Happ. & S.
t =	-8,27	-8,49	-5,17	-6,68	-7,38	-5,90
T^2 =	68,34**	72,13**	26,75**	44,67**	54,45**	34,85**

** denotes significant at the 0,01 level

Key:
- Beh. = Behaviour
- I & SS. = Intellectual and School Status
- Phys. A & A = Physical Appearance and Attributes
- Anx. = Anxiety
- Pop. = Popularity
- Happ. & S. = Happiness and Satisfaction

COMPARISON OF NORMAL ACHIEVERS AND UNDERACHIEVERS on the various subscales of the Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale by means of the Hotelling's T^2 test for Independent Samples.

TABLE 3

	Means					
	Self Rel	S.of P/W	S.of P/F	F.of Bel.	F.from W/T	F.from N/T
Underachievers	7,53	7,03	9,03	9,40	6,93	7,83
Normal achievers	8,65	10,16	10,59	10,94	9,84	9,98
Vector of Mean differences	-1,12	-3,13	-1,56	-1,54	-2,91	-2,15
	Standard Deviations					
Underachievers	2,15	2,47	2,74	1,81	3,57	2,46
Normal achievers	1,68	1,48	1,53	1,05	2,15	1,66
Vector of Standard errors	0,21	0,22	0,23	0,16	0,31	0,23

Correlation x 1000

1000				
386	1000			
392	543	1000		
409	588	500	1000	
374	559	570	565	1000
168	452	426	453	641	1000

$T^2 = 54,046^{**}$

df = 6 , 77

$F = 8,423^{**}$

df = 6 , 72

	Self Rel.	S.of P/W	S. of P/F	F. of Bel.	F. from W/T	F. from N/T
t =	-5,33	-14,55	-6,70	-9,86	-9,30	-9,52
T^2 =	$28,40^{**}$	$211,57^{**}$	$44,94^{**}$	$97,31^{**}$	$86,54^{**}$	$90,64^{**}$
** denotes significant at the 0,01 level						

Key : Self Rel. = Self Reliance
S. of P/W = Sense of Personal Worth
S. of P/F = Sense of Personal Freedom
F. of Bel. = Feeling of Belonging
F. from W/T = Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies
F. from N/T = Freedom from Nervous Tendencies

COMPARISON OF NORMAL ACHIEVERS AND UNDERACHIEVERS on the various subscales of the Personal Adjustment Scale of the California Test of Personality by means of the Hotelling's T^2 Test for Independent Samples.

TABLE 4

Means

	Soc. Stds.	Soc. Sk.	F.from A/T	Fam. Rels.	Sch. Rels.	Com. Rels
Underachievers	9,63	8,50	6,97	8,63	7,30	9,20
Normal achievers	10,53	9,57	9,47	10,61	9,43	10,20
Vector of Mean Differences	-0,90	-1,07	-2,50	-1,98	-2,13	-1,00

Standard Deviations

Underachievers	1,65	2,08	2,63	3,13	2,51	1,58
Normal achievers	1,24	1,62	1,85	1,58	1,71	1,38
Vector of Standard Errors	0,16	0,20	0,25	0,26	0,23	0,16

Correlation x 1000

1000

401 1000

374 371 1000

390 268 641 1000

289 227 459 522 1000

314 427 389 333 425 1000

T^2	= 31,4305**
df	= 6 , 77
F	= 4,8982**
df	= 6 , 72

	Soc. Stds.	Soc. Sk.	F.from A/T	Fam. Rels.	Sch. Rels.	Com. Rels.
t =	-5,65	-5,00	-10,21	-7,67	-9,18	-6,11
T^2 =	31,97**	25,04**	104,34**	58,88**	84,31**	37,28**

** denotes significant at the 0,01 level.

Key: Soc. Stds = Social Standards
Soc. Sk. = Social Skills
F. from A/T = Freedom from Anti-Social Tendencies
Fam. Rels. = Family Relations
Sch. Rels. = School Relations
Com. Rels. = Community Relations

COMPARISON OF NORMAL ACHIEVERS AND UNDERACHIEVERS on the various subscales of the Social Adjustment Score of the California Test of Personality by means of Hotelling's T^2 Test for Independent Samples.

3.2 THE EVALUATION OF THE EFFICACY OF A GROUP COUNSELLING PROGRAM ON THE SELF CONCEPT OF UNDERACHIEVING PUPILS.

Table 5 provides a summary of the mean differences (before and after) and standard deviations of scores for the three groups of underachievers on the three self concept instruments used. A manova summary table is also presented. A test for homogeneity of variances was employed, and was found to be not significant. The Manova F Ration of 3 , 66 (df = 2 , 27) is significant at the ,05 level. Table 5B provides a summary of the attempt to discover on which variables this significance lay. The Univariate Anovas tabled here show that on the Piers-Harris Self Concept Scale (Total score) of F = 2,78 (df = 2 , 27) there is no significant change for all subjects before and after the program.
The California Test of Personality Personal Adjustment Score F = 4,63 (df = 2 , 27) which is significant at the ,05 level indicates a significant change for all subjects after the program. A significant difference at the ,01 level is shown for all subjects on the California Test of Personality Social Adjustment Score (F = 13,20 df = 2 , 27). The results of Tuckey Pairwise Comparisons show that the Experimental Group differs significantly from only the Homework Control Group in the case of the CTP Personal Adjustment Scale. A significance at the ,01 level between the Experimental and both Control Groups, but no significance between the two Control Groups on the CTP Social Adjustment Scale is shown. However Table 5B shows that when multiple comparisons are performed on the experimental group on the one hand, and both Control

Groups on the other, they differ at the ,05 level of significance (Scheffé F = 3,71 df = 2 , 27).

Table 6 summarises the mean differences (before and after) and standard deviations of scores for the three groups of underachievers on the subscales of the California Test of Personality Personal Adjustment Score. A Manova Summary table is also presented in the table. A test for homogeneity of the variances was employed and was found to be not significant. The Manova F Ratio of 0,745 (df = 2 , 27) is not significant and indicates that on the individual subscales of the CTP Personal Adjustment Score, underachievers do not differ significantly after a group counselling program.

Table 7 provides a summary of the mean differences (before and after) and standard deviations of scores for the three groups of underachievers on the subscales of the California Test of Personality Social Adjustment Scale. A Manova Summary table is also included. A test for homogeneity of variances was employed and was found to be not significant. The Manova F Ratio of 2,96869 (df = 2 , 27) is not significant and indicates that on the individual subscales of the CTP Social Adjustment Score, underachievers do not differ significantly after a group counselling program.

It should be noted from Tables 5B, 6 and 7 that although on the CTP Personal Adjustment and CTP Social Adjustment Scores there is a significant difference between the before and after scores of subjects; there is no evidence of a significant difference when these scores are broken down into their various components. The null hypothesis 1.7.2

must therefore be accepted. However, evidence presented on Table 8 points to the fact that this acceptance of the null hypothesis must be qualified.

In Table 8 a summary of mean differences (before and after) and standard deviations of degree of underachievement for the three groups of underachievers is provided. The summary table of the two way analysis of variance with repeated measures on B shows that the F-Ratio of factor B (i.e. pre vs. post test scores) is 4,59 and that this is significant at the ,05 level. There is no significant difference between groups F_A = ,72 and F_{AB} = ,43 which is also not significant.

Graph 1, following the data from Table 8 gives a graphical representation of the change in mean differences of underachievement for the three groups of underachievers on the pre and post test measures. The graph shows clearly that the greatest change in terms of level of achievement improvement is shown by the experimental group. This change, however, is not statistically significant. Nevertheless a tendency to improvement is evident.

TABLE 5

	Variables	Mean differences	Standard Deviations
Level 1 Experimental Group	PH/T	8,5	6,10
	CTP/PA	6,6	5,78
	CTP/SA	10,0	4,92
Level 2 Control Group (Homework)	PH/T	-0,5	9,16
	CTP/PA	-3,2	6,39
	CTP/SA	-1,8	5,63
Level 3 Control Group 2	PH/T	1,6	10,80
	CTP/PA	1,4	9,02
	CTP/SA	1,2	5,43

Key:
PH/T = Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale: Total Score.

CTP/PA = California Test of Personality Personal Adjustment Score.

CTP/SA = California Test of Personality Social Adjustment Score.

	Total Mean Differences	Pooled St.Deviations
PH/T	3,2	8,90
CTP/PA	1,6	7,20
CTP/SA	3,13	5,34

MANOVA Summary

	PH/T	CTP/PA	CTP/SA
Treatment SS	443,4	445,8	577,4
Variance -	445,8	480,8	584,0
Covariance			
Matrix	577,4	584,0	702,3
Error SS	2139,4	783,6	656,8
Variance -	783,6	1400,4	449,6
Covariance			
Matrix	656,8	449,6	769,2

Homogeneity of Variances not significant

MANOVA F - Ratio	1st df	2 df
3,66*	2	27

* denotes significant at the 0,05 level

COMPARISON OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS OF UNDERACHIEVERS on the Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale, Total Score, the California Test of Personality Personal Adjustment Score and the California Test of Personality Social Adjustment Score by means of a multiple analysis of Variance (MANOVA).

TABLE 5 B

UNIVARIATE ANOVAS

	Source	SS	df	MS	F-ratio
D.V.1 PH/T	A	443,4	2	221,7	2,78
	Error	2139,4	27	79,24	
D.V.2 CTP/PA	A	480,8	2	240,4	4,63*
	Error	1400,4	27	51,87	
D.V.3 CTP/SA	A	752,3	2	376,13	13,20**
	Error	769,2	27	28,49	

* denotes significant at the ,05 level
** denotes significant at the ,01 level

Key : PH/T = Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale (Total Score)

CTP/PA = California Test of Personality Personal Adjustment Score.

CTP/SA = California Test of Personality Social Adjustment Score

Multiple and Pairwise Comparisons

A. CTP/PA	Tuckey HSD	df		Scheffé	df
Gr1 vs Gr2	4,30*	3 , 27	Gr1 vs Gr2 and Gr3	3,71*	2 , 27
Gr1 vs Gr3	2,28	3 , 27			
Gr2 vs Gr3	2,02	3 , 27			

B. CTP/SA

Gr1 vs Gr2	4,86**	3 , 27
Gr1 vs Gr3	5,21**	3 , 27
Gr2 vs Gr3	0,36	3 , 27

* denotes significant at the 0,05 level
** denotes significant at the 0,01 level

Key : Gr1 = Experimental Group
Gr2 = Control Group 1 (Homework)
Gr3 = Control Group 2

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: AND MULTIPLE AND PAIRWISE COMPARISONS ON THE DATA FROM TABLE 5.

TABLE 6

	Variables	Mean Differences	Standard Deviations
Level 1 Experimental Group	Self Rel	0,70	1,89
	S.of P/W	1.60	1,78
	S.of P/F	0,10	2,08
	F.of Bel.	0,50	1,78
	F.from W/T	3,20	3,77
	F.from N/T	1,90	2,23
Lever 2 Control Group 1 (Homework)	Self Rel.	0,00	1,56
	S.of P/W	0,50	1,96
	S.of P/F	-0,50	2,27
	F.of Bel.	-0,50	2,55
	F.from W/T	-0,50	2,55
	F.from N/F	-1,20	3,58
Lever 3 Control Group 2	Self Rel	-0,30	3,40
	S.of P/W	1,20	2,94
	S.of P/F	0,30	2,21
	F.of Bel.	0,00	2,26
	F.from W/T	0,60	2,55
	F.from N/T	0,20	2,44

Key :

Self Rel. = Self Reliance

S.of P/W = Sense of Personal Worth

S. of P/F = Sense of Personal Freedom

F. of Bel.= Feeling of Belonging

F. from W/T = Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies

F. from N/T = Freedom from Nervous Tendencies

Variables	Total Mean Differences	Pooled St. Deviations
Self Rel.	0,13	2,42
S.of P/W	1,10	2,28
S.of P/F	-0,03	2,19
F.of Bel.	0,00	2,22
F.from W/T	1,10	3,00
F.from N/T	0,30	2,82

MANOVA SUMMARY

	Self Rel.	S.of P/W	S.of P/F	F.of Bel.	F.from W/T	F.from N/T
Treatment SS	5,27	3,20	0,07	3,50	16,20	11,50
	3,20	6,20	3,80	5,50	19,60	16,90
Variance -	0,07	3,80	3,47	3,00	8,59	8,80
Covariance	3,50	5,50	3,00	5,00	18,50	15,50
Matrix	16,20	19,60	8,60	18,50	72,20	58,10
	11,50	16,90	8,80	15,50	58,10	48,20
Error SS	158,20	-4,60	28,20	19,50	35,40	-20,70
Variance	-4,60	140,50	44,30	34,50	39,10	21,20
Covariance	28,20	44,30	129,50	17,00	28,50	1,50
Matrix	19,50	34,50	17,00	133,00	28,50	2,50
	35,40	39,10	28,50	28,50	244,50	102,00
	-20,70	21,20	1,50	2,50	102,00	214,10

Homogeneity of Variance : not significant.

MANOVA F - Ratio	1st df	2nd df.
0,745	2	27

MANOVA F - Ratio not significant.

COMPARISON OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS OF UNDERACHIEVERS ON THE VARIOUS SUBSCALES OF THE CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE.

TABLE 7

	Variables	Mean differences	Standard Deviations.
Level 1 Experimental Group	Soc.Stds	0,3	1,25
	Soc. Sk.	0,9	1,29
	F.from A/T	3,4	2,46
	Fam. Rels.	2,4	1,96
	Sch.Rels.	2,3	2,12
	Com.Rels	0,9	1,60
Level 2 Control Group 1 (Homework)	Soc. Stds.	-1,0	1,83
	Soc. Sk.	-0,1	2,45
	F.from A/T	0,0	2,67
	Fam.Rels.	-0,6	2,07
	Sch.Rels	0,0	2,75
	Com.Rels	0,1	1,45
Level 3 Control Group 2	Soc.Stds.	0,3	2,31
	Soc.Sk.	-0,8	2,01
	F.from A/T	-0,1	1,91
	Fam. Rels.	0,5	1,78
	Sch. Rels.	1,7	2,00
	Com. Rels.	-0,4	3,06

Key :

Soc.Stds = Social Standards

Soc.Sk. = Social Skills

F.from A/T = Freedom from Anti-Social Tendencies

Fam. Rels. = Family Relations

Sch. Rels = School Relations

Com. Rels. = Community Relations

Variables	Total Mean Differences	Pooled St. Deviations
Soc.Stds.	-0,13	1,85
Soc.Sk.	-0,20	2,04
F.from A/T	1,10	2,37
Fam.Rels.	0,77	1,94
Sch.Rels.	1,33	2,31
Com. Rels.	0,20	2,16

MANOVA SUMMARY

	Soc. Stds.	Soc. Sk.	F.from A/T	Fam. Rels.	Sch. Rels.	Com. Rels.
Treatment SS Variance - Covariance Matrix	11,27	6,50	14,30	17,76	17,33	1,30
	6,50	18,20	38,00	26,40	15,10	11,80
	14,30	38,00	79,40	55,80	32,50	24,40
	17,77	26,40	55,80	46,07	33,03	14,40
	17,33	15,10	32,50	33,03	28,47	5,90
	1,30	11,80	24,40	14,40	5,90	8,60
Error SS Variance - Covariance Matrix	92,20	36,70	-14,90	-7,70	1,00	-9,50
	36,70	112,60	19,60	3,20	11,90	11,40
	-14,90	19,60	151,30	-23,10	2,50	-36,00
	- 7,70	3,20	-23,10	101,30	9,30	-4,00
	1,00	11,90	2,50	9,30	144,20	20,10
	-9,50	11,40	-36,00	-4,00	20,10	126,20

Homogeneity of Variances : not significant

MANOVA F - Ratio	1st df	2nd df
2,93059	2	27

MANOVA F. Ratio : not significant.

COMPARISON OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS OF UNDERACHIEVERS ON THE VARIOUS SUBSCALES OF THE CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE.

TABLE 8

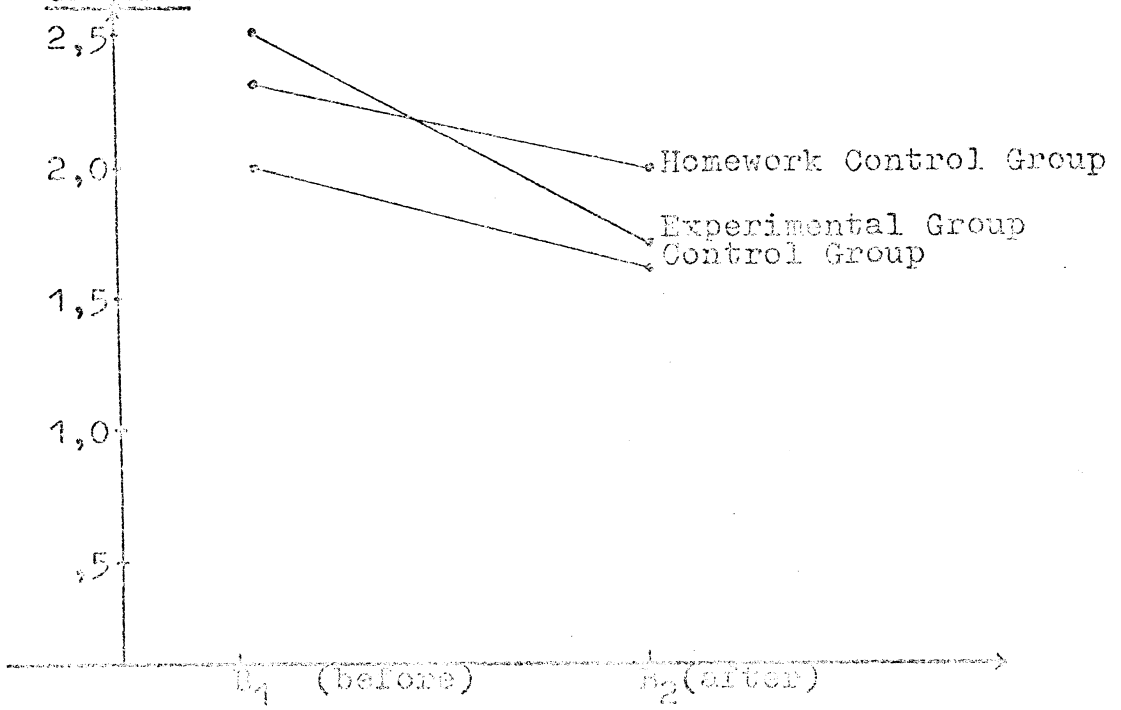
Cell	Mean Differences	Standard Deviation
A1B1	2,5	,71
A1B2	1,7	1,57
A2B1	2,3	,48
A2B2	2,0	,67
A3B1	2,0	0,00
A3B2	1,6	1,35

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between				
A	1,43	2	,72	,72
Subject W.G.	27,05	27	1,00	
Within Subjects				
B	3,75	1	3,75	4,59*
AB	,70	2	,35	,43
B & SWG	22,05	27	,82	

Check on Homogeneity of Error Term
F max (Subject WG) = 8,20 df = 3 , 9
F max (B x SWG) = 2,42 df = 3 , 9

* denotes significant at the ,05 level

Graph 1.



A COMPARISON OF THE I.Q. SCORES AND THE MATHEMATICS PRE AND POST TEST SCORES OF THE THREE UNDERACHIEVING GROUPS BY MEANS OF THE TWO WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE WITH REPEATED MEASURES ON B'.

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS.

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS.

Several theoretical definitions of the self concept have been presented in the context of this study. Though definitions are abundant, in the general body of knowledge, self concept is seen to be a unique set of perceptions and a powerful determinant of behaviour. It is seen to be constituted of that organisation of qualities that the individual attributes to himself. Self concept emerges from social interaction, and guides or influences the behaviour of the individual in both an inter and an intrapersonal context.

Self concept has been the sources of much concern in psychology for a number of years. An area of particular concern and confusion has been that of the psychometric definition of the self concept. Specific means of tapping and quantifying the various facets of the self are difficult to locate. Few, if any, really effective measuring devices have been developed. The problem of measurement has, in part, been circumvented by inferring the nature of the self concept from the behaviour of the individual. Most measuring devices use what the individual has to say about himself as a basis from which to make inferences about the nature of self concept.

Problems in measurement should not be ignored when considering the results of reported studies. The present study has been an attempt to clarify, in part, the confusion inherent in the self concept - underachievement studies, and to isolate those aspects of the self concept of the underachiever which differ from the self concept of the normal

achiever. Theoretical evidence that a positive self concept is central to optimal scholastic performance, motivated the institution of a group counselling program aimed at alleviating academic underachievement by offering the underachiever the opportunity to reorganise aspects of his conception of himself. Academic rewards which generally reinforce performance and which lead to an increase in 'input' tend to be the privilege of the normal achiever. The underachiever is the helpless victim of a vicious circle - in acting in a manner consistent with his poor perception of himself, he institutes only the minimum of effort in his academic attempts.

The results of this study show conclusively that underachievers and normalachievers differ considerably in terms of their conception of themselves. These results offer considerable support to the assertions in the literature that there is a positive correlational relationship between self concept and academic achievement, and indicate that the South African educational context is no different from that of the U.S.A. and Britain in terms of the characteristics of the varieties of 'pupil types.'

There is a significant difference in the self perception of normal and underachievers in terms of their perception of their behaviour ($T^2 = 68,34$ $p < ,01$); their perception of their physical appearance and attributes ($T^2 = 26,75$ $p < ,01$) their perception of their intellectual and social status ($T^2 = 72,13$ $p < ,01$); the level of their anxiety ($T^2 = 44,67$ $p < ,01$); their popularity within their social milieu ($T^2 = 54,45$ $p < ,01$) and the extent to

which they consider themselves to be happy and satisfied with their 'lot in life' (T^2 = 34,85 $p < ,01$). In all areas the normalachiever has a more positive perception of himself than does the underachiever. The underachiever is sensitive and vulnerable to criticism, is relatively socially isolated (T^2 = 86,54 $p < ,01$) and is socially withdrawn. He lacks a feeling of belonging (T^2 = 97,31 $p < ,01$) in his social environment, and logically lacks a feeling of personal worth (T^2 = 211,57 $p < ,01$) and personal freedom (T^2 = 44,94 $p < ,01$). It is small wonder then that the underachiever feels he is significantly less self reliant than his achieving counterpart. (T^2 = 28,4 $p < ,01$).

In an interpersonal or social context the underachiever's perception of his social skills differs considerably from the self perception of the achieving pupil (T^2 = 25,04 $p < ,01$). Further, the underachiever has a significantly poorer perception of his family relationships (T^2 = 58,88 $p < ,01$) school (peer and teacher) relationships (T^2 = 84,31 $p < ,01$) and his relationships in the community at large. (T^2 = 37,28 $p < ,01$).

In feeling personally inferior in most aspects of his functioning and in having poor relationships, the underachiever is likely to facilitate disparaging remarks being directed towards himself. Though his outward reaction to such remarks may appear to be defensive, the underachiever often introjects such evaluations of himself without modifying them (as he has no real standard of his own). As a result he is likely to depreciate even further in terms of his opinion of himself. His defensive and evasive behaviour extends to all fields of endeavour, including academic behaviour. Here he is likely to

refrain from making the effort necessary for adequate achievement. His actual achievement is then lower than that which he could have attained, and this feeds directly into the process in which the underachiever confirms his poor view of himself. A fear of failure and general inability to express his feelings immobilises the underachiever who becomes non-competitive and prefers to remain in the background of life where he is less likely to be criticised.

The significantly poorer social relationships of underachievers as opposed to normal achievers supports the findings of Morgan (1952) : whereas the normal-achiever reflects ascendancy in his social relationships, with associated characteristics of optimism, responsibility, integrity and seriousness, the underachiever is retiring and displays less self confidence, less insight and less realism in his outlook on life.

In finding it necessary to be defensive, in feeling lonely and isolated, in being sensitive to criticism and in finding it difficult to make social contacts, the underachiever must lack a feeling of personal worth. As a result he is the individual who resents authority and who has his emotions clouded by guilt, frustration and anxiety. With such factors impinging on him he can only produce poor academic work. These factors emphasise the necessity for the early identification of underachievers and call for a serious attempt to be made in the alleviation of the condition of underachieving individuals.

South African educationalists are becoming increasingly aware of the necessity to intervene in the area of underachievement. Currently, the major educational focus in primary schools is on remedial education.

Techniques aimed primarily at personality factors are restricted to the high-school guidance programs and little, if any, time is formally devoted to "self development" in the primary schools of this country. There is a definite necessity for the introduction of a method of primary prevention in the lower echelons of our educational system. Programs of a similar nature to the self development program presented in this study should be constructed. Such programs should incorporate opportunities for exploration of those areas in which the self perceptions of underachievers have been shown to differ significantly from the self perceptions of normal achievers. The areas of perception of behaviour, physical appearance and attributes, intellect, social standing and popularity should, for example, be included.

Statistical analyses of the results of the psychometric instruments administered before and after the institution of the group counselling or self development program have not revealed any definitive significance in terms of a change of the self perception of the experimental group of underachievers. Though a significant difference is shown on consideration of the total scores of the CTP, no significance is indicated when the results of the various components of the test are assessed. (Tables 5B, 6 and 7). This is explicable in terms of the high intercorrelations between the six subscales forming each total score. The procedure of adding scores together (as is the case with this test) to obtain a total score, introduces a redundancy which creates an artificial difference and an inflated view of the differences between the control and experimental groups before and after treatment.

The fact that the statistical analyses of the results of the various psychometric instruments administered

in the study has failed to indicate a significant change of the self concept of a group of under-achievers involved in the self development program, does not necessarily mean that the program is without impact. Self concept is not simply a surface phenomenon, and several authors (Combs and Soper 1963; Coopersmith, 1959; Guller, 1969; Semler, 1960; Strong and Feder, 1961 and Wylie, 1961) have noted the difficulties implicit in attempting to measure self concept and self concept change. A particular inadequacy of psychometric techniques used in the assessment of self concept has been noted by Chodorkoff (1954) to be the tendency of subjects to inflate defensively their self estimates before involvement in a treatment program and to lower such estimates with improvement.

This, and an attitude of flippancy on the part of many subjects during assessment, are proposed as possible confounding variables. However, it is the opinion of the author that change, significant only in terms of assessments made by psychometric instruments does not mean that more subtle changes have not taken place.

With regard to the implementation of the program some possible confounding variables should be noted: The time and day on which the program was conducted may well have been confounding factors. The group counselling program was conducted on a Friday afternoon after school hours. The program might thus have been perceived by some group members as a form of punishment and therefore something to be resented as they were detained while their peers were free to go home for the weekend immediately after school. A program incorporated into the school guidance program would prevent such eventualities and might thereby

prove more beneficial as pupils would be less resistant and more receptive.

The self development program was conducted in the classroom situation with subjects seated behind their desks. An attitudinal change, it is suggested, could be attained by having pupils seated on the floor, thereby removing them from any possible effect of classroom regimentation.

It has been noted elsewhere that self concept is a complex and important structure; one which does not undergo change easily. The twelve group sessions conducted in this study may have been insufficient to bring about a significant change in self concept which could have been noted by the psychometric instruments used. A program of longer duration is therefore advocated.

In terms of the design of this research it is considered that a larger number of underachieving subjects should be incorporated. Greater validity could then be attributed to any outcome results. However, increasing the number of subjects would necessarily require the inclusion of more schools in research procedure, and problems of differences in variables, such as socio-economic status, would then be encountered.

Finally, in terms of an assessment of the research results presented here, it is felt that one difficulty in working with underachievers in a group context as noted by Passow (1958), is that they tend to offer each other negative support. This is a difficult phenomenon to change and specific attention should be paid to it in future research.

Discussion has to this point centred largely around reasons for the lack of change of self concept as assessed by the two psychometric instruments employed.

Informal follow-ups with teachers and principals following the program, indicated that the behaviour of several pupils involved in the program improved. In the classroom they were seen as better behaved, more accepting of authority and more sociable. An important variable which has not been considered is the attitude of the parents of pupils involved in such a program. Support for the program was almost unreserved and parents who were aware that their children were underachieving were eager to be given direction as to possible actions they could take in assisting their underachieving children.

It is suggested that future research efforts incorporate parents into the design, such that parents too, can receive the counselling for which they are obviously eager.

Important clinical observations and considerations emerging from the group program which could not be assessed psychometrically were : that self expression assisted in self understanding and made self acceptance a possibility rather than a remote improbability; that comfort could be taken in the fact that others had similar problems; that others could accept the individual; and that he could understand others a little better; finally some pupils learned that trust in interpersonal relationships was possible. Change however comes gradually, taking time. Pupils involved in such a program need time to familiarise themselves with their new components and to communicate these to others. New communication patterns make it possible

for the underachiever to begin to perceive his whole environment in a new light. With the reinforcement which must come with such positive change, the underachiever is more equipped to break free from the vicious circle of self deprecation which contributes so strongly to his underachievement.

REFERENCES

Abrams, J. C. — A study of certain personality characteristics of non-readers and achieving readers. Dissertation Abstracts, 1956, 16, pp. 377 - 378.

Adler, A. — The practice and theory of individual psychology. New York : Harcourt, Brace and World, 1927.

Allport, G. W. — Personality, a psychological interpretation. New York : Holt, 1937.

Allport, G. W. — Becoming. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1955.

Allport, G. W. — Pattern and growth in personality. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. 1961, 1964.

Axline, V. M. — Non-directive therapy for poor readers. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1947, 11 , pp. 61-69.

Barrett, H. O. — An intensive study of 32 gifted children. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1957, 36, pp. 192-194.

Bateson, G. Jackson, D.D. Haley, J. and Weakland, J. — Toward a theory of schizophrenia Behaviour Science. 1956, 1, pp. 251 - 264

Baymur, F. B. and Patterson, C.H. — A comparison of three methods of assisting underachieving high school students. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1955, 7, pp. 83 - 89

Bednar, R. L. and Weinberg, S. L. — Ingredients of successful treatment programs for underachievers. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1970, 17, pp. 1 - 7.

Bilovsky, D. MacMaster, W. Shorr, J. E. and Singer, S. L. — Individual and Group Counseling Personnel and Guidance Journal. 1953, 31, pp. 363 - 365.

Blackham, G. J. — A clinical study of personality structures and adjustments of pupils underachieving and over-achieving in reading. Dissertation Abstracts, 1955 15, pp. 1199.

Bledsoe, J. — Self concept of children and their intelligence, achievement interests and anxiety. Child Education, 1967, 43, pp. 436-438.

Borislow, B. — Self evaluation and academic achievement Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1962, 9, pp. 206 - 213.

Brookover, W. B. and Thomas, S. — Self concept of ability and school achievement. Sociology of Education, 1964, 37 pp. 271 - 278.

Buros, O. K. — Personality tests and reviews. New Jersey : Gryphon Press, 1970.

Calhoun, S. R. — The effect of counseling on a group of underachievers. School Review, 1956, 64, pp. 312 - 316.

California Test of Personality. — Manual. Monterey : Del Monte Research Park California Test Bureau.

Caplin, M. D. — The relationship between self concept and academic achievement. Journal of Experimental Education 1969, 37 (3), pp. 13 - 16

Carmical, L. — Characteristics of achievers and underachievers of a large senior school. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1964, 43, pp. 390 - 395.

Christopher, S. A. — Parental relationship and value orientation as factors in academic achievement. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1967, 45 (9), pp. 921 - 925

Chodorkoff, B. — Adjustment and the discrepancy between perceived and ideal self. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1954, 10, pp. 266 - 268

Combs, C. F. — Perception of self and scholastic underachievement in the academically capable. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1964 43, pp. 47 - 51

Combs, A. W. and Snygg, D. — Individual Behaviour. New York : Harper and Row, 1959.

Combs, A. W. and Soper, D.W. — The measurement of self concept and self report. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1963, 23 (3) pp. 493-500.

Cooley, C. H. — Human Nature and the Social Order. New York, Scribner's 1902.

Coopersmith, S. — A method for determining types of self esteem. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1959, 59, pp. 87 - 94.

Coopersmith, S. — The Antecedents of self esteem. London: W. H. Freeman and Co. 1967.

Cronbach, L. J. — Essentials of psychological testing. New York : Harper and Brothers, 1960.

Crow, M. L. — A comparison of three group counseling techniques with sixth graders. Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 1971, 6, pp. 37 - 42.

Dickenson, W. A. and Truax, C. B. — Group counseling with college underachievers. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1966, 45, pp. 243 - 247

Diener, C. L. — Similarities and differences between overachieving and underachieving students. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1959, 38, pp. 396 - 400.

Dizney, D. — Underachievement of the gifted Intellect, 1963, 91, pp. 30 - 31.

Drasgow, J. — Underachievers. In: Kornrich, M. (ed) Underachievement. Springfield, Illinois. Charles C. Thomas, 1965.

Drews, E. M. and Teahan, J. E. — Parents attitudes and academic achievements. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1957, 13, pp. 328 - 332.

Entwistle, N. J. and Welsh, J. — Correlates of school attainment at different ability levels. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 1969, 39, pp. 57 - 63.

Epstein, S. — The self concept revisited. American Psychologist, 1973, 28 pp. 404 - 416.

Erikson, E. — Identity and the life cycle. Psychological Issues Monograph, 1959 1 .

Everett, A. V. — The self concept of high, medium and low academic achievers. Australian Journal of Education, 1971, 15, pp. 319 - 324.

Felker, D. W. Building positive self concepts. Minneapolis, Burgess Publishing Company, 1974.

Fink, M. B. Self concept as it relates to academic underachievement. In: Kornrich, M. (ed) Underachievement. Springfield Illinois. Charles C. Thomas, 1965.

Fitts, W. H. et al The self concept and self actualisation. Nashville Counsellor Recordings and Tests, 1971.

Fitts, W. H. et al The self concept and performance. Nashville Counselor Recordings and Tests, 1972.

Frankel, E. A comparative study of achieving and under-achieving high school boys of high intellectual ability. Journal of Educational Research, 1960, 53, pp. 172 - 180.

Freud, S. The ego and the id. London Hogarth, 1950.

Fromm, E. Selfishness and self love. Psychiatry, 1939, 2, pp. 507 - 523.

Fromm, E. Man for himself. Greenwich: Fawcett, 1947.

Gerberich, J. R. Factors related to college achievement. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1941, 32, pp. 253 - 265.

Gergen, K. J. The concept of self. New York: Holt: Rinehart and Winston, 1971.

Goffman, E. The presentation of self in everyday life: New York: Doubleday, 1959

Goldberg, M. L. Three experimental studies to improve the academic performance of high school underachievers. In: Kornrich, M. (ed) Underachievement Springfield, Illinois. Charles C. Thomas, 1965.

Goldburgh, S. J. and Penney, J.F. A note on counseling underachieving college students. In: Kornrich, M. (ed). Underachievement Springfield, Illinois, Charles C. Thomas, 1965.

Gough, H. G. What determines the academic achievement of high school students ? Journal of Educational Research, 1953 46, pp. 321 - 331.

Gough, H. G. Factors relating to the academic achievement of high school students. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1949, 40, pp. 65 - 78.

Granzow, K. R. A comparative study of underachiever, normalachiever and overachiever in reading. Dissertation Abstracts, 1954, 15, pp. 631 - 632.

Green, A. W. A modern introduction to the family. Illinois: Free Press, 1955.

Griffiths, G. R. The relationship between scholastic achievement and personality adjustment of men college students. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1945, 29, pp. 360 - 367.

Guller, I. B. Increased stability of self concept in students served by a college counseling centre. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1969, 47, pp. 546 - 551.

Halperin, H. M. Can Psychotherapy help the underachiever ? In: Kornrich, M. (ed) Underachievement. Springfield, Illinois, Charles C. Thomas, 1965, pp. 579 - 593.

Hammechek, D. E. — The self in growth, teaching and learning. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice Hall, 1971.

Harris, D. — Factors affecting college grades : a review of the literature 1920 - 1937 Psychology Bulletin, 1960, 37, pp. 151 - 166.

Haun, K. W. — Note on predictionn of academic performance from personality test scores. Psychological Reports, 1965 16, pp. 294.

Hill, A. H. and Grieneeks, L. — An evaluation of academic counseling of under and overachievers. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1966, 13 (3) pp. 325 - 328.

Holder, R. — Roundtable on underachievement in gifted children. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1962, 32, pp. 350 - 351.

Horney, K. — Neurosis and human growth. New York: Norton, 1950.

Horney, K. — Our inner conflicts. New York: Norton, 1945.

Holt, J. — The underachieving school. Harmardsworth, Penguin Books, 1970.

Hopson, B. and Hough, P. — Exercises in personal and career development. Cambridge: Hobson's Press, 1975.

Howard, W. and Zimpfer, D.G. — The findings of research on group approaches in elementary guidance and counselling. Elementary School Guidance and Counselling, 1972, 6 (3), pp. 163 - 169.

Hoyt, D. P. — An evaluation of group and individual programs in vocational guidance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1955, 39, pp. 26 - 30.

Hummel, R. and Sprinthall, N. — Underachievement related interests attitudes and values. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1965 44, pp. 388 - 395.

Jackson, R. M. — In support of the concept of underachievement. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1959 47, pp. 56 - 62.

James, W. — The principles of psychology. New York : Dover Publications, 1890.

Jersild, A. — Child psychology. New York : Prentice Hall, 1960.

Kimball, B. — The sentence completion technique in a study of scholastic underachievement. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1952, 16, pp. 353 - 358.

Kimball, B. — Case studies in educational failure during adolescence. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1953, 23, pp. 406 - 415.

Kirk, B. A. — Test versus academic performance in malfunctioning students. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1952, 16, pp. 213 - 216.

Kurtz, J. J. and Swenson, E. J. — Factors related to overachievement and underachievement in school. School Review : 1951, 59, pp. 472 - 480.

Lecky, P. — Self consistency: a theory of personality: New York, Island Press, 1945.

Lewin, K. — Dynamic theory of personality. New York : McGraw-Hill, 1935.

Lodato, F. Sokoloff, M. and Schwartz, L. — Group counseling as a method of modifying attitudes of slow learners. School Counselor, 1964, 12 pp. 27 - 29.

Mahone, C. H. — Fear of failure and unrealistic vocational aspirations. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1960, 60, pp. 253 - 261.

Malloy, J. — An investigation of scholastic over and under achievement among female college freshmen. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1954, 1 (4), pp. 260 - 263.

Manual and Scheme. — Manual and scheme for psychological and guidance work in secondary schools. Cape of Good Hope Department of Education.

Maslow, A. H. — Motivation and personality. New York, Harper and Row, 1954.

Maslow, A. H. — New knowledge in human values. New York: Harper and Row, 1959.

Maw, W. H. and Maw, E. W. — Self concepts of high and low curiosity boys. Child Development, 1970, 41, pp. 123 - 129.

McDougall, W. — An introduction to social psychology. London: Methuen, 1908.

Mead, G. H. — Mind, self and society. Chicago University of Chicago Press, 1934.

Michael, W. B. Smith, R. A. and Michael, J.J. — The factorial validity of the Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale for each of three samples of elementary junior high and senior high students in a large metropolitan school district. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1975, 22 (2), pp. 405 - 414

Mitchell, J. V. — Goal setting behaviour as a function of self acceptance. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1959, 50, pp. 93 - 104.

Mitchell, K. R. and Piatkowska, D.E. — Effects of group treatment for college underachievers and bright failing underachievers. Journal of counseling psychology, 1974, 21 (6), pp. 494 - 501.

Morgan, H. H. — A psychiatric comparison of achieving and non-achieving college students of high ability. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1952, 16, pp. 292 - 298.

Morrow, W. R. and Wilson, R.C. — Family relations of bright high achieving and underachieving high school boys; Child Development, 1961, 32, pp. 501 - 510.

Motto, J. J. — A reply to Drasgow on underachievers. In: Kornrich, M. (ed) Underachievement Springfield, Illinois, Charles C. Thomas, 1965.

New South African Group Test — Junior and intermediate series - preliminary manual. Pretoria: National Bureau for Educational and Social Research, 1964.

Norman, R. D. and Daley, M. F. — The comparative personality adjustment of superior and inferior readers. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1959 50, pp. 32 - 36.

Passow, A. H. — Study of underachieving gifted. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1958, 22, (4) pp. 773 - 780.

Piers, E. V. — The Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale : research monograph 1. Nashville, Counselor Recordings and Tests, 1977.

Piers, E. V. and Harris, D.B. — Manual for the Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale. Nashville, Counselor Recordings and Tests, 1969.

Piers, E. V. and Harris, D. B. — Age and other correlates of self concept in children. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1964, 55, (2) , pp. 91 - 95.

Purkey, W.W. — Self Concept and School achievement. Englewood Cliffs, New York : Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Rast, H. W. — Developing as a person. St. Louis, Missouri, Milliken Publishing Company, 1976.

Ringness, T. A. — Self concept of children of low, average and high intelligence. American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 1961, 65 (4), 453 - 461. pp.

Roberts, H. E. — Factors affecting the academic under-achievement of bright high school students. Journal of Educational Research, 1962, 56 (4), pp. 175 - 183.

Rogers, C. R. — Client-centred therapy. Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1951.

Rogers, C. R. — On becoming a person. Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1961, 1967.

Roth, R. M. and Meyersburg, H.A. — The nonachievement syndrome. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1963, 41, pp. 535 - 540.

Roth, R. M. and Puri, P. — Direction of aggression and the non-achievement syndrome. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1967, 14, pp. 278 - 281.

Rushton, J. — The relationship between personality characteristics and school success in eleven-year-old children. British Journal of Educational Psychology. 1966, 26, pp. 178 - 184.

Russell, P. W. — A plea to beam in on the underachiever. High School Journal, 1958, 42, pp. 66 - 68.

Sears, P. S. — Levels of aspiration in academically successful and unsuccessful children. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1970, 35, pp. 498 - 536.

Semler, I. J. — Relationships among several measures of pupil adjustment. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1960, 51 (2), pp. 60 - 64.

Serene, M. F. — An experiment in motivational counseling. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1953, 31, pp. 319 - 324.

Shaw, M. C. and Brown, D. J. — Scholastic underachievement of bright college students. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1957, 36, pp. 195 - 199.

Shaw, M. C. Edson, K. and Bell, H. M. — The self concept of bright underachieving high school students as revealed by an adjective check list. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1960, 39, pp. 193 - 196.

Shaw, M. C. and McCuen, J.T. — The onset of academic achievement in bright children. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1960, 51, pp. 103 - 108.

Shaw, M. C. and Alves, G. J. — The self concept of bright academic underachievers. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1963 42, pp. 401 - 403.

Sheldon, W. and Landsman, T. — An investigation of nondirective therapy with students in academic difficulty. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1950, 14, pp. 210 - 215.

Snygg, D. and Combs, A. W. — Individual behaviour. New York: Harper and Row, 1949.

Spache, G. D. — Personality patterns of retarded readers. Journal of Educational Research, 1957, 51, pp. 461 - 469

Stagner, R. — The relation of personality to academic aptitude and achievement. Journal of Educational Research, 1933, 27, pp. 648 - 660.

Staines, J. W. — The self picture as a factor in the classroom. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 1958, 11, pp. 97 - 111.

Strong, D. T. and Feder, D. D. — Measurement of self concept : a critique of the literature. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1961 8 (2), pp. 170 - 178.

Sullivan, H. S. — The interpersonal theory of psychiatry. New York : Norton, 1953.

Taylor, D. M. — Consistency of the self concept. Ann Arbor, Michigan, University Microfilm International, 1953.

Teahan, J. E. — Parental attitudes and college success. In: Kornrich, M. (ed) Underachievement Springfield, Illinois, Charles C. Thomas, 1965.

Teigland, J. J. Winkler, R. C. Munger, P. E. and Kranzler, G. D. — Some concomitants of underachievement at the elementary school level. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1966 44, pp. 950 - 955.

Thompson, B. — Self concepts among secondary school pupils. Educational Research, 1974, 17, pp. 41 - 47.

Thompson, W. — Correlates of the self concept. Nashville, Counselor Recordings and Tests, 1972.

Thorndike, R. L. — The concepts of over and under-achievement. New York : Bureau of Publications, 1963.

Todd, F. J. Terrell, G. and Frank, C.F. — Differences between normal and under-achievers of superior ability. In: Kornrich, M. (ed) Underachievement, Springfield, Illinois, Charles C. Thomas, 1965.

Tyler, L. E. — The work of the counsellor. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1961.

Wattenberg, W.W. and Clifford, C. — Relation of self concept to beginning achievement in reading. Child Development, 1964, 35, pp. 461 - 467.

Wellington, C.B. and Wellington, J. — The underachiever: challenges and guidelines. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1965.

Williams, R. and Cole, S. — Self concept and school adjustment. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1968, 46, page 478.

Winborn, B.B. and Schmidt, L.G. — The effectiveness of short term group counselling upon the academic achievement of potentially superior but underachieving college freshmen. In: Kornrich, M. (ed) Underachievement, Springfield, Illinois, Charles C. Thomas, 1965.

Winkler, R. C. Teigland, J. J. Munger, P. F. and Kranzler, G. D. — The effects of selected counselling and remedial techniques on under-achieving elementary school students. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1965, 12 pp. 385 - 387.

Wylie, R. C. — The self concept. Lincoln. University of Nebraska Press, 1961, 1974.

Zimmerman, I. L. and Allebrand, G. N. — Personality characteristics and attitudes toward achievement of good and poor readers. Journal of Educational Research, 1965 59 (1) pp. 28 - 30.

Zimmerman, H. S. — Facing issues of family living. St. Louis, Missouri, Milliken Publishing Company, 1976.

A P P E N D I X A.

TABLE 9

SUBJECT	C.A.	N.V. I.Q.	V I.Q.	T I.Q.	T I.Q. STANINE	H.S.R.C. MATHS. STANINE
1	10y 8m	121	134	129	9	5
2	11y 2m	128	130	131	9	6
3	12y 1m	128	123	127	9	7
4	12y 0m	123	123	125	8	6
5	12y 4m	123	135	130	9	6
6	11y 10m	113	119	117	7	5
7	12y 11m	115	103	109	6	4
8	10y 9m	121	108	115	7	5
9	11y 3m	137	118	127	9	6
10	10y 8m	114	120	118	7	5
11	12y 1m	123	117	121	8	6
12	11y 10m	139	133	138	9	7
13	12y 8m	123	106	115	7	5
14	12y 5m	120	117	120	8	5
15	13y 11m	98	90	93	4	1
16	12y 11m	115	103	109	6	4
17	12y 4m	112	108	111	6	4
18	12y 6m	113	109	112	7	5
19	11y 11m	134	110	121	8	5
20	12y 4m	100	80	91	4	2
21	11y 1m	123	130	129	9	7
22	11y 11m	119	131	126	8	6
23	13y 6m	104	84	93	4	2
24	12y 4m	119	126	124	8	6
25	12y 7m	100	100	99	5	3
26	11y 6m	98	94	96	4	2
27	10y 10m	128	120	125	8	6
28	11y 0m	128	114	121	8	6
29	11y 2m	112	112	113	7	5
30	11y 7m	112	112	113	7	5

Group of Underachievers
Chronological Age;
Nonverbal I.Q.
Verbal I.Q.; Total I.Q.
Total I.Q. Stanine and
Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC)
Maths. Stanine.

TABLE 10

SUBJECT	C.A.	N.V. I.Q.	V I.Q.	T I.Q.	T I.Q. STANINE	H.S.R.C. MATHS. STANINE
1	11y 5m	120	95	106	6	6
2	10y 9m	114	120	118	7	7
3	11y 2m	104	115	110	6	7
4	11y 5m	100	99	99	5	5
5	10y 8m	121	110	116	7	8
6	10y 9m	116	118	119	7	7
7	11y 3m	134	142	140	9	9
8	13y 0m	103	108	105	6	7
9	12y 4m	95	109	102	5	6
10	12y 6m	143	144	145	9	9
11	12y 7m	128	114	123	8	8
12	13y 4m	109	111	110	6	7
13	12y 4m	125	127	128	9	9
14	12y 10m	122	121	124	8	8
15	12y 4m	106	107	107	6	8
16	13y 4m	104	94	98	5	5
17	12y 10m	98	113	105	6	9
18	12y 6m	135	118	127	9	9
19	12y 1m	105	101	103	5	6
20	12y 3m	92	88	90	4	6
21	12y 8m	126	122	126	8	9
22	11y 4m	112	86	98	5	5
23	12y 1m	112	106	109	6	5
24	12y 8m	145	145	145	9	9
25	12y 5m	115	102	109	6	6
26	12y 10m	99	114	108	6	7
27	12y 10m	96	89	91	4	5
28	11y 0m	116	118	119	7	8
29	13y 5m	93	93	93	4	7
30	12y 11m	108	118	114	7	9
31	11y 1m	119	113	118	7	7
32	12y 7m	113	105	110	6	6
33	11y 10m	97	108	102	5	5
34	12y 3m	98	102	100	5	5
35	12y 4m	98	102	100	5	5
36	11y 7m	101	93	96	4	4
37	11y 5m	103	100	102	5	5
38	11y 3m	102	108	105	6	6
39	10y 9m	112	112	113	7	7
40	11y 8m	130	114	122	8	8
41	12y 1m	120	91	105	6	6
42	11y 8m	120	129	126	8	9
43	11y 6m	111	123	119	7	8
44	11y 3m	130	112	121	8	9
45	11y 11m	116	119	119	7	8
46	11y 11m	88	97	92	4	7
47	11y 2m	117	120	120	8	8
48	11y 1m	115	98	106	6	6
49	11y 0m	123	113	119	7	9

Group of Normal Achievers
Chronological Age; Nonverbal I.Q.
Verbal I.Q.; Total I.Q.; Total I.Q. Stanine
and Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC)
Maths. Stanine.

TABLE 11

Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale							California Test of Personality Personal Adjustment							Social Adjustment						
Total	1	11	111	1V	V	V1	A	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	B	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6
66	16	16	9	9	10	8	52	8	11	10	9	7	7	63	12	10	9	10	11	11
59	13	10	7	8	8	9	57	10	11	7	10	10	9	55	10	8	10	11	7	9
77	15	17	13	12	12	10	67	10	12	11	12	12	10	64	11	11	8	11	11	12
61	12	9	13	7	10	10	45	7	8	7	10	7	6	52	9	9	9	6	8	11
64	12	5	10	13	10	10	58	7	7	10	12	11	11	66	12	11	11	12	11	9
76	16	16	10	14	11	10	64	8	12	12	11	11	10	63	11	8	9	12	11	12
73	15	15	12	11	11	10	69	10	12	12	12	12	11	71	12	12	12	12	11	12
67	14	10	5	13	9	9	56	7	11	10	10	9	9	52	9	9	10	9	7	8
63	14	11	8	9	9	9	64	10	10	11	12	9	12	55	9	11	9	12	6	8
71	15	14	8	14	12	10	67	9	12	12	12	10	12	58	12	12	8	12	9	12
76	15	14	12	14	11	10	66	11	12	11	11	9	12	56	10	8	8	12	8	10
65	15	12	9	10	9	9	60	9	10	11	9	10	11	53	9	10	8	10	9	7
60	14	10	7	10	6	9	58	9	9	10	10	10	10	59	10	7	10	11	10	11
67	14	14	7	13	10	10	63	10	11	11	12	11	8	65	11	10	12	11	10	11
71	13	12	10	14	12	10	64	9	11	11	9	12	12	64	11	8	12	12	10	11
61	15	12	4	10	8	9	64	9	9	12	11	11	12	63	12	9	12	11	10	9
70	14	15	7	13	12	9	68	10	12	12	12	12	10	63	11	10	10	12	9	11
71	12	13	11	14	11	10	62	9	11	12	11	10	9	63	11	10	12	12	10	8
64	14	9	7	12	11	9	60	8	7	12	12	10	11	55	10	11	8	7	9	10
63	14	13	7	8	9	9	44	5	7	6	11	7	8	56	11	7	8	8	11	11
72	15	15	8	13	12	10	65	10	10	11	11	12	11	61	11	10	10	11	9	10
67	12	10	11	12	12	10	64	11	10	10	12	11	10	66	12	10	12	10	12	10
62	12	10	10	10	9	9	59	10	11	10	11	6	11	47	10	8	7	6	6	10
72	15	16	12	12	8	10	61	8	10	12	10	12	9	60	10	6	11	12	10	11
59	12	8	6	12	10	9	52	7	9	9	10	6	11	53	8	9	7	9	10	10
65	11	12	10	10	10	10	47	5	8	8	10	5	11	50	9	8	8	9	6	10
61	9	12	10	11	8	10	57	7	9	11	10	9	11	62	11	9	10	11	11	10
53	7	10	8	9	8	8	48	6	7	7	9	10	9	58	9	9	9	11	9	11
75	14	16	12	12	11	10	70	11	11	12	12	12	12	63	11	11	10	11	9	11
77	13	17	13	14	12	10	68	11	11	11	12	12	11	62	10	10	10	11	12	9
69	8	16	10	14	12	9	55	9	11	9	12	7	7	59	11	12	8	9	8	11
72	16	17	10	11	11	10	51	9	8	10	11	5	8	56	10	12	8	9	7	10
78	16	17	13	12	12	10	59	10	10	11	9	9	10	50	10	8	5	9	8	10
63	13	11	9	9	8	10	52	4	10	10	12	7	9	53	7	7	9	12	9	9
69	16	12	6	13	11	10	63	9	10	11	11	12	11	67	12	11	10	11	12	11
64	13	14	6	12	9	10	61	9	10	11	11	8	12	63	12	11	11	10	8	11
63	5	15	12	11	12	7	51	8	10	11	10	6	6	42	9	6	5	9	7	6
67	13	12	7	14	10	10	64	7	11	12	11	12	11	62	11	10	11	11	8	11
68	14	16	8	11	10	10	59	8	11	11	9	10	10	58	12	9	7	11	8	11
70	15	15	12	9	11	9	58	8	10	12	11	9	8	62	11	9	10	12	10	10
68	15	12	8	14	11	8	67	11	11	10	12	12	11	59	10	10	10	11	9	9
80	16	17	13	14	12	10	64	10	10	12	12	12	8	61	8	8	9	12	12	12
74	15	15	13	11	12	9	69	11	12	12	12	12	10	67	10	11	12	12	11	11
69	13	14	11	12	10	9	66	7	12	12	12	11	12	71	12	11	12	12	12	12
69	16	15	9	10	9	8	66	10	10	12	11	12	11	49	11	9	8	12	10	9
77	15	16	13	14	12	9	65	8	11	11	12	12	11	67	11	12	12	12	8	12
68	15	12	9	12	10	9	65	9	10	12	12	12	10	69	11	12	12	12	11	11
69	16	14	10	12	8	10	59	7	12	9	10	10	11	59	12	9	9	10	11	8
68	11	16	12	10	11	9	54	9	8	10	11	9	7	62	12	11	7	10	11	11

Key :

1	=	Behaviour
11	=	Intellectual and School Status
111	=	Physical Appearance and Attributes
1V	=	Anxiety
V	=	Popularity
V1	=	Happiness and Satisfaction
A1	=	Self Reliance
A2	=	Sense of Personal Worth
A3	=	Sense of Personal Freedom
A4	=	Feeling of Belonging
A5	=	Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies
A6	=	Freedom from Nervous Tendencies
B1	=	Social Standards
B2	=	Social Skills
B3	=	Freedom from Anti-Social Tendencies
B4	=	Family Relations
B5	=	School Relations
B6	=	Community Relations

RAW SCORES OF NORMAL ACHIEVERS ON THE PIERS-HARRIS CHILDRENS' SELF CONCEPT SCALE AND THE CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY.

APPENDIX 4

TABLE 12

	PIERS-HARRIS CHILDRENS' SELF CONCEPT SCALE											CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY														
												PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT								SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT						
	*Error		1		11		111		1V		V		V1		A	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	B	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6
Experimental Group	59	71	12	14	7	14	10	10	8	12	8	12	10	10	52 65	9 8	7 12	10 11	9 12	3 11	4 11	46 64	11 10	6 7	5 12	8 11	7 12	9 12
	67	68	14	14	13	16	10	6	13	13	9	9	9	9	60 61	10 10	10 11	12 10	11 12	10 10	7 8	57 65	10 10	9 9	6 11	11 12	10 11	11 12
	69	77	14	16	14	17	8	11	12	14	11	11	9	10	59 59	10 10	11 10	10 10	12 12	9 7	7 10	57 67	11 11	9 10	9 12	11 12	7 11	10 11
	52	74	8	15	13	16	9	12	8	14	6	10	8	9	61 62	10 10	9 11	12 10	10 11	9 9	11 11	57 64	10 11	9 8	8 12	9 11	10 11	11 11
	63	75	15	16	11	14	9	10	10	10	11	11	9	10	56 62	6 9	10 11	12 12	11 11	8 9	9 10	49 54	7 9	7 9	8 9	10 11	9 10	8 8
	48	53	5	7	11	7	6	7	10	13	3	8	6	9	35 48	7 11	3 5	2 7	8 7	6 11	9 10	39 52	8 8	7 9	5 9	5 10	4 7	10 9
	68	69	12	10	12	14	12	10	13	13	10	12	10	10	59 63	9 8	7 11	12 12	11 10	11 11	9 11	63 64	11 9	10 11	9 11	12 11	10 10	11 12
	45	57	12	14	5	7	2	8	6	8	7	10	6	9	25 39	4 7	3 4	7 5	5 4	2 11	4 8	34 45	9 9	6 5	4 5	6 10	2 8	7 8
	43	51	3	10	2	6	1	2	9	11	9	8	8	8	47 47	9 8	7 7	7 8	9 8	7 10	8 8	36 49	8 9	8 9	3 10	4 7	4 6	9 8
	41	50	5	4	6	6	6	5	9	12	6	10	6	8	32 44	4 4	4 5	9 9	7 11	2 9	6 6	31 45	10 12	4 7	4 4	3 8	4 4	6 10
Homework Control Group	45	50	11	13	8	9	5	5	5	7	3	4	10	8	36 26	9 7	4 5	7 5	8 4	3 3	5 2	50 41	11 6	11 8	5 5	7 10	8 4	8 8
	72	75	14	15	13	15	11	13	12	11	11	11	10	10	62 63	8 10	10 11	11 11	12 10	11 11	10 10	61 67	11 12	11 10	11 12	12 12	6 10	10 11
	69	75	11	13	13	16	13	13	13	14	10	11	10	10	64 64	10 11	9 12	12 8	11 12	10 9	12 12	56 56	10 9	11 10	8 5	12 12	5 9	10 11
	72	71	15	15	14	16	9	6	14	13	12	11	9	9	58 49	9 8	10 9	12 9	11 8	7 6	9 9	57 55	10 7	9 8	6 8	11 10	11 10	10 12
	66	76	11	14	15	17	11	13	10	13	10	11	10	10	54 47	9 10	8 10	10 10	10 9	8 6	9 2	53 51	11 10	9 9	7 12	9 4	8 9	9 7
	55	53	11	11	5	7	7	11	7	10	10	10	10	10	47 39	5 4	7 7	10 7	7 11	10 5	8 5	48 54	10 11	4 9	8 7	10 11	9 9	7 7
	64	42	14	10	11	3	8	7	9	5	10	4	9	8	40 31	7 5	6 6	8 8	9 6	3 4	7 2	55 44	10 9	11 7	5 3	9 8	10 7	10 10
	57	54	14	13	7	6	3	2	13	13	8	9	9	8	58 61	7 8	9 11	10 11	10 12	12 10	10 9	65 59	9 9	10 9	12 8	12 12	11 10	11 11
	54	54	8	7	9	8	7	10	10	11	7	7	8	9	41 50	8 7	4 5	10 7	7 8	6 11	6 12	39 39	7 7	5 6	4 6	7 6	8 6	8 8
	52	44	9	4	10	9	4	6	8	9	7	5	10	8	43 41	4 6	9 5	5 6	9 9	8 8	8 7	44 44	10 9	9 7	6 6	7 5	5 7	7 10
Control Group	74	72	13	14	16	14	11	10	13	12	12	12	10	9	64 62	11 10	7 7	12 12	11 10	12 12	11 11	63 66	11 12	9 8	9 12	12 12	11 11	11 11
	68	66	13	12	14	12	10	10	11	12	11	9	10	10	44 41	6 7	6 6	9 8	11 8	5 4	7 8	52 50	11 10	10 9	6 7	8 8	6 5	11 11
	74	64	8	13	2	10	3	10	5	11	4	9	4	10	27 48	6 12	3 8	8 8	7 10	0 6	3 4	49 61	12 10	8 11	6 8	9 11	5 9	9 12
	68	72	15	16	12	13	7	10	13	12	10	10	10	10	57 58	5 9	10 6	9 10	11 12	10 11	12 10	60 63	11 10	8 9	12 12	11 12	7 12	11 8
	58	62	8	6	7	11	10	11	10	12	10	11	9	9	36 50	6 4	5 11	5 10	9 9	4 6	7 10	42 39	9 9	11 7	6 5	1 5	6 9	9 4
	58	57	10	12	9	11	10	8	11	9	7	7	8	9	36 36	5 4	4 7	7 9	5 5	8 7	7 10	48 46	10 8	8 5	7 3	11 10	6 9	6 11
	33	32	4	4	5	6	5	6	3	4	5	5	5	5	30 26	9 5	5 6	3 2	8 7	2 1	3 5	28 36	4 10	6 8	3 2	2 2	5 6	8 8
	57	46	4	2	13	6	12	10	8	8	10	9	9	8	45 45	9 4	9 9	8 8	9 11	3 6	7 7	45 44	8 8	9 7	5 5	9 11	6 6	8 7
	66	63	11	13	14	11	11	8	11	11	10	10	9	8	56 50	5 6	8 10	11 9	11 12	10 7	11 6	57 57	9 10	11 9	10 9	9 8	8 10	10 11
	71	69	16	16	13	13	8	9	12	11	11	8	9	10	59 52	10 8	7 6	11 9	11 7	12 11	8 11	66 60	10 11	10 9	12 12	12 10	11 11	11 7

Key:

1	=	Behaviour
11	=	Intellectual and School Status
111	=	Physical Appearance and Attributes
1V	=	Anxiety
V	=	Popularity
V1	=	Happiness and Satisfaction
A	=	Total Personal Adjustment Score
A1	=	Self Reliance
A2	=	Sense of Personal Worth
A3	=	Sense of Personal Freedom
A4	=	Feeling of Belonging
A5	=	Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies
A6	=	Freedom from Nervous Tendencies
B	=	Total Social Adjustment Score
B1	=	Social Standards
B2	=	Social Skills
B3	=	Freedom from Anti-Social Tendencies
B4	=	Family Relations
B5	=	School Relations
B6	=	Community Relations

* Note: Two scores are given in each column - the pre-test and post-test scores for each subject.

Raw scores of the Experimental and Control Groups of Underachievers on the Piers-Harris Childrens' Self Concept Scale and the California Test of Personality.

APPENDIX 5

TABLE 13

Experimental Group			Control Group (Homework)			Control Group		
I.Q. St.	Pre-test	Post test	I.Q. St.	Pre-test	Post test	I.Q. St.	Pre-test	Post test
9	5	5	8	6	6	9	7	7
9	6	8	9	7	6	8	6	6
9	7	8	7	5	5	4	2	4
8	6	7	8	5	6	8	6	5
9	6	8	4	1	3	5	3	5
7	5	4	6	4	4	4	2	3
6	4	3	6	4	4	8	6	6
7	5	4	7	5	6	8	6	4
9	6	7	8	5	6	7	5	5
7	5	8	4	2	1	7	5	7

Key : I.Q. St = I.Q. Stanine.

Raw scores of the three underachieving groups indicating I.Q. stanine scores and pre and post test mathematics stanine scores from the achievement tests administered.

A P P E N D I X B

DEALING WITH REALITY

MY BODY

RELATING TO OTHERS

Which of the following characteristics are necessary for a good interpersonal relationship?

1. understands partner's weaknesses and strengths
2. ignores partner's quirks
3. likes more of partner's traits than dislikes
4. always gives partner praise when praise is due
5. feels that relationship with partner should continue with as few changes as possible
6. feels that relationship should be continually developing
7. trusts partner in most respects but not all
8. never feels guilty about relationship with partner
9. always tries to be honest with partner
10. feels that partner always tries to be honest with self
11. imposes demands and expectations on partner
12. wants partner to impose demands and expectations on self
13. puts concern for partner's happiness and growth above own
14. promotes partner's happiness and growth
15. respects partner's independence and individuality to the point where it doesn't infringe on one's own.
16. shares self completely
17. values own interests above partner's
18. values partner's interests above own
19. admires partner intellectually
20. admires partner physically
21. admires partner's personality
22. admires partner's character
23. likes partner without reservation
24. feels that partner likes self without reservation
25. always tries to control anger against partner
26. always tries to control annoyance with partner
27. is comfortable having partner dependent on self
28. is comfortable being dependent on partner
29. loves partner
30. feels partner loves self

The following are simple questions about you. If your answer to the question is YES, circle "Y", if NO, circle "N", if MAYBE, circle "M".

AM I SOMEONE WHO

1.	needs to be alone ?	Y	N	M
2.	will publicly show affection to another ?	Y	N	M
3.	likes to stay up all night when friends visit ?	Y	N	M
4.	enjoys close friendships ?	Y	N	M
5.	likes to be a leader ?	Y	N	M
6.	is compassionate when others suffer misfortune ?	Y	N	M
7.	spends a lot of time reading for pleasure ?	Y	N	M
8.	can accept an opinion different from my own ?	Y	N	M
9.	likes to eat out rather than at home ?	Y	N	M
10.	is easily influenced by TV ?	Y	N	M
11.	writes frequent letters to friends ?	Y	N	M
12.	prefers to attend sports events rather than watch them on TV ?	Y	N	M
13.	could invite someone I didn't like to my home ?	Y	N	M
14.	has been hurt by a friend ?	Y	N	M
15.	has a close friend of another race ?	Y	N	M
16.	wants to hurt someone for what he/she did to me ?	Y	N	M
17.	Do any of your answers indicate an area where you have difficulty with interpersonal relationships ? Which ones ?			

_____

_____

APPENDIX 9 (CONTD).

18. How might you change your ways to make it easier for yourself to develop close interpersonal relationships ?

_____

_____

_____

A P P E N D I X C.

APPENDIX 10

THE PIERS-HARRIS
CHILDRENS' SELF CONCEPT SCALE.

THE WAY I FEEL ABOUT MYSELF

NAME . . . . . .

AGE . . . . . GIRL OR BOY. . . . . .

GRADE . . . . . SCHOOL . . . . . .

DATE . . . . . .

Here are a set of statements. Some of them are true of you and so you will circle the yes. Some are not true of you and so you will circle the no. Answer every question even if some are hard to decide, but do not circle both yes and no. Remember, circle the yes if the statement is generally like you, or circle the no if the statement is generally not like you. There are no right or wrong answers. Only you can tell us how you feel about yourself, so we hope you will mark the way you really feel inside.

1. My classmates make fun of me . . . . . yes no
2. I am a happy person . . . . . yes no
3. It is hard for me to make friends . . . . . yes no
4. I am often sad . . . . . yes no
5. I am smart . . . . . yes no
6. I am shy . . . . . yes no
7. I get nervous when the teacher calls on me . . . . . yes no
8. My looks bother me . . . . . yes no
9. When I grow up, I will be an important person . . . . . yes no
10. I get worried when we have tests in school. . . . . yes no
11. I am unpopular . . . . . yes no
12. I am well behaved in school . . . . . yes no
13. It is usually my fault when something goes wrong . . . . . yes no
14. I cause trouble to my family . . . . . yes no
15. I am strong . . . . . yes no
16. I have good ideas . . . . . yes no
17. I am an important member of my family . . . . . yes no
18. I usually want my own way . . . . . yes no
19. I am good at making things with my hands . . . . . yes no
20. I give up easily . . . . . yes no

21. I am good in my school work . . . . . yes no
22. I do many bad things . . . . . yes no
23. I can draw well . . . . . yes no
24. I am good in music . . . . . yes no
25. I behave badly at home . . . . . yes no
26. I am slow in finishing my school work . . . . . yes no
27. I am an important member of my class . . . . . yes no
28. I am nervous . . . . . yes no
29. I have pretty eyes . . . . . yes no
30. I can give a good report in front of the class. . . . . yes no
31. In school I am a dreamer . . . . . yes no
32. I pick on my brother(s) and sister(s) . . . . . yes no
33. My friends like my ideas . . . . . yes no
34. I often get into trouble . . . . . yes no
35. I am obedient at home . . . . . yes no
36. I am lucky . . . . . yes no
37. I worry a lot . . . . . yes no
38. My parents expect too much of me . . . . . yes no
39. I like being the way I am . . . . . yes no
40. I feel left out of things . . . . . yes no

41. I have nice hair . . . . . yes no

42. I often volunteer in school . . . . . yes no

43. I wish I were different . . . . . yes no

44. I sleep well at night . . . . . yes no

45. I hate school . . . . . yes no

46. I am among the last to be chosen for games . . . . . yes no

47. I am sick a lot . . . . . yes no

48. I am often mean to other people . . . . . yes no

49. My classmates in school think I have good ideas . . . . . yes no

50. I am unhappy. . . . . yes no

51. I have many friends . . . . . yes no

52. I am cheerful . . . . . yes no

53. I am dumb about most things . . . . . yes no

54. I am good looking . . . . . yes no

55. I have lots of pep . . . . . yes no

56. I get into a lot of fights . . . . . yes no

57. I am popular with boys . . . . . yes no

58. People pick on me . . . . . yes no

59. My family is disappointed in me . . . . . yes no

60. I have a pleasant face . . . . . yes no

61. When I try to make something, everything seems to go wrong . . . . . yes no

62. I am picked on at home . . . . . yes no

63. I am a leader in games and sports . . . . . yes no

64. I am clumsy . . . . . yes no

65. In games and sports, I watch instead of play . . . . . yes no

66. I forget what I learn . . . . . yes no

67. I am easy to get along with . . . . . ves no

68. I lose my temper easily . . . . . yes no

69. I am popular with girls . . . . . yes no

70. I am a good reader . . . . . yes no

71. I would rather work alone than with a group . . . . . yes no

72. I like my brother (sister) . . . . . yes no

73. I have a good figure . . . . . yes no

74. I am often afraid . . . . . yes no

75. I am always dropping or breaking things . . . . . yes no

76. I can be trusted . . . . . yes no

77. I am different from other people . . . . . yes no

78. I think bad thoughts . . . . . yes no

79. I cry easily . . . . . yes no

80. I am a good person . . . . . yes no

Score: _____

Elementary • GRADES 4-5-6-7-8 • form AA

California Test of Personality

1953 Revision

Devised by
LOUIS P. THORPE, WILLIS W. CLARK, AND ERNEST W. TIEGS

Do not write or mark on this booklet unless told to do so by the examiner.

Name..... Grade..... (CIRCLE ONE) Boy Girl
Last First Middle

School..... City..... Date of Test.....
Month Day Year

Examiner..... (.....) Pupil's Age..... Date of Birth.....
Month Day Year

E

INSTRUCTIONS TO PUPILS

This booklet contains some questions which can be answered YES or NO. Your answers will show what you usually think, how you usually feel, or what you usually do about things. Work as fast as you can without making mistakes.

DO NOT TURN THIS PAGE UNTIL TOLD TO DO SO

CTB PUBLISHED BY CTB / McGRAW-HILL, DEL MONTE RESEARCH PARK, MONTEREY, CALIFORNIA 93940—

9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

INSTRUCTIONS TO PUPILS

DO NOT WRITE OR MARK ON THIS TEST BOOKLET UNLESS TOLD TO DO SO BY THE EXAMINER.

You are to decide for each question whether the answer is YES or NO and mark it as you are told. The following are two sample questions:

SAMPLES

A. Do you have a dog at home? **YES NO**

B. Can you ride a bicycle? **YES NO**

DIRECTIONS FOR MARKING ANSWERS

ON ANSWER SHEETS

Make a heavy black mark under the word YES or NO to show your answer. If you have a dog at home, you would mark under the YES for question A as shown below. If you cannot ride a bicycle, you would mark under the NO for question B as shown below.

	YES	NO
A	▮	⁞
B	⁞	▮

Remember, you mark under the word that shows your answer. Now find Samples A and B on your answer sheet and show your answer for each by marking YES or NO. Do it now. Find answer row number 1 on your answer sheet. Now wait until the examiner tells you to begin.

ON TEST BOOKLETS

Draw a circle around the word YES or NO, whichever shows your answer. If you have a dog at home, draw a circle around the word YES in Sample A above; if not, draw a circle around the word NO. Do it now.

If you can ride a bicycle, draw a circle around the word YES in Sample B above; if not, draw a circle around the word NO. Do it now.

Now wait until the examiner tells you to begin.

After the examiner tells you to begin, go right on from one page to another until you have finished the test or are told to stop. Work as fast as you can without making mistakes. Now look at item 1 on page 3. Ready, begin.

SECTION 1 A

1. Do you usually keep at your work until it is done? YES NO

2. Do you usually apologize when you are wrong? YES NO

3. Do you help other boys and girls have a good time at parties? YES NO

4. Do you usually believe what other boys or girls tell you? YES NO

5. Is it easy for you to recite or talk in class? YES NO

6. When you have some free time, do you usually ask your parents or teacher what to do? YES NO

7. Do you usually go to bed on time, even when you wish to stay up? YES NO

8. Is it hard to do your work when someone blames you for something? YES NO

9. Can you often get boys and girls to do what you want them to? YES NO

10. Do your parents or teachers usually need to tell you to do your work? YES NO

11. If you are a boy, do you talk to new girls? If you are a girl, do you talk to new boys ? YES NO

12. Would you rather plan your own work than to have someone else plan it for you? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT COLUMN

Section 1 A
(number right) .....

SECTION 1 B

13. Do your friends generally think that your ideas are good? YES NO

14. Do people often do nice things for you? YES NO

15. Do you wish that your father (or mother) had a better job? YES NO

16. Are your friends and classmates usually interested in the things you do? YES NO

17. Do your classmates seem to think that you are not a good friend? YES NO

18. Do your friends and classmates often want to help you? YES NO

19. Are you sometimes cheated when you trade things? YES NO

20. Do your classmates and friends usually feel that they know more than you do? YES NO

21. Do your folks seem to think that you are doing well? YES NO

22. Can you do most of the things you try? YES NO

23. Do people often think that you cannot do things very well? YES NO

24. Do most of your friends and classmates think you are bright? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

Section 1 B
(number right) .....

SECTION 1 C

25. Do you feel that your folks boss you too much? YES NO

26. Are you allowed enough time to play? YES NO

27. May you usually bring your friends home when you want to? YES NO

28. Do others usually decide to which parties you may go? YES NO

29. May you usually do what you want to during your spare time? YES NO

30. Are you prevented from doing most of the things you want to? YES NO

31. Do your folks often stop you from going around with your friends? YES NO

32. Do you have a chance to see many new things? YES NO

33. Are you given some spending money? YES NO

34. Do your folks stop you from taking short walks with your friends? YES NO

35. Are you punished for lots of little things? YES NO

36. Do some people try to rule you so much that you don't like it? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT COLUMN

Section 1 C
(number right) .....

SECTION 1 D

37. Do pets and animals make friends with you easily? YES NO

38. Are you proud of your school? YES NO

39. Do your classmates think you cannot do well in school? YES NO

40. Are you as well and strong as most boys and girls? YES NO

41. Are your cousins, aunts, uncles, or grandparents as nice as those of most of your friends? YES NO

42. Are the members of your family usually good to you? YES NO

43. Do you often think that nobody likes you? YES NO

44. Do you feel that most of your classmates are glad that you are a member of the class? YES NO

45. Do you have just a few friends? YES NO

46. Do you often wish you had some other parents? YES NO

47. Is it hard to find friends who will keep your secrets? YES NO

48. Do the boys and girls usually invite you to their parties? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

Section 1 D
(number right) .....

SECTION 1 E

49. Have people often been so unfair that you gave up? YES NO

50. Would you rather stay away from most parties? YES NO

51. Does it make you shy to have everyone look at you when you enter a room? YES NO

52. Are you often greatly discouraged about many things that are important to you? YES NO

53. Do your friends or your work often make you worry? YES NO

54. Is your work often so hard that you stop trying? YES NO

55. Are people often so unkind or unfair that it makes you feel bad? YES NO

56. Do your friends or classmates often say or do things that hurt your feelings? YES NO

57. Do people often try to cheat you or do mean things to you? YES NO

58. Are you often with people who have so little interest in you that you feel lonesome? YES NO

59. Are your studies or your life so dull that you often think about many other things? YES NO

60. Are people often mean or unfair to you? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT COLUMN

Section 1 E
(number right) .....

SECTION 1 F

61. Do you often have dizzy spells? YES NO

62. Do you often have bad dreams? YES NO

63. Do you often bite your fingernails? YES NO

64. Do you seem to have more headaches than most children? YES NO

65. Is it hard for you to keep from being restless much of the time? YES NO

66. Do you often find you are not hungry at meal time? YES NO

67. Do you catch cold easily? YES NO

68. Do you often feel tired before noon? YES NO

69. Do you believe that you have more bad dreams than most of the boys and girls? YES NO

70. Do you often feel sick to your stomach? YES NO

71. Do you often have sneezing spells? YES NO

72. Do your eyes hurt often? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

Section 1 F
(number right) .....

SECTION 2 A

73. Is it all right to cheat in a game when the umpire is not looking? YES NO

74. Is it all right to disobey teachers if you think they are not fair to you? YES NO

75. Should one return things to people who won't return things they borrow? YES NO

76. Is it all right to take things you need if you have no money? YES NO

77. Is it necessary to thank those who have helped you? YES NO

78. Do children need to obey their fathers or mothers even when their friends tell them not to? YES NO

79. If a person finds something, does he have a right to keep it or sell it? YES NO

80. Do boys and girls need to do what their teachers say is right? YES NO

81. Should boys and girls ask their parents for permission to do things? YES NO

82. Should children be nice to people they don't like? YES NO

83. Is it all right for children to cry or whine when their parents keep them home from a show? YES NO

84. When people get sick or are in trouble, is it usually their own fault? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT COLUMN

Section 2 A
(number right) .....

SECTION 2 B

85. Do you let people know you are right no matter what they say? YES NO

86. Do you try games at parties even if you haven't played them before? YES NO

87. Do you help new pupils to talk to other children? YES NO

88. Does it make you feel angry when you lose in games at parties? YES NO

89. Do you usually help other boys and girls have a good time? YES NO

90. Is it hard for you to talk to people as soon as you meet them? YES NO

91. Do you usually act friendly to people you do not like? YES NO

92. Do you often change your plans in order to help people? YES NO

93. Do you usually forget the names of people you meet? YES NO

94. Do the boys and girls seem to think you are nice to them? YES NO

95. Do you usually keep from showing your temper when you are angry? YES NO

96. Do you talk to new children at school? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

Section 2 B
(number right) .....

SECTION 2 C

97. Do you like to scare or push smaller boys and girls? YES NO

98. Have unfair people often said that you made trouble for them? YES NO

99. Do you often make friends or classmates do things they don't want to? YES NO

100. Is it hard to make people remember how well you can do things? YES NO

101. Do people often act so mean that you have to be nasty to them? YES NO

102. Do you often have to make a "fuss" or "act up" to get what you deserve? YES NO

103. Is anyone at school so mean that you tear, or cut, or break things? YES NO

104. Are people often so unfair that you lose your temper? YES NO

105. Is someone at home so mean that you often have to quarrel? YES NO

106. Do you sometimes need something so much that it is all right to take it? YES NO

107. Do classmates often quarrel with you? YES NO

108. Do people often ask you to do such hard or foolish things that you won't do them? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT COLUMN

Section 2 C
(number right) .....

SECTION 2 D

109. Do your folks seem to think that you are just as good as they are? YES NO

110. Do you have a hard time because it seems that your folks hardly ever have enough money? YES NO

111. Are you unhappy because your folks do not care about the things you like? YES NO

112. When your folks make you mind are they usually nice to you about it? YES NO

113. Do your folks often claim that you are not as nice to them as you should be? YES NO

114. Do you like both of your parents about the same? YES NO

115. Do you feel that your folks fuss at you instead of helping you? YES NO

116. Do you sometimes feel like running away from home? YES NO

117. Do you try to keep boys and girls away from your home because it isn't as nice as theirs? YES NO

118. Does it seem to you that your folks at home often treat you mean? YES NO

119. Do you feel that no one at home loves you? YES NO

120. Do you feel that too many people at home try to boss you? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

Section 2 D
(number right) .....

SECTION 2 E

121. Do you think that the boys and girls at school like you as well as they should? YES NO

122. Do you think that the children would be happier if the teacher were not so strict? YES NO

123. Is it fun to do nice things for some of the other boys or girls? YES NO

124. Is school work so hard that you are afraid you will fail? YES NO

125. Do your schoolmates seem to think that you are nice to them? YES NO

126. Does it seem to you that some of the teachers "have it in for" pupils? YES NO

127. Do many of the children get along with the teacher much better than you do? YES NO

128. Would you like to stay home from school a lot if it were right to do so? YES NO

129. Are most of the boys and girls at school so bad that you try to stay away from them? YES NO

130. Have you found that some of the teachers do not like to be with the boys and girls? YES NO

131. Do many of the other boys or girls claim that they play games more fairly than you do? YES NO

132. Are the boys and girls at school usually nice to you? YES NO

GO RIGHT ON TO THE NEXT COLUMN

Section 2 E (number right) .....

SECTION 2 F

133. Do you visit many of the interesting places near where you live? YES

134. Do you think there are too few interesting places near your home? YES

135. Do you sometimes do things to make the place in which you live look nicer? YES

136. Do you ever help clean up things near your home? YES

137. Do you take good care of your own pets or help with other people's pets? YES

138. Do you sometimes help other people? YES

139. Do you try to get your friends to obey the laws? YES

140. Do you help children keep away from places where they might get sick? YES

141. Do you dislike many of the people who live near your home? YES

142. Is it all right to do what you please if the police are not around? YES

143. Does it make you glad to see the people living near you get along fine? YES

144. Would you like to have things look better around your home? YES

STOP NOW WAIT FOR FURTHER INSTRUCTIONS

Section 2 F (number right) .....