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The Personality Differences Between Unilingual and Bilingual 9th Grade Students in a Depressed Area

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THE PERSONALITY DIFFERENCES BETWEEN UNILINGUAL AND BILINGUAL 9TH GRADE STUDENTS - MULLINS

DATE DUE

THE PERSONALITY DIFFERENCES BETWEEN UNILINGUAL AND BILINGUAL 9TH GRADE STUDENTS IN A DEPRESSED AREA

By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The American educational system has as one of its fundamental purposes the life adjustment of the child. This life adjustment concept is carried out through the combined efforts of the teacher, principal, guidance worker, and nurse in each school; and is reflected in the establishment of a satisfactory relationship of the students to their home, school and neighborhood environments.

School personnel are constantly seeking to gain new insight into the problems of life adjustment. Cultural, personality, socio-economic, intelligence, sex and physical factors are all determinants of the life adjustment of the child; therefore, it is of upmost importance for the educator to know and understand the effect of these determinants as they operate in a specific school or area.

I. THE PROBLEM

Kluckhohn and Murray state that:

EVERY MAN is in certain respects
A. Like all other men,
B. Like some other men,
C. Like no other man.[1]

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[1]Clyde Kluckhohn and Henry A. Murray, Personality in Nature, Society, and Culture (New York: Knopf Publishing Company, 1956), p. 53.

The words man and men can be replaced by the words student and students, school and schools, culture and cultures, or personality and personalities; and can be extremely valuable to the educator if we are able to determine the ways in which they are like all others, like some others, and like no others.

Statement of the problem. The purposes of this study were (1) to present a summary of the literature on the personality differences of unilinguals and Spanish bilinguals, and (2) to determine the personality similarities and differences of unilingual and Spanish bilingual ninth grade students in a depressed area.

Importance of the study. Since the foundation of education is the total, long-range adjustment of the individual, this foundation must be laid upon solid ground. The teacher's position in education is to strengthen and to build upon the foundation in order to prepare the student for his place in society. If the foundation is weak or superficial, the building blocks of education will not become a permanent structure. This makes it most important that any sizeable weakness in the foundation is discovered and taken into account as early as possible in the child's school career. The results of this study may help the school personnel determine a student's place in society, enabling the teacher to select those educational building blocks which are most appropriate.

Delimitation of the study. This study was based upon the data compiled from information gained on the California Psychological Inventory for a randomly selected group of ninth grade students at a junior high school located in Albuquerque, New Mexico. This random selection was done on a somewhat arbitrary basis which attempted to insure representation of intelligence quotients, socio-economic status, and bilingualism comparable to the entire ninth grade class. Therefore, this study is limited in that human error and uncontrollable situations may have an effect on the data.

II. DEFINITION OF TERMS USED

Bilingual. Throughout this study "bilingual" refers to those students whose primary language is Spanish, but who have attended schools in which English is the primary language.

Culture. "Culture" is an organized group of ideas, habits, and conditioned emotional responses, with many conflicts, which are gathered over a long period of time and handed down through the generations.

Depressed area. In this study "depressed area" is used to indicate any area which has contained an extremely low socio-economic group, lacking mobility, for a long period of time.

Intelligence. The ability or capacity to integrate experience is referred to as "intelligence." It is usually measured by a group of tests which have proved valuable as predictors of success in academic work.

Mixed culture. A situation in which there are two or more organized groups of ideas, habits, and conditioned emotional responses is designated a "mixed culture." Often these organized groups are in conflict, one with the other.

Personality. "Personality" is the sum total of everything that constitutes a person's mental, emotional, and temperamental make up. It refers to the manner and effectiveness with which the whole individual meets his personal and social problems and, indirectly, the manner in which he impresses those with whom he comes in close contact.

Society. A group of individuals organized on the basis of geography, race, religion, socio-economic status, or common interest is known as a "society." Each society has its own culture or way of life.

Socio-economic. The term "socio-economic" refers to the wealth, occupation and social status of a person in a given society or in comparison to a specific society.

Unilingual. In this study the term "unilingual" refers to those students whose primary language is English.

Urban. Any town containing a population of 200,000 or more is designated an "urban" area.

CHAPTER II

SURVEY OF RELATED LITERATURE

Investigations specifically concerned with the personality differences or similarities between unilingual and bilingual students are not numerous, and are almost non-existent for unilinguals and Spanish bilinguals in a depressed area. However, there is a wealth of literature dealing with cultural, socio-economic, sexual, and intellectual determinants of personality. The study of this literature will be organized under the following headings; inter-cultural personality differences, socio-economic personality differences, sexual differences in personality, and intellectual differences in personality. Only a brief summary of the work done in these fields will be given here.

I. INTER-CULTURAL PERSONALITY DIFFERENCES

Studies summarized in this section deal specifically with research in or opinions on personality traits of unilingual and bilingual students. It should be obvious that the bilingual student is, in some ways, like all unilingual students, like some unilingual students, and like no unilingual student. This indicates that the bilingual student is a member of one culture and the unilingual student belongs to another culture; however, these two cultures are

interacting, one with another and with numerous sub-cultures. Presumably, personalities of the unilingual and bilingual students belong to separate groups which, in certain areas, overlap. An overlap among bilingual culture, unilingual culture, bilingual personality, and unilingual personality indicates that there is a definite cause and effect relationship between culture and personality. Spiro states that: "Personality and culture . . . are not different or mutually exclusive entities; they are part and parcel of the same process of interaction."[2] A comment by Brown relative to the subject is that: ". . . . when we talk about culture, society, and personality we are talking about different aspects of the same phenomenon . . . ."[3]

Since personality is a part of culture and culture is a part of personality:

> Given cultural differences, one would also expect to find differing personality norms for various societies. Observations employing projective tests and other objective techniques have shown this to be the case. Of course, all types of personality configurations will differ enormously from one society to another . . . .[4]

General inter-cultural personality differences. Many anthropologists, psychologists, and sociologists have

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[2]Melford E. Spiro, "Culture and Personality: The Natural History of a False Dichotomy," Psychiatry, (14, 1951), p. 43.

[3]G. Gordon Brown, "Culture, Society and Personality: A Restatement," American Journal of Psychiatry, (108, 1952), p. 173.

[4]Ralph Linton, Culture and Mental Disorders, (Springfield: Charles E. Thomas Publishing Company, 1956), p. 15.

emphasised the importance of language in culture and personality. Saunders states that: ". . . . language . . . embodies and determines the thought and perception patterns of a cultural group."[5] What Saunders seems to be saying is that language is culture and that culture is expressed through language. If language and culture are inseparable and culture and personality are inseparable, then language and personality are part of the same phenomenon and cannot be divorced, one from the other. According to Sullivan: "The learning of language, which is terribly important in any approach to the study of personality on a general scale, is the classical, and, perhaps, the most important single instance of an immensely capable organism adjusting itself . . . ."[6]

It becomes easier to accept the belief that personality and culture are moulded and expressed by language when the functions of language are examined. Saunders described these functions as follows:

> Language enables us to make sense out of reality. It provides for each of us a way of isolating, categorizing, and relating phenomena without which experience could be only a confused succession of sensations and impressions. Our perceptions, to the extent that they represent anything more than crude sensation, are organized

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[5]Lyle Saunders, Cultural Difference and Medical Care, (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1954), p. 116.

[6]Harry Stack Sullivan, Concepts of Modern Psychiatry, (Washington, D. C.: William Alanson White Foundation, 1945), p. 317.

around concepts, each of which is represented by one or more verbal symbols.[7]

Sullivan feels that the linguistic elements organized in each person are extremely important because: "information can arise only from explicit or implicit attempts toward communication with other persons. One has information only to the extent that one has tended to communicate one's states of being, one's experience."[8]

Sullivan's emphasis on the importance of language in the study of personality is emphasised by Blitsten in her comments on his social theories. In discussing integration of two cultures, each with a distinct language, she states that: "integration is more difficult for people who are exposed to a large amount of verbal formulation, the referents of which they cannot verify and which are so contradictory that they cannot be unified even symbolically."[9] She goes on to say that: "Personality integration depends upon symbolic integration."[10] Blitsten's discussion of integration clearly points to the misconception that verbal instructions issued to people of a different cultural and

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[7]Saunders, op. cit., p. 116.

[8]Sullivan, op. cit., p. 850.

[9]Dorothy R. Blitsten, The Social Theories of Harry Stack Sullivan, (New York: The William-Frederick Press, 1953), p. 126.

[10]Ibid., p. 130.

linguistic background should be adequate motivation for these people to integrate the culture of the majority into their culture, dropping those items from their culture which conflict with the majority culture.

Although one culture may adopt the surface or outward characteristics of another culture, it may not integrate many of the characteristics underlying these outward characteristics. An example of this is the integration of the Spanish culture in the Zuni Culture as related by Kardiner:

> The Zuni adopted their governmental form from the Spaniards. But they adopted only the form, not its spirit or character, because it created too many incompatibilities with the Zuni ego structure. They had no conception of the use of authority as a weapon to exploit anyone. This characteristic was not diffused.[11]

The actual amount and depth of integration must be evaluated and understood to facilitate the efforts of those who work in a cross-cultural situation.

Perhaps the most acute problem of those working in a cross-cultural situation is not the lack of integration; but, rather, it is their failure to scientifically examine their own culture. Spicer states that:

> It should be constantly borne in mind in cross-cultural situations that the cultures in which we grow up predispose us to certain views and values. We come to another culture with preconceptions about what is good and what is rational or sensible, which do not hold good universally, and these preconceptions may result in great misunderstandings. Setting aside those

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[11]Abram Kardiner, The Individual and His Society, (New York: Columbia University Press, 1939), p. 133.

> preconceptions . . . is one of the most difficult, as well as most necessary, disciplines in any work that goes on across cultural boundaries.[12]

It is also important to realize that:

> The adjustment required by different environmental realities and those created by the mores that govern human relationships must in each culture produce different end results in the personality, such as different thought processes and sequences . . . .[13]

A few general comments on the effects of the unilingual dominant culture on the bilingual person's personality is apropos. Arsenian states that:

> The Bilingual person in his social life in a unilingual company may suffer a feeling of inferiority because of the inadequacy of his linguistic expression. This would be true, seemingly, especially in circumstances where one of the two languages in question carries with it a prestige of social superiority over the other . . . . Emotional consequences of a different nature may be present in a situation of acute national consciousness where a bilingual person indicates publicly his preference for one language to another . . . .[14]

In his study of the effect of the dominant American culture upon the children of Italian-born parents, Tait discovered several significant trends. In his findings there is a suggestion that Italian children experience a somewhat higher degree of inferiority feelings, the more they associate with native American children. Another trend is that Italian

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[12]Edward H. Spicer (ed.), Human Problems in Technological Change, (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1952), pp. 291-292.

[13]Kardiner, op. cit., p. 127.

[14]Seth Arsenian, Bilingualism and Mental Development, (New York: Columbia University Press, 1937), p. 138.

children living in a community of approximately 100 per cent foreign population reject the foreign background and are aware of rejection to a slightly higher degree than Italian children living in a community in which the population is in part native American. The third trend is toward somewhat better adjustment and slightly more emotional stability for Italian children, the less they associate with native American children. A final suggestion from Tait's research is that as Italian children become slightly more ascendant and more extrovertive, the more they associate with native American children.[15] We have no proof that these same trends would apply to Spanish children in relationship to the native Americans who are not of Spanish descent; however, it is likely that a study similar to Tait's utilizing the Spanish children would show some similarity in its findings.

Spanish inter-cultural personality differences. The Spanish-speaking people are scattered throughout the Southwest; however, they are concentrated in certain areas. They tend to live together in small villages or to inhabit distinct areas in larger towns and cities, with a relatively low rate of mobility. Aside from identification by living areas, Walter states that:

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[15]Joseph Wilfrid Tait, Some Aspects of the Effect of the Dominant American Culture Upon Children of Italian-Born Parents, (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942), pp. 50-51.

> The racial background of the great majority of the Spanish speaking people of this country gives them a social visibility which has been sufficient to set them apart in general thinking as a distinct racial group and to bring into play a racial factor in most intergroup contacts in which they have been involved.[16]

This racial distinction is explained by Saunders as follows:

> . . . . the Spanish-American of today is the genetic descendant of at least two population stocks: the people of sixteenth- and seventeenth- century Spain and New Spain, themselves already people of diverse genetic background, and the Indian inhabitants, both sedentary and nomadic, of the areas into which the Spaniards came.[17]

The Spanish-speaking people range from almost pure Spanish to pure Indian; however, Walter believes that they are "chiefly Indian by race."[18] Since the Spanish-speaking people of the Southwest are descendants of various Indian and European groups, and have lived in small groups for centuries, they have developed numerous sub-cultures and linguistic groups.

Although members of many different sub-cultures, the Spanish-speaking peoples have an unlimited number of cultural similarities. One such common cultural entity is the Catholic Church, but each village has a unique combination of Christianity and paganism in their religion. An example of these

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[16]Paul A. Walter, Race and Culture Relations, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1952), p. 327.

[17]Saunders, op. cit., p. 46.

[18]Walter, op. cit., p. 326.

pagan beliefs is the Bruja or witch, who commands both the malevolent and benevolent techniques of witchcraft, making her both sought after and feared. Saunders feels that the belief in magical powers is becoming less respectable, but that "there are few Spanish-speaking communities in the Southwest that do not include among their inhabitants one or more persons known to be witches."[19]

The geographical aspects of the Southwest has, until the last fifty years, seriously limited mobility of the settlers, which fostered a cultural tradition of the Spanish-Americans as:

> . . . . one in which individuals did not move around much either physically or socially. Individuals were born, grew up, and died in or near a single community, and the status of the family into which they were born was the status they held throughout their lifetime.[20]

This cultural tradition encouraged the Spanish-American to be "strongly oriented toward the present or the immediate past."[21] Very unlike the Spanish-American, the Anglo is primarily oriented toward the future and tends to be much preoccupied with time. This same tradition is the basis of the Spanish-speaking person's security. "Security and stability lay in the old, the familiar, and the well-tested ways and techniques. Uncertainty, and possibly danger,

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[19]Saunders, op. cit., p. 161.

[20]Ibid., p. 96.

[21]Ibid., p. 119.

came with the new, the unfamiliar, the untried."[22] The effect of their basis of stability is that:

> The present-day Spanish-speaking person, living in an Anglo world, may be handicapped in his efforts to understand and be understood by the persistence of attitudes toward progress and change which he inherited from the village. He may mistrust and fear the changing future into which the Anglo so buoyantly rushes. He may want to hold onto whatever he can of the old and familiar rather than pursue the new. He may be confused by the effort to adjust to a constant succession of new elements and fail to grasp the principle that it is the succession, the flow, that one must adjust to and not the elements that make up the stream.[23]

Another trait of the Spanish-speaking people is their acceptance of and resignation to many situations, which is not characteristic of the Anglo. In contrast to the Anglo, "the Spanish-speaking person . . . is likely to meet difficulties by adjusting to them rather than by attempting to overcome them."[24]

The majority of the Spanish-speaking people are bilingual. The Spanish-bilingual population is most numerous in the larger towns and cities where contact with the English Language is a daily occurence. Children and young adults use English or a combination of English and Spanish outside the home; however, they often do not understand the concepts which are represented by English verbal symbols. "Spanish

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[22]Saunders, op. cit., p. 124.

[23]Ibid., p. 124.

[24]Ibid., p. 129.

came with the new, the unfamiliar, the complicated.[22] The effect of their basis of security is seen:

> The present-day Spanish-speaking person, living in an Anglo world, may be handicapped in his efforts to understand and be understood by the persistence of attitudes toward progress and change which he inherited from the village. He may [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] future into which [illegible] [illegible] as to small changes. He may want to hold onto what he can of the old and familiar rather than venture the new. He may be confused by the effort to adjust to a simultaneous [illegible] of new elements and then to grasp the principles that lie in their succession, the time, [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] the elements that make up the whole.[23]

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[22] Saunders, *op. cit.*, p. 124.

[23] *Ibid.*, p. 131.

[24] *Ibid.*, p. 140.

is likely to be the language used in the home and in informal communication with relatives and friends."[25]

As a conclusion to the section in inter-cultural personality differences, the following comment seems quite appropriate:

> The attitude toward Anglos is likely to be a mixture of envy and resentment, envy of the Anglos' possession of material things and skills which the Spanish-Americans . . . have come to want but only rarely can have, and resentment at what seems to be a lack of acceptance of Spanish-Americans by Anglos . . . .[26]

II. SOCIO-ECONOMIC PERSONALITY DIFFERENCES

It is, at the present, beyond the skills and tools of the people involved in research to identify and measure, at one time, all the cause and effect relationships which mould the various facets of personality. Perhaps the most used technique, relative to this field of research, is one in which a "single" item is compared, as measured in two diverse groups, by scientific methods. In many, if not all, cases there are a number of fluid factors directly involved in a "single" item which are undetected or uncontrollable. This is certainly the case in the study of socio-economic factors and personality differences.

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[25] Saunders, op. cit., p. 82.

[26] Ibid., p. 82.

General socio-economic personality differences. The discussion of personality differences among socio-economic groups will be limited to a comparison between middle- and lower-class traits. Middle-class families are characterized by adequate fulfillment of their material needs and a rigid code of conduct; while "lower-class families, as understood in this country, are characterized by . . . material deprivation and low standards of conduct."[27]

Material deprivation breeds insecurity, which, in turn, breeds many anxieties for the lower-class member. The primary source of frustration is in the very basic needs of food and shelter. Honigmann has this to say regarding their basic needs:

> Slum people . . . face an uncertain food supply and become anxious about not getting enough to eat. This anxiety begins to develop shortly after the child's nursing period . . . .[28]
>
> The lower-class family's security about heat is on a day-to-day or week-to-week basis . . . .[29]

What appears to be "foolish" or extravagant spending on the part of the lower-class families is an attempted defense against anxiety. Honigmann feels that "The slum dweller's

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[27]Dai Bingham, "Some Problems of Personality Development Among Negro Children," Personality in Nature, Society, and Culture, Ed. Clyde Kluckhohn and Henry A. Murray, (New York: Knopf Publishing Company, 1956), p. 522.

[28]John J. Honigmann, Culture and Personality, (New York: Harper Publishing Company, 1954), p. 322.

[29]Ibid., p. 322.

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> Slum people . . . live in uncertain food supply and become anxious about not getting enough to eat. This anxiety begins to develop shortly after the child's weaning period . . . .[28]
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[27]Oral Hinkham, "Some Problems of Personality Development Among Some Children," Personality in Nature, Society, and Culture, ed. Clyde Kluckhohn and Henry A. Murray, (New York: Knopf Publishing Company, 1953), p. 382.

[28]John J. Hortgesang, Children and Personalities, (New York: Harper Publishing Company, 1963), p. 22.

[29]Ibid., p. 22.

spending for fur coats, expensive clothes for children, or new furniture represents an attempt to increase self-esteem and security."[30]

This material deprivation and extravagant spending which marks the lower-class society means that the child comes into more direct contact with the struggle for existence and is "alerted earlier to the realities with which they will have to cope."[31] A description of the lower-class boy by Hollingshead is as follows:

> From the age of 5 or 6 he is faced with the responsibility of looking out for himself in the neighborhood, in school, and around the community. By the time adolescence is reached he has assumed full control of himself and his activities. He earns his own money, makes his own choices, and believes that he is acting as a "free agent." Actually he does what he and his fellows have learned they must do if they are to play the roles appropriate for their age and class statuses. In his thoughts and actions, he is bolstered by his clique mates . . . as well as by older youths and adults in the social circles in which he moves. He insists upon absolute freedom in the spending of his money. If one tells him he is foolish to spend his money for old cars, flashy clothes, liquor, gambling, and sex, one will be told forcibly . . . "No one can tell me how I am going to spend my money. Did you earn it?" This insistence upon freedom to do what he desires brings him into conflict with the law with significantly greater frequency than the other classes. This situation, however, is accepted . . . as something he must expect for he has seen it happen with parents, relatives, and friends.[32]

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[30]Honigmann, op. cit., p. 323.

[31]Georgene Seward, Psychotherapy and Culture Conflict, (New York: Ronald Press, 1956), p. 182.

[32]August B. Hollingshead, "Family Background and Behavior," The Adolescent--A Book of Readings, ed. Jerome M. Seidman, (New York: Dryden Press, 1960), pp. 318-319.

The "low standards of conduct" with which the lower-class is characterized have been summarized by Havighurst and Taba as follows:

> Stealing is more apt to be over-looked or condoned. Church influence is absent or weak. The moral teaching of the school is not strongly reinforced by the home, and children of this class tend to drop out of school at an earlier age than children of other social classes. Lower-class children are taught to fight. They experience more open exhibition of aggression in their homes, where the father may beat the mother, the children are whipped frequently, and the child's own aggressive impulses are not much restrained by his parents.
>
> Similarly, lower-class children suffer less restraint on sex play and sex exploration than do middle-class children.[33]

> As a generalization it might be said that lower-class children have fewer and less rigid controls on the free play of their impulses . . . .[34]

Another reason lower-class people fall into the "low standards of conduct" group is the outcome of the children's relationship with the parents. Maas says that:

> Relations among peers in the lower-class groups are characterized by repeated obvious attempts at status seeking . . . . This pattern in the lower-class groups may be traced to the increasing distance lower-class boys and girls in growing up have attained from adults; earlier on their own . . . they seem to have gotten out of communication with adults. Physical aggression in their homes, when parents are at home together with their pre- and early adolescent children, continues to assure them the adult is boss. Personal relationships are seen in a hierarchial framework, definitely non-equalitarian and non-collaborative, and the power struggle between

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[33]Robert J. Havighurst and Hilda Taba, Adolescent Character and Personality, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1949), p. 33.

[34]Ibid., p. 34.

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[33] Robert J. Havighurst and Hilda Taba, Adolescent Character and Personality, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1949), p. 52.

[34] Ibid., p. 54.

> adults and early adolescents carries over into the youth groups, with much hostility, overt, covert, and smothered.[35]

Honigmann adds to the understanding of lower-class adolescent personality in his statements that the parent-child relationship leads children to "more often fear their parents" and "more often feel they are rejected and unworthy."[36]

The lower-class standards of conduct are most apparent in the school situation, where differences in parental attitudes are reflected in social behavior and educational performance. Seward, in reference to parental attitudes, says that:

> . . . the chief concern of the lower class is the present. The aspiration level has been lowered to meet the realities of the lower achievement ceiling . . . . One may as well make the most of the moment and let the future take care of itself.[37]

Writing specifically about education, she states that "Parental aspirations seem to decline as one goes down the social ladder."[38] A similar thought as pointed out by Honigmann is that "Lower- compared to middle-class parents do not give children very much direction and guidance in school work . . . ."[39] Even if the lower-class parent

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[35]Harry S. Maas, "A Study of Group Life in Human Development," Human Development Bulletin, (4, 1951b), p. 12.

[36]Honigmann, op. cit., p. 324.

[37]Seward, op. cit., p. 84.

[38]Ibid., p. 85.

[39]Honigmann, op. cit., p. 331.

supports the school or middle-class values, the child is not likely to conform to these standards. This phenomenon is explained by Havighurst and Taba as follows:

> . . . almost all families of low social status, the value of an education and other factors stressed in the school environment are not impressed upon children in their immediate daily life. Even if the parents do stress these values verbally, it is more difficult for their children to see their significance and thus more difficult for them to accept.[40]

Davis and Dollard, speaking of the lower-class adolescent boy, said that:

> . . . the long-range goals do not seem to be "there" in his world; he does not see other people in his class attaining them, or practicing the behavior required of him, and he feels his parents and teachers are "crazy" when they demand it of him . . . .[41]

Clubs are quite similar to schools in their reflection of social attitudes. In the first place, there is a definite distinction between the clubs to which the middle- and lower-class child belong. The middle-class child will belong to such groups as Scouts, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., or Camp Fire Girls; whereas, the lower-class child will belong, mainly, to groups organized by the Settlement House. Maas found that:

> In slum area clubs, the adult leader would seem to be a more significant figure to members than in middle-class neighborhood centers where adolescent members

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[40]Havighurst and Taba, op. cit., p. 53.

[41]Allison Davis and John Dollard, "Children of Bondage; the Personality Development of the Negro Youth in the Urban South" (American Youth Commission; Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1940) p.

ostensibly have less need for interaction with the adult.

The role of member among middle-class adolescents apparently sanctions less aggression and digression in member-to-member interactions than does the comparable role among lower-class adolescents.[42]

Seward feels that "these institutions reinforce the ways of behaving and believing of their respective social levels."[43]

A review of the differences and their causes is helpful when studying personalities in groups, but it does not explain the individual personalities of the group members. It is, therefore, appropriate to examine the types of personalities most numerous in the various socio-economic groups. Havighurst and Taba mention five major types of personalities--the self-directive, the adaptive, the submissive, the defiant, and the unadjusted--all of which are somewhat self-explanatory. These authors found that:

> The Self-Directive persons who come from lower social classes differ from those in the upper-middle class . . . . They are more conventional in their behavior and more subservient to powerful people in the school and community who can help them get ahead.[44]
>
> . . . Submissive persons tend to come from the lower-middle and upper-lower classes. . . .[45]
>
> . . . the Adaptive persons come from all social classes. Possibly the lower classes will have relatively fewer of this type in a social environment dominated by the

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[42]Henry S. Maas, "The Role of Members in Clubs of Lower-Class and Middle-Class Adolescents," The Adolescent--A Book of Readings, ed. Jerome M. Seidman, (New York: Dryden Press, 1960), p. 303.

[43]Seward, op. cit., p. 84.

[44]Havighurst and Taba, op. cit., p. 133.

[45]Ibid., p. 157.

ostensibly have less due to intersection with the adult.

The role of teacher among middle-class adolescents apparently assumes less a prestige and difference in teacher-to-member interaction than does the comparable role among lower-class adolescents.[42]

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A review of the differences and their causes is helpful when studying personalities in groups, but it does not explain the individual personalities of the group members. It is, therefore, appropriate to examine the types of personalities most numerous in the various socio-economic groups. Davighurst and Taba recently give major types of personalities--the self-directive, the adaptive, the submissive, the defiant, and the unadjusted--all of which are somewhat self-explanatory. These authors found that:

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[42]Henry S. Maas, "The Role of Teachers in Clubs of Lower-Class and Middle-Class Adolescents," The Adolescent--A Book of Readings, ed. Jerome M. Seidman, (New York: Dryden Press, 1960), p. 502.

[43]Seward, op. cit., p. 61.

[44]Davighurst and Taba, op. cit., p. 180.

[45]Ibid., p. 184.

> middle classes, because of a number of potential adaptive persons from lower classes will suffer from social discrimination and thus will move into the Unadjusted group.[46]
>
> The Unadjusted person came overwhelmingly . . . from the upper-lower class . . . .[47]

Although Havighurst and Taba do not make a definite statement as to what class or classes contain the greater percentage of defiant personalities, their definition of a defiant person would, in light of the studies of lower-class behavior patterns, lead us to believe that the majority of them are from the lower-classes. Their definition is that:

> The Defiant person is openly hostile to society. He shows his hostility by doing poor school work, refusing to conform to social expectations, and sometimes by attacks upon property which land him in jail. Because he has been neglected or mistreated by society he bears a never-ending grudge . . . .[48]

The review of personality differences and their causes for the various classes explains, sometimes indirectly, why persons from the lower-class have poorer social and emotional adjustment in comparison with members of the middle-class. The reasons for this lower level of adjustment is put in concrete terms by Seward, who says:

> . . . the poorer emotional and social adjustment consistently reported for subjects from the lower-

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[46]Havighurst and Taba, op. cit., p. 145.

[47]Ibid., p. 175.

[48]Ibid., p. 158.

> income brackets is a reactive phenomenon, having its roots in the conflicts induced by the cultural discontinuities and privations to which these persons are exposed.[49]

The lower-class person appears more impulsive than middle-class standards sanction, because as a child he is not required to suppress the expression of his needs and feelings. Seward suggests that the lower-class person is likely to beat his wife, in contrast to the middle-class husband's "mental cruelty."[50] In view of the lower-class person's freedom to express his feelings, it is not surprising to find the workingman laughing and having a good time when the middle-class person would be quite concerned if faced with similar situations.

Spanish socio-economic personality differences. Since the Spanish-speaking peoples settled in distinct portions of larger cities or in separate communities, it is expedient to examine the social conditions which prevail in these areas. The distinctly Spanish portions of a city usually occupies the least desirable residential area of the community. These areas show less planning than the community as a whole--the streets are likely to be narrow, crooked and unpaved; while residential buildings are constructed in a haphazard manner or are extremely old.

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[49]Seward, op. cit., p. 87.

[50]Ibid., p. 85.

Many homes are without sewer connections or running water. Besides these disadvantages, the home is usually overcrowded, and may include several families in one or two rooms.

Members of these communities are usually several generation descendants of the founders of the community; however, in some areas, the communities are composed largely of former villagers who have moved into the cities and migrant workers.[51] Contact with the Anglo cultures has led these Spanish-Americans to take on many Anglo characteristics, but they "still cling to some of the values and customs of the old culture."[52] One such value is the ". . . Spanish-speaking ideal . . . to be rather than to do."[53] The Anglo is known for what he does--he is a painter, a teacher, a lawyer--and he takes great pride in his work; while the Spanish-speaking person would much prefer to be recognized as an individual, rather than by something he has accomplished. For this reason, the Spanish-speaking person has little drive to attempt special training that would place him in a higher income group than his unskilled or semi-skilled type of job provides. In the stable Spanish communities the married woman usually does not work outside

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[51]Saunders, op. cit., p. 81.

[52]Ibid., p. 82.

[53]Ibid., p. 126.

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[51]Saunders, op. cit., p. 81.

[52]Ibid., p. 32.

[53]Ibid., p. 124.

the home, although she may, at times, do some domestic service or other low paying job. The woman in the migrant worker community is likely to be found working with her husband and children in the fields.[54]

The Spanish-Americans who do integrate into the larger Anglo population lose their cultural background very rapidly. Arsenian explains that:

> . . . the more well-to-do and socially more advanced people seem to relinquish their foreign language background more quickly, while economically and socially less fortunate people adhere more tenaciously to their older language background and to the traditions and literature expressed in that language . . . .[55]

It would seem that the majority of the Spanish-speaking people are, by Anglo standards, going in a vicious circle, since the economically and socially deprived cling to their older culture, and the more they cling to this culture, the more severe their deprivation becomes.

One of the major differences between the Anglo culture and Spanish culture is the high degree of organization, based on their concern for the future, achieved by the Anglo culture; while the Spanish-Americans have little understanding of formal organization. In many cases, the Spanish-speaking person feels little or no need for a leader, and has "little orientation toward a type of leadership based on personal, individual characteristics, and

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[54]Saunders, op. cit., p. 82.

[55]Arsenian, op. cit., p. 81.

almost no tradition of responding to leadership of this type."[56]

Another major difference is the Anglo's value of independence and dislike or distrust of the dependent state, while the Spanish-American feels that the dependent state is only natural. Saunders explains that the Anglo who accepts help from another individual or an agency does so reluctantly and feels obligated to become independent at the earliest possible time. Conversely, the Spanish-speaking individual who accepts help from another individual or an agency feels that this is the proper functioning of society and that he is under no obligation to that person or agency or society in general.[57]

From this description of the socio-economic state of the Spanish-speaking people, it would appear that they would be classified as members of the lower-class and would share the majority of the characteristics and feelings of this class. However, it must be remembered that the Spanish-speaking people have a very distinct culture which is, in certain ways, unlike any other culture.

III. SEX DIFFERENCES IN PERSONALITY

The existence of sex differences in rate of maturation,

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[56]Saunders, op. cit., p. 137.

[57]Ibid., p. 135.

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[56]Saunders, op. cit., p. 137.

[57]Ibid., p. 135.

interests and rate of educational growth have been conclusively established. These sex differences alone would lead to the conclusion that there are some sex differences in personality, but they do not help identify these differences. Fortunately, there has been some research in this field, a sampling of which will be mentioned herein.

General sex differences in personality. Studies of the sex differences in personality deal largely with general personality rather than specifics. Examples of this phenomenon are as follows: McGranaham's findings, indicating that girls tend more to reflect the typical national pattern, while boys tend to deviate from it;[58] Tait's results which reveal that girls are slightly more tolerant than boys;[59] and Tyler's suggestions that girls tend to be more neurotic and that boys tend to be more aggressive.[60]

Terman and Miles found that boys express more hardihood and fearlessness, and more roughness in mannerisms; while girls express themselves as more compassionate, sympathetic, timid, fastidious, severer moralists, and

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[58]Donald V. McGranaham, "A Comparison of Social Attitudes Among American and German Youth," The Adolescent--A Book of Readings, ed. Jerome M. Seidman, (New York: Dryden Press 1960), p. 31.

[59]Tait, op. cit., p. 52.

[60]Leona E. Tyler, The Psychology of Human Differences, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956), p. 262.

weaker in emotional control.[61] A similar view is expressed by Parsons, who says:

> It seems to be a definite fact that girls are more apt to be relatively docile, to conform in general according to adult expectations, to be "good", whereas boys are more apt to be recalcitrant to discipline and defiant of adult authority and expectations. . . .[62]

Lightfoot is one of the few authors who deals with specific factors. In a study of the personality differences of bright and dull children, she compared the sex differences on the "Forty Attributes of Personality". The intelligence quotients of her dull group ranged from 68 to 104, with a median of 88. Since this group closely resembles the group represented in this study, it would seem fitting to examine her results. The girls were found to be significantly, at the .05 level, more impolite and cliquish than the boys. The boys were significantly, at the .05 level, more cooperative, had more sympathy for friends, kinder, more able to make friends, more gregarious, more sympathetic toward those who were not friends, more protective, generally more generous, and more clothes-

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[61] L. M. Terman and C. C. Miles, Sex and Personality: Studies in Masculinity and Femininity, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1936), p. 447.

[62] Talcott Parson, "Age and Sex in the Social Structure of the United States," Personality in Nature, Society, and Culture, ed. Clyde Kluckhohn and Henry A. Murray, (New York: Knopf Publishing Co., 1956), p. 364.

weaker in emotional control.[81] A similar view is expressed by Parsons, who says:

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Lippitoor is one of the few authors who deals with specific factors. In a study of the personality differences of bright and dull children, she compared the sex differences on the "Guess Attributes of Personality". The intelligence quotients of her dull group ranged from 62 to 104, with a median of 85. Since this group closely resembles the group represented in this study, it would seem fitting to examine her results. The girls were found to be significantly, at the .05 level, more impolite and oilcloth than the boys. The boys were significantly, at the .05 level, more cooperative, had more sympathy for friends, kinder, more able to make friends, more preparations, more sympathetic toward those who were not friends, more protective, generally more generous, and more clothes-

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[81] L. M. Terman and G. C. Miles, Sex and Personality: Studies in Masculinity and Femininity. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1936), p. 447.

[82] Talcott Parsons, "Age and Sex in the Social Structure of the United States," Personality in Nature, Society, and Culture, ed. Clyde Kluckhohn and Henry A. Murray, (New York: Knopf Publishing Co., 1953), p. 326.

appearance conscious, than were the girls.[63]

Spanish sex differences in personality. There is no research concerning Spanish sex differences in personality; however, a look at the research in Spanish culture might suggest some possible differences. One such difference would be the somewhat more passive attitude of the woman, a suggestion drawn from the fact that very few Spanish women work outside the home. It might be possible to draw several conclusions as to Spanish sex differences in personality, but it would be much more helpful to "scientifically" discover these differences.

IV. INTELLECTUAL DIFFERENCES IN PERSONALITY

The laity and sometimes members of the educational profession often hold stereotyped misconceptions about bright and dull students. Research has minimized these misconceptions; however, it is a tendency of our culture to try to equate the bright and the dull by finding something "wrong" with the bright child and, conversely, a special talent or trait in the dull child. Numerous enlightening studies have been completed in the general field of intelligence and what may be expected of people in the various intellectual categories, but there is a dearth of studies pertaining to

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[63]Georgia Frances Lightfoot, Personality Characteristics of Bright and Dull Children, (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951), p. 105.

appearance consultants, than does the [illegible].[60]

Spanish sex differences in personality. There is no research concerning Spanish sex differences in personality; however, a look at the American male-female differences might suggest some possible differences. One such difference would be the somewhat more passive attitude of the female, a suggestion drawn from the fact that very few women are ever seen outside the home. [illegible] it is possible to draw several conclusions as to Spanish sex differences in personality, [illegible] it would be good, more [illegible] to [illegible] discover these differences.

IV. [illegible] PERSONALITY

The laity and sometimes [illegible] of the educational profession often hold stereotyped misconceptions about bright and dull students. Research has minimized these misconceptions; however, it is a tendency of some educators to try to equate the bright and the dull by finding something 'wrong' with the bright child and, conversely, a 'good' talent or trait in the dull child. Numerous comparative studies have been compiled in the literature of bright and dull, and while any be detected slight [illegible] in favor of the intellectual superiorities, but there is no [illegible] of [illegible].

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[60] [illegible], "[illegible]," [illegible] Characteristics of [illegible] and [illegible] ([illegible] Publications, [illegible], Columbia University, 1931), p. 103.

personality characteristics of the several intelligence groups.

General intellectual differences in personality. Personality refers to the manner and effectiveness with which the whole individual meets his personal and social problems and, indirectly, the manner in which he adjusts to the school's expectations. Havighurst and Taba feel that academic grades are a direct measure of the success with which the adolescent is adjusting to the demands of the school.[64] They seem to imply that personality is reflected in school adjustment which is supposedly measured by school grades. Although most educators will agree with this philosophy in its broadest sense, it has yet to be proven in scientific research.

The most extensive and recent research in personality characteristics of bright and dull children is the previously mentioned study by Lightfoot. Again, because of the intellectual similarity between her dull group and the group represented in this study, only the results for the dull group will be presented.

Lightfoot found that a selected set of judges rated the dull children, on the basis of the Maller Sketches, significantly higher in Deference, Dependence and Rejection,

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[64]Havighurst and Taba, op. cit., p. 54.

and significantly lower in Achievement, Affiliation, Autonomy, Cognizance, Creativity, Dominance, and Protectiveness. Using a rating scale designed to measure the Twenty Variables on which the study was based, these same judges rated Deference, Dependence and Placidity as characteristic in a higher degree for the dull children. Those items rated as significantly lower for the dull children were Achievement, Affiliation, Aggression, Appearance, Autonomy, Cognizance, Creativity, Dominance, Play and Recognition.[65]

Another group of seventeen raters who knew and worked with the sample population rated the students on the forty attributes of Personality. Lightfoot, in applying the "t" test to the difference between the means as computed from the seventeen raters, found that the dull group possessed Self-Distrust, Physical Timidity, Dependence, and Deference in a significantly greater degree. Using the same methods, she found that the dull group possessed the following traits in a significantly lesser degree: Ability to Make Friends, Leadership, Achievement, Rivalry, Concentration, Initiates Social Activity, Zest, Sympathy for Friends, Dominance, Sympathy for Members of Group Not Close Friends, Self-Confidence, Creativity, Curiosity, Courage, Self-Defense, Playful, Appearance: Physique, and Appearance: Clothing.[66]

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[65]Lightfoot, op. cit., pp. 58-59.

[66]Ibid., p. 79.

Spanish intellectual differences in personality. There is a complete absence of studies dealing with Spanish and English intellectual differences in personality, but there are a few studies in the individual fields of intelligence, education and bilingualism that suggest some of the problems concerned with this study.

The major problem is pointed out by Arsenian as follows:

> Bilingualism is not of a single kind, uniform in its appearance and its results for the individual always and everywhere. The social and psychological conditions accompanying bilingualism and varying from place to place influence most probably its results. . . .[67]

This problem is complicated by the findings of Keston and Jimenez in their study of the performance of Spanish children on English and Spanish editions of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test. They reported that:

> Almost all of the children required more time to think of an answer in Spanish than in English. Usually, responses given in the Spanish test were expressed in English, indicating that they understood what was being said, but their immediate reaction was to answer in English. This was especially true in the more difficult questions when the children were completely absorbed in thought.[68]

Sanchez, in studying the education of Spanish bilinguals,

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[67]Arsenian, op. cit., p. 51.

[68]Morton J. Keston and Carmina Jimenez, "A Study of the Performance on English and Spanish Editions of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test by Spanish American Children," Journal of Genetic Psychology, (85, 1954), p. 266.

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This problem is complicated by the studies of Darlington and Linemar in their study of the performance of Spanish children on English and Spanish editions of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test. They reported that:

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Sanchez, in studying the education of Spanish bilinguals,

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[27] Arsenian, op. cit., p. 31.

[28] Darton L. Darlington and Carmen Linemar, "A Study of the Performance on English and Spanish Editions of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test by Spanish American Children," Journal of Genetic Psychology, (Dec. 1944), p. 39.

concludes that "Where the educational need may be deemed to be the greatest, the schools have done the least to meet those needs."[69] He bases this conclusion on the fact that achievement varies negatively with the proportion of the enrollment that is Spanish. He continues to say that "If it may be assumed, as it well may, that bilingual children are handicapped in the schools by language, cultural, and socio-economic differences, then this additional drawback caps a pyramid of handicaps that militate against an impartial evaluation of their capacity."[70]

Two other hints concerning the study of bilingual and unilingual personality differences are pertinent. The first is one pointed out by Saunders in his description of the Spanish community. It is:

> The schools lose more children by drop-out. Attendance is less regular. A smaller proportion of the children finish elementary school and enter junior and senior high schools.[71]

The second is a general conclusion, drawn by Sanchez, "that the lack of school-pupil adjustment measured by the unfavorable age-grade status of school children in New Mexico is largely a reflection of inferior educational provisions."[72]

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[69] George I. Sanchez, "The Education of Bilinguals in a State School System" (unpublished doctorate dissertation, The University of California, Berkley , 1934), p. 103.

[70] Ibid., p. 103.

[71] Saunders, op. cit., p. 69.

[72] Sanchez, op. cit., p. 102.

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[69] George I. Sanchez, "The Education of Children in a State School System" (unpublished doctorate dissertation, The University of California, Berkeley , 1934), p. 102.

[70] Ibid., p. 103.

[71] Saunders, op. cit., p. 89.

[72] Sanchez, op. cit., p. 102.

V. CONCLUSIONS

It is to be concluded that there are no studies specifically designed to study the differences in personality between unilingual and Spanish bilingual students from a given socio-economic group. In approaching the above described study it is extremely important to realize that there are a number of fluid factors which cannot always be controlled, but that must be considered at all times.

CHAPTER III

METHOD OF THE STUDY

The data for this study were compiled from the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests and the California Psychological Inventory administered to the ninth grade students at Lincoln Junior High School in Albuquerque, New Mexico.

I. DESCRIPTION OF THE POPULATION

The total number of subjects used in this investigation consisted of forty-one bilingual boys, seven unilingual boys, thirty-five bilingual girls, and eight unilingual girls. These ninety-one subjects were selected from a larger population on an arbitrary basis which the investigators felt would insure the selection of a random sample. The total intelligence quotient scores for all ninth grade students at Lincoln Junior High School were arranged in a frequency distribution. The research team* then selected every third child which made a total of seventy-eight students. Since the research team had established a minimum desirable sample size of one hundred, it was then convenient to select every even numbered pupil from the remaining names on the frequency distribution. The total sample consisted of one hundred

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*This research team was composed of Dr. David Segel and Mr. Ron Ruble of the Albuquerque Public Schools. (See Appendix A).

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forty-one ninth grade students. One further criterion of certain test scores was required of all students in the sample group. Thus the size of the experimental group was reduced to ninety-one subjects.

Since the primary purpose of this study was to investigate the personality differences of unilingual and bilingual students in a depressed area, it was necessary to divide the sample population into groups. This division (for more information see Appendix A) was made on the basis of data gathered in home calls made by the research team.

II. PROCEDURE

The procedure followed in the collection of the data for this study was in strict accordance with the manuals of directions and selected scientifically acceptable methods. Those persons handling the collection and manipulation of the data were all skilled in their particular phase of the work.

Administration of the tests. The tests were administered in January, 1960 to the entire ninth grade population at Lincoln Junior High School in a large all-purpose room. All instructions were given orally by a specialist in testing and an adequate number of proctors were available for consultation. At the beginning of the first testing session, the subjects were told that they would receive a series of tests. It was explained that the tests were to provide more information about the students, but that the results would

not be made known to their teachers and would in no way affect their school work or grades.

Scoring of the tests. Re-usable editions of the tests with separate machine scoring answer sheets were used in administering the tests. A preliminary scanning of the papers was accomplished in order to eliminate, from machine scoring, those answer sheets with double answers, stray marks, or "X'es." Those answer sheets eliminated from machine scoring were scored by hand. On the California Psychological Inventory, scores obtained on the reverse side of the answer sheet were transferred to the front of the answer sheet and added to the corresponding scores as per instructions.

III. THE LORGE-THORNDIKE INTELLIGENCE TESTS

Level 4, which is recommended for use in grades eight to ten in low socio-economic communities, of the Lorge-Thorndike Verbal and Nonverbal Intelligence Tests were administered.

The Lorge-Thorndike Verbal Intelligence Test

The Lorge-Thorndike Verbal Intelligence Test, Form A, was developed by Irving Lorge and Robert L. Thorndike and is published by Houghton Mifflin Company of Boston. It consists of 95 items, of conventional verbal design, to measure ability

to do typical classroom assignments; therefore, it is a valid index of scholastic aptitude.[73]

Norms for the Lorge-Thorndike Verbal Intelligence Test. The norms for this test are based on socio-economic levels with the selection of communities for the normative population being made on a combination of factors secured from the 1950 census data. These communities were classified into five socio-economic levels, and each type or level of community was represented in the norm group in the same proportion as it was found in the country as a whole. This norm group consisted of over 136,000 children.[74]

Reliability of the Verbal Battery. Reliability of this test is interpreted on the basis of the standard error of a score. The standard error of a score was computed by the test-retest method and averages from 4.4 to 7.8 I.Q. points for the various test levels.[75]

Validity of the Verbal Battery. The majority of test items deal with relationships in that the pupil is required to find a principle and then apply it. Therefore, three

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[73] Irving Lorge and Robert L. Thorndike, Examiner's Manual, The Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1957), p. 13.

[74] Ibid., p. 14.

[75] Loc. cit.

other well known group tests of intelligence, which are based on this same principle, were administered in conjunction with the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests. From these, correlation coefficients of .77, .79 and .84 were obtained.[76]

The Lorge-Thorndike Nonverbal Intelligence Test

The Lorge-Thorndike Nonverbal Intelligence Test, Form A, consists of 83 items which are pictoral or numerical. It was designed to measure scholastic aptitude which has not been negatively influenced by reading difficulties; however, it does not predict school achievement as accurately as the Lorge-Thorndike Verbal Intelligence Test. Norms for the Nonverbal Battery were obtained in the same way and at the same time as the Verbal Battery norms.[77]

Reliability of the Nonverbal Battery. The Examiner's Manual for the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests does not mention reliability coefficients for the Nonverbal Battery, but it leaves the impression that reliability coefficients have been computed in the form of standard errors of scores.[78]

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[76] Lorge and Thorndike, op. cit., p. 14.

[77] Ibid., pp. 13-14.

[78] Loc. cit.

other well known [illegible] of [illegible], which were based on this same premiss, were [illegible] in conjunction with the Lorenz-Dirac-Abraham-Dirac theory. From these, computation [illegible] were obtained.[76]

The Lorenz-Abraham-Dirac [illegible] Initial Theory Test

The Lorenz-Abraham-Dirac [illegible] Initial Theory Test, from A, consists of [illegible] which [illegible] was designed to [illegible] whether the [illegible] has not been negatively influenced by [illegible] Initial Theory; however, it does not [illegible] [illegible] the Lorenz-Abraham-Dirac [illegible] Initial Theory test. [illegible] Corrections [illegible] were based [illegible] on the [illegible] theory.

Relativity of the Lorenz-Abraham-Dirac Theory

Lorenz [illegible] the Lorenz-Abraham-Dirac [illegible] [illegible] mention [illegible] [illegible] but it is [illegible] [illegible] have been [illegible] [illegible]

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[76] Lorentz and Abraham, op. cit., p. 14.

[77] Ibid., pp. 12-20.

[78] Loc. cit.

Validity of the Nonverbal Battery. The Lorge-Thorndike Nonverbal Intelligence Test was evaluated by correlating it with other widely used group intelligence tests which were similar in nature. Correlation coefficients of .65, .71 and .74 were obtained by this method.[79]

IV. THE CALIFORNIA PSYCHOLOGICAL INVENTORY

The California Psychological Inventory was developed for use with normal subjects in schools, business and industry. It is billed, by various authors, as a practical, accurate, and dependable means of measurement and identification of personality differences that are encountered in every day life.

General Description of the California Psychological Inventory

The California Psychological Inventory was developed, over a period of time, as individual scales by Harrison G. Gough. In 1957 these scales, eighteen in number, were copywrited under the title California Psychological Inventory and published by the Consulting Psychologists Press, Incorporated.

Reliability of the California Psychological Inventory. Correlation coefficients were computed on the basis of the test-retest method with high school females, high school

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[79]Lorge and Thorndike, op. cit., p. 14.

Validity of the Conversational Technique. The Reports Concerning Interpersonal Behaviors Were then evaluated for correlation with other widely used groups [illegible] measures of similar in nature. Correlation coefficients of [illegible] .74 were obtained by this method.

IV. THE CALIFORNIA PSYCHOTHERAPY [illegible]

The California Psychological Inventory was designed for use with normal subjects in such [illegible] by. It is utilized, by various [illegible], [illegible] accurate, and dependable means of measurement of classification of personality dimensions that are [illegible] in everyday life.

General Description of the California Psychological Inventory

The California Psychological Inventory was developed over a period of time, as individual [illegible] Gough. In 1957 three scales, [illegible], were combined under the title California Psychological Inventory and published by the Consulting Psychologists Press, Incorporated.

Reliability of the California Psychological Inventory. Correlation coefficients were [illegible] the [illegible] test-retest method with [illegible] [illegible]

[illegible] and [illegible], op. cit., p. [illegible].

males and prison males serving as subjects. On the various scales high school females ranged from .44 to .73; high school males ranged from .38 to .75; and the prison males ranged from .49 to .87. In testing these subjects parts of the scales were given orally and the remainder read silently by the subjects. On the retest this procedure was reversed; however, the oral administration did not reveal any measurable differences.[80]

Validity of the California Psychological Inventory. Each scale is an entity in itself and, therefore, the estimation of validity must be accomplished by methods applicable to the specific scale. For this reason, the numercus validity studies will not be presented herein. The Manual for the California Psychological Inventory contains brief summaries of selected studies and a bibliography of articles and reports.

Description of the California Psychological Inventory Scales

As previously mentioned, the California Psychological Inventory is composed of eighteen separately designed scales. These scales are grouped into four broad categories emphasizing the clusterings which exist. They are: Class I. Measures of Poise, Ascendancy, and Self-Assurance; Class II.

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[80]Harrison G. Gough, California Psychological Inventory Manual, (Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press, Incorporated, 1957), p. 22.

Measures of Socialization, Maturity, and Responsibility; Class III. Measures of Achievement Potential and Intellectual Efficiency; and Class IV. Measures of Intellectual and Interest Modes. Class I. includes the scales for Dominance, Capacity for Status, Sociability, Social Presence, Self-acceptance, and Sense of Well-being; while Responsibility, Socialization, Self-control, Tolerance, Good Impression, and Communality are the scales included in Class II. Class III. is composed of the scales for Achievement via conformance, Achievement via independence, and Intellectual efficiency; and Class IV. contains the Psychological-mindedness, Flexibility, and Femininity scales.[81]

The Dominance Scale. The Dominance Scale was developed to measure leadership ability, social initiative, persistence, and dominance. Gough suggests that those scoring high on this scale tend to be aggressive, confident, persistent, and planful; persuasive, and verbally fluent; and self-reliant and independent. Those who score low on this scale are seen as slow, inhibited, silent, indifferent, and lacking in self-confidence.[82]

The Capacity for Status Scale. Personal qualities and attributes which underlie and lead to status are measured

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[81] Gough, op. cit., p. 7.

[82] Ibid., p. 12.

by the Capacity for Status Scale. In this index of an individual's capacity for status, those who score high are usually characterized by their excellent ability to communicate, wide range of interests, resourcefulness, and ability to adapt. The low scoring person is inclined to be stereotyped in his thinking, uncomfortable in new situations, restricted in interests, and simple or slow.[83]

The Sociability Scale. The Sociability Scale was devised to identify the outgoing, sociable, participative person. A high score usually identifies a person who is inclined to be gregarious, competitive, and versatile in thought and actions; while a low score is typical of those who are passive in attitude, introverted, and overly influenced by others.[84]

The Social Presence Scale. The purpose of the Social Presence Scale is to assess factors of poise, spontaneity, and self-confidence in personal and social interaction; therefore, a high score indicates enthusiasm, cleverness, expressiveness, and spontaneity. The person who is unoriginal in thought, uncertain in decision, deliberate, and self-restrained tends to score low on the Social Presence Scale.[85]

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[83] Gough, op. cit., p. 12.

[84] Loc. cit.

[85] Loc. cit.

The Self-acceptance Scale. Personal worth, self-acceptance, and capacity for independent thinking and action are the factors rated by the Self-acceptance Scale. Gough found that the high score usually represented an intelligent, aggressive, persuasive, self-centered, self-confident, and self-assured person; whereas the low score describes a person disposed to self-abasing, self-blame, dependability, passiveness, and methodicalness.[86]

The Sense of Well-being Scale. The Sense of Well-being Scale identifies persons who minimize their complaints and worries, and who are relatively free from self-doubt and disillusionment. The person who is productive, enterprising, ambitious, and values work for its own sake will score high on this scale; but the person who is unambitious, conventional, apologetic, defensive, and restricted in thought and action will usually score low on the Sense of Well-being Scale.[87]

The Responsibility Scale. Those who are conscientious, responsible, and dependable in disposition and temperament are identified by the Responsibility Scale. The responsible person tends to score high and is alert, planful, capable, independent, thorough, and progressive. In contrast, the irresponsible person scores low and is characterized by

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[86] Gough, op. cit., p. 12.

[87] Loc. cit.

immaturity, personal bias, impulsiveness, and moodiness.[88]

The Socialization Scale. The aim of the Socialization Scale is to measure the degree of social maturity, integrity, and rectitude which a person has attained. A high score indicates that the person in question is conscientious, industrious, honest, obliging, sincere, and self-denying; while a low score usually depicts a demanding, stubborn, resentful, rebellious, and undependable person.[89]

The Self-control Scale. Assessment of the degree of self-control and self-regulation and freedom from self-centeredness are the purposes of the Self-control Scale. A high score suggests that the individual is thoughtful, self-denying, calm, patient, honest, and thorough. In comparison, the low scoring person is generally seen as overemphasizing personal pleasure and self-gain, impulsive, uninhibited, and self-centered.[90]

The Tolerance Scale. The Tolerance Scale contains items designed to identify persons with permissive, accepting, and non-judgemental attitudes. The prejudiced student has a propensity to lack poise and self-assurance; to be discontented with his current status; to have a hostile and

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[88] Gough, op. cit., p. 12.

[89] Loc.cit.

[90] Loc. cit.

bitter outlook ramified into destructiveness; and to doubt, resent, and dislike others; and ordinarily, will receive a low score.[91] The tolerant student is inclined to score rather high on the Tolerance Scale, and is characterized by verbal fluency, a wide range of interests, above average intellectual ability, and resourcefulness.[92]

The Good Impression Scale. Those who are capable of creating a favorable impression, and who are concerned about how others react to them are identified by the Good Impression Scale. The person who is capable of a good impression is usually a high scorer and appears to be co-operative, helpful, outgoing, and persistent. The low scorer is cautious, aloof, resentful, self-centered, and inhibited; and normally does not create a favorable impression.[93]

The Communality Scale. The degree to which an individual's reactions and responses correspond to the modal pattern established for the California Personality Inventory is indicated on the Communality Scale. A high score signifies a high degree of correspondence to the modal pattern; while a low score intimates a low degree of correspondence

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[91]Harrison G. Gough, "Studies of Social Intolerance: II, A Personality Scale for Anti-Semitism," Journal of Social Psychology, (33, 1951), pp. 252-253.

[92]Gough, California Psychological Inventory Manual, p. 12.

[93]Gough, California Psychological Inventory Manual, p. 12.

to the modal pattern. Dependability, tactfulness, reliability, sincerity, and realisticness are typical traits of a high scorer. The low scorers tend to be seen as changeable, disorderly, confused, nervous, and complicated.[94]

The Achievement Via Conformance Scale. The Achievement Via Conformance Scale is directed towards those factors of interest and motivation which facilitate achievement in any setting where adaptation is a positive behavior. On this scale, the high scorer is described as capable, cooperative, organized, responsible, and as valuing intellectual activity and achievement. A person who is opinionated, disorganized, insecure, and pessimistic about his occupational future tends to score lower on the Achievement Via Conformance Scale.[95]

The Achievement Via Independence Scale. The Achievement Via Independence Scale was developed to identify those factors of interest and motivation which facilitate achievement in any instance where independence is a positive behavior. The personality features, of those who are high scorers, include maturity, foresightedness, self-reliantness, force-

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[94]Gough, California Psychological Inventory Manual, p. 12.

[95]Loc. cit.

fulness, and superior intellectual ability. People who score low are usually dull, submissive, inhibited, and lacking in self-insight and self-understanding; and are unable to reach a high rate of achievement.[96]

The Intellectual Efficiency Scale. The degree of personal and intellectual efficiency which the individual has attained is measured by the Intellectual Efficiency Scale. The intellectually efficient person tends to score high and is considered clear-thinking, capable, planful, thorough, resourceful, and progressive. Conversely, the intellectually inefficient person tends to score low and is cautious, confused, unambitious, stereotyped in thinking, and lacking in self-direction and self-discipline.[97]

The Psychological-mindedness Scale. The amount of interest in, and responsiveness to, the needs, motives, and experiences of others by an individual is determined by the Psychological-mindedness Scale. A high score usually represents a perceptive, spontaneous, observant, resourceful, and talkative person. For the low scorers, the tendancy is to be unassuming, cautious, serious, and peaceable.[98]

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[96]Gough, California Psychological Inventory Manual, p. 13.

[97]Harrison G. Gough, "A Nonintellectual Intelligence Test," Journal of Consulting Psychology, (17, 1953), p. 246.

[98]Gough, California Psychological Inventory Manual, p. 13.

The Flexibility Scale. The Flexibility Scale is designed to indicate the degree of flexibility and adaptability of a person's thinking and social behavior. The flexible person or nonconformist shows more "intellectual effectiveness, ego strength, leadership ability and maturity of social relation, together with a conspicuous absence of inferiority feelings, rigid and excessive self-control, and authoritarian attitudes."[99] This person is also adventurous, humorous, and highly concerned with personal pleasure and diversion; and is a high scorer. The conformist tends to score low and is characterized by methodicalness, rigidness, cautiousness, and as being overly deferential to authority, custom, and tradition.[100]

The Feminity Scale. The Feminity Scale determines the masculinity or feminity of interests. High scorers have more feminine interests, and are marked by patientness, gentleness, moderateness, sincereness, sympatheticness, and respectfulness. Low scores are considered more masculine; therefore, a low scoring person is generally outgoing, robust, hard-headed, blunt and direct in thinking and action,

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[99] R. S. Crutchfield, "Conformity and Character," American Psychologist, (10, 1955), p. 194.

[100] Gough, California Psychological Inventory Manual, p. 13.

impatient, and manipulative and opportunistic in dealing with others.[101]

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[101] Gough, California Psychological Inventory Manual, p. 13.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to determine the personality similarities and differences of unilingual and Spanish bilingual ninth grade students in a depressed area. Analysis of variance was chosen as the statistical instrument to be utilized for the comparison of groups. It is based upon the assumptions that each group consists of a random sample and that the variances within the subgroups are homogeneous.

The function of the analysis of variance is to determine whether or not significant differences are present between the means of the groups under investigation. The purpose in applying this technique to our data is to determine whether or not the personalities of the people constituting the two groups form a consistent pattern. In application of the analysis to the data, a null hypothesis is proposed which states that no significant differences exist in the means of the groups, and the analysis of variance confirms or rejects the hypothesis proposed.

I. RESULTS

The results of the groups are presented in terms of raw scores for each of the eighteen scales of the California Psychological Inventory and average intelligence quotients

for the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests. In each case, an F ratio which is significant at the 5 per cent level will be indicated by a single asterisk; while, a double asterisk indicates an F ratio which is significant at the 1 per cent level of confidence. An F ratio which is not significant will have no asterisk.

Analysis of the male groups. The analysis of variance for the male groups is presented in Tables I-A through I-C on pages 54 and 55, and Tables II-A through II-O on pages 110 through 117 in Appendix B. Table III, containing the means for the data obtained from the California Psychological Inventory, and Table VI, containing the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests means, also appear in Appendix B. A comparison of the means for the unilingual and bilingual populations of this study and the high school male means is shown in Figure I.

TABLE I-A

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SOCIABILITY SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1054.676		
Between Groups	1	119.676	119.676	5.888*
Within Groups	46	935.000	20.326	

TABLE I-B

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF TOLERANCE SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1194.139		
Between Groups	1	116.160	116.160	4.957*
Within Groups	46	1077.979	23.434	

TABLE I-A

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SOCIABILITY SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1054.078		
Between Groups	1	118.678	118.678	5.238*
Within Groups	46	935.000	20.348	

TABLE I-B

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF TOLERANCE SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1174.138		
Between Groups	1	114.120	114.120	4.857*
Within Groups	46	1057.978	23.434	

TABLE I-C

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF PSYCHOLOGICAL-MINDEDNESS SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

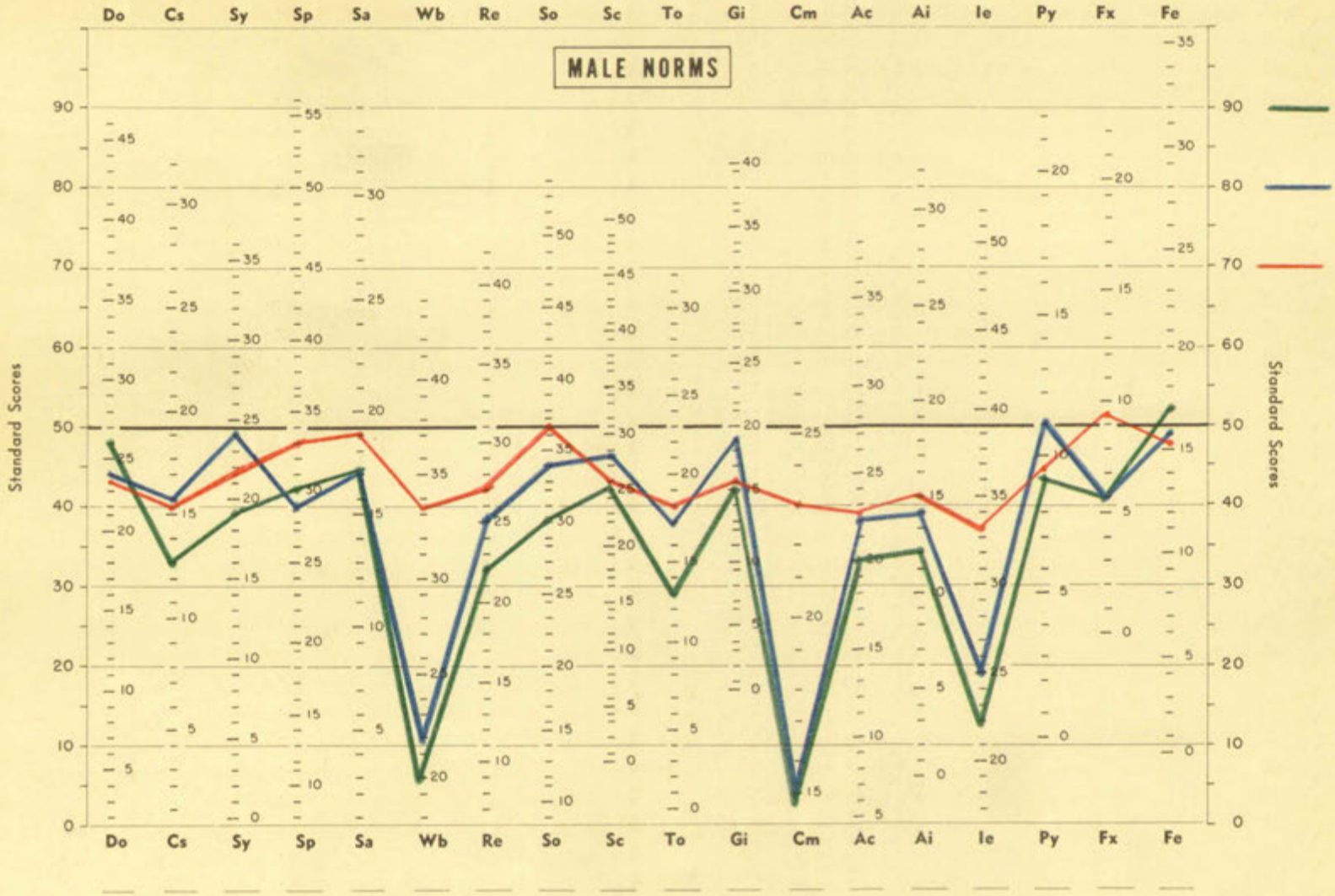
Source of Variance	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	204.715		
Between Groups	1	21.403	21.403	5.371*
Within Groups	46	183.312	3.985	

PROFILE SHEET FOR THE *California Psychological Inventory*: MALE

Name _____ Age _____ Date Tested _____

Other Information _____

Notes:



BILINGUAL MEANS

UNILINGUAL MEANS

HIGH SCHOOL MEANS TAKEN FROM THE CPI MANUAL, P. 10.

FIGURE I

Male Norms

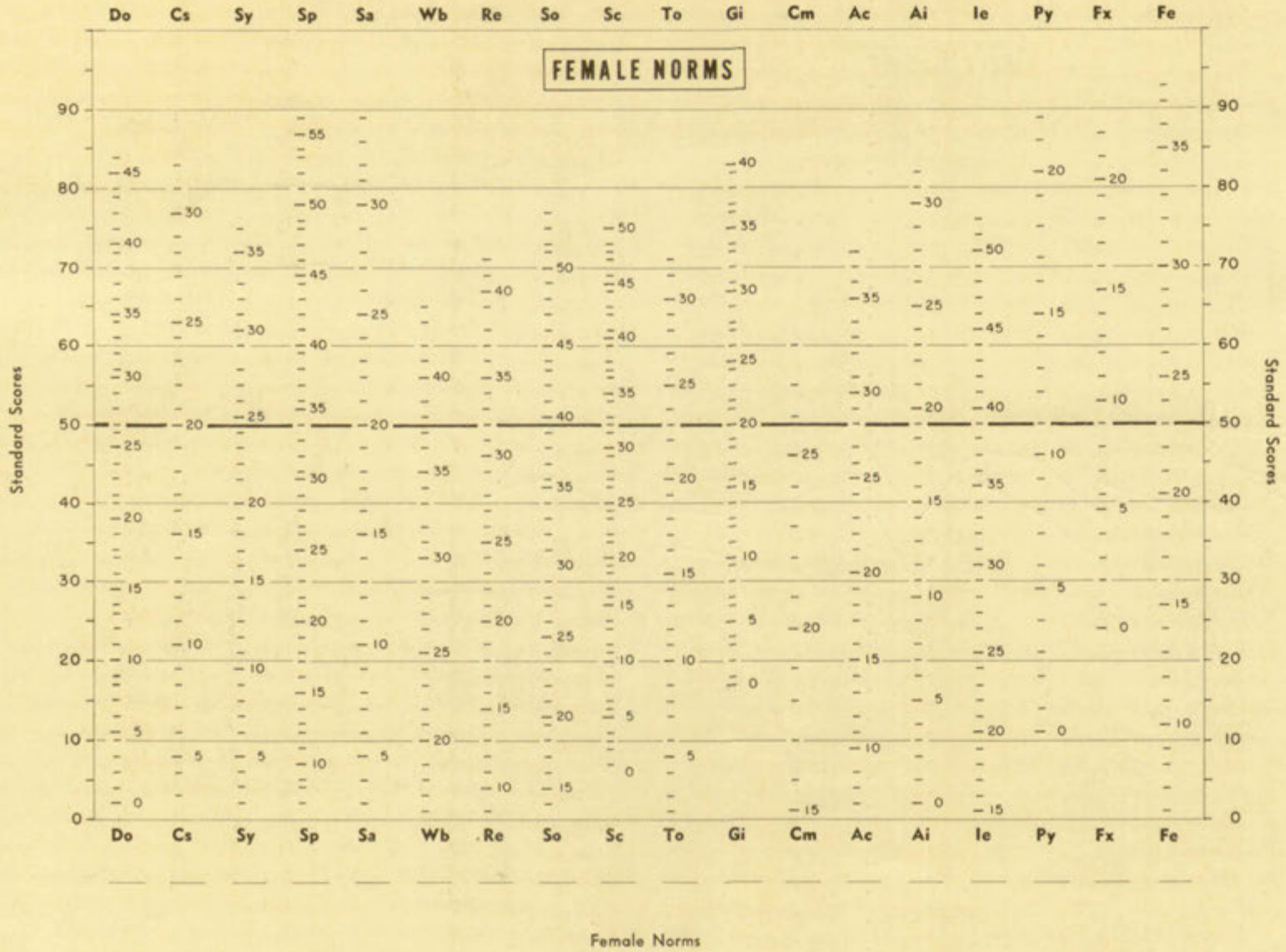
PROFILE OF THE UNILINGUAL, BILINGUAL AND NATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL MALE MEANS

PROFILE SHEET FOR THE *California Psychological Inventory*: FEMALE

Name _____ Age _____ Date Tested _____

Other Information _____

Notes:



Female Norms

Analysis of the female groups. The analysis of variance for the female data of the eighteen scales of the California Psychological Inventory are presented in Tables IV-A through IV-R in Appendix B. Table V, in Appendix B, contains the means for the various scales; while Figure II shows the comparison of the means for the unilingual and bilingual female populations of this study and the national high school female means. The Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests means are presented in Table VI in Appendix B.

PROFILE SHEET FOR THE *California Psychological Inventory*: FEMALE

Name _____ Age _____ Date Tested _____

Other Information _____

Notes:

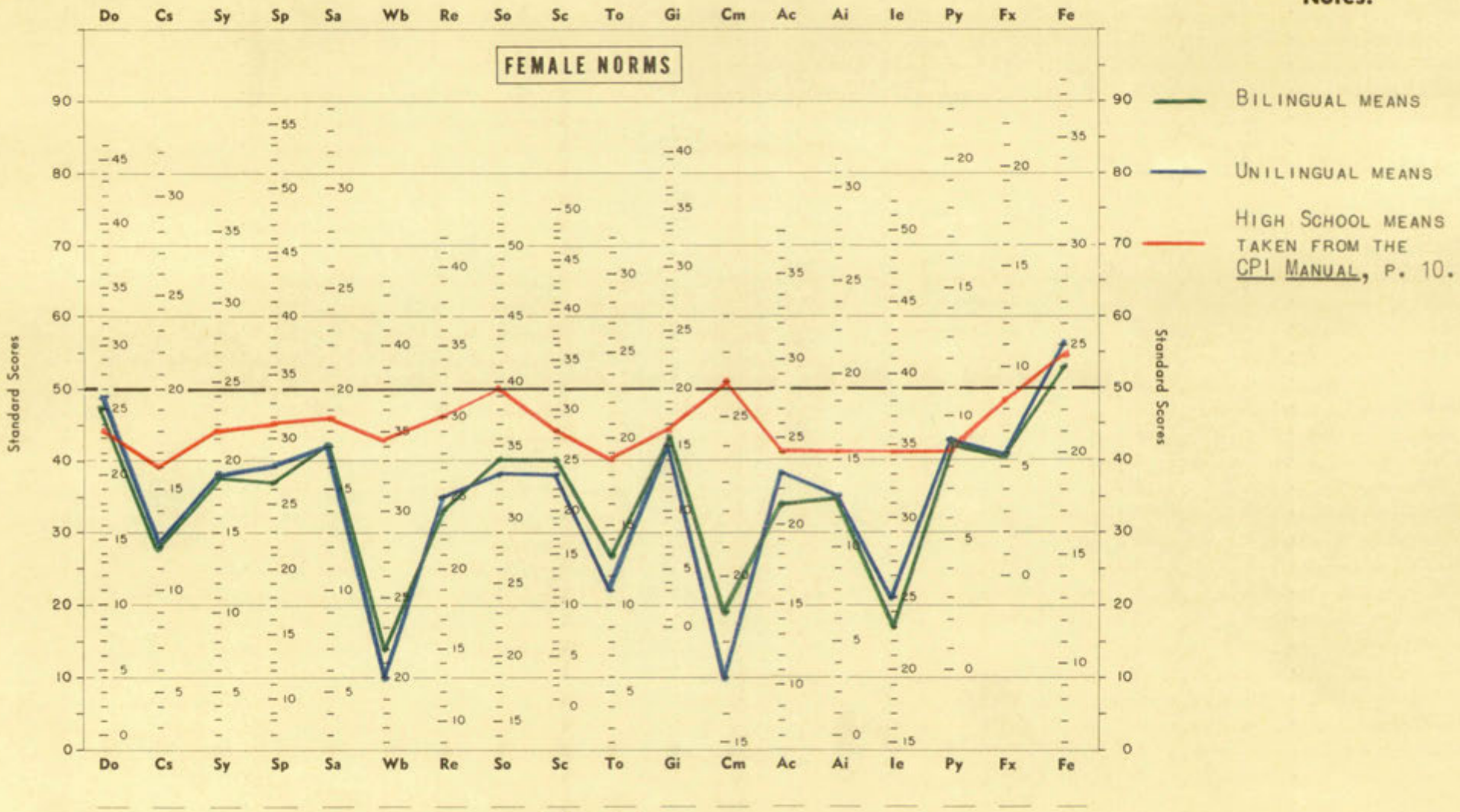


FIGURE II

Female Norms

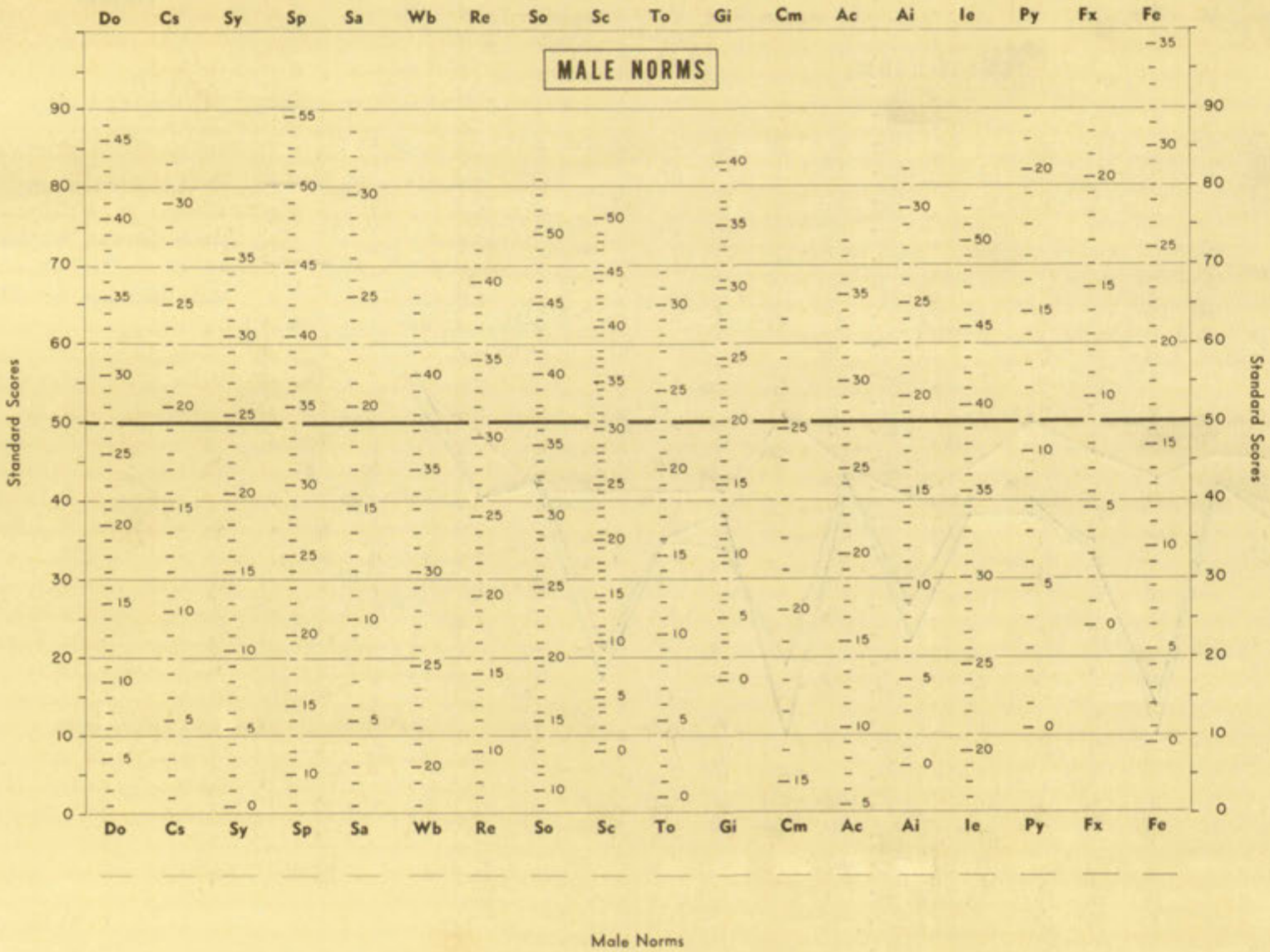
PROFILE OF THE UNILINGUAL, BILINGUAL AND NATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL FEMALE MEANS

PROFILE SHEET FOR THE *California Psychological Inventory*: MALE

Name _____ Age _____ Date Tested _____

Other Information _____

Notes:



II. DISCUSSION

The results of the statistical analysis present, in general, a consistent pattern in the personality similarities found among the groups as assessed by the California Psychological Inventory; however, several significant differences and noteworthy trends appear in the data. The trends are discussed as they appear without any statistical evidence concerning their reliability or validity.

Trends of the male groups. The over-all profile elevations for unilingual and bilingual male groups were very similar, except for the Sociability, Tolerance and Psychological-mindedness scales. On these three scales the unilingual group was significantly higher than the bilingual group at the .05 level of confidence. The unilingual males may, therefore, be described as being more outgoing, enterprising, competitive, original and fluent in thought; more permissive and nonjudgemental in social beliefs and attitudes; and as being more interested in, and responsive to, the inner needs, motives, and experiences of others, than the bilingual males of this population.

The profile elevations for both the unilingual and bilingual male means for this study are similar, though generally lower, than the mean for high school males presented by Gough,[102] with three exceptions. These include the Sense

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[102] Gough, California Psychological Inventory Manual, p. 10.

of well-being scale, the Communality scale, and the Intellectual-efficiency scale, which fell extremely low. In view of previous studies, which were reviewed in Chapter II, these findings are to be expected in a low socio-economic area.

It is also interesting to note the differential elevation of the unilingual and bilingual groups in the four classes of scales. Class I, containing measures of poise, ascendancy, and self-assurance, depicts the bilingual male group as being slightly higher on the Dominance scale and at the same time lower on the remaining five scales in this area than the national high school mean (see Figure I). The contrast between the relatively high Dominance scale and the extremely low Sense of well-being scale for the bilingual group, and unilingual group, appears to be a contradiction in that a low Sense of well-being score is usually seen as unambitious, self-defensive, awkward, cautious, apathetic and conventional; while the scores on the other five scales in Class I would lead one to believe that this population was about average in ambition, intelligence, spontaneousness, forcefulness, imaginativeness, forwardness and in possessing self-confidence.

Measures of socialization, maturity, and responsibility, contained in Class II, were somewhat irregular for both unilingual and bilingual males. The most conspicuous irregularity appeared on the Communality scale in that both groups fell to an extreme low below the fifth standard score. Other

irregularities appeared on the Responsibility and Socialization scales wherein the bilingual means are low enough to indicate that there might be a significant difference between them and the national mean. In the third class, measures of achievement, potential and intellectual efficiency, a very low mean is contrasted to two relatively average means. Thus, Class III depicts the male population of this study as about average in ability to achieve via conformance and independence, and as low in intellectual efficiency.

The bilingual and unilingual population covered in this study may be significantly lower than the high school norm on the Flexibility scale. This scale, along with two others, comes under the heading of Class IV, Measures of Intellectual and Interest Modes; which, as a class, tends to be the most "normal" of the four classes for both male groups.

The means for the unilingual and bilingual males on the eighteen scales of the California Psychological Inventory are very much alike except on the Sociability, Tolerance and Psychological-mindedness scales which showed significant differences in favor of the unilingual group. On each scale, the unilingual male means are the same or slightly higher than the bilingual male means with the exception of the Dominance scale.

Trends of the female groups. The unilingual and bilingual female means on the California Psychological Inventory are very similar to the unilingual and bilingual

irregularities appeared on the responsibility and socialization scales wherein the bilingual means are low enough to indicate that there might be a significant difference between them and the national mean. In the third class, measures of achievement, potential and intellectual efficiency, a very low mean is contrasted to two relatively average means. This class III depicts the male population of this study as about average in ability to achieve via conformance and responsibility, and as low in intellectual efficiency.

The bilingual and multilingual population covered in this study may be significantly lower than the high school norm on the Flexibility scale. This analysis, along with the others, occurs under the heading of Class IV, Measures of Intellectual and Interest Modes; which, as a class, tends to be the most "normal" of the four classes for both male groups.

The means for the multilingual and bilingual males on the eighteen scales of the California Psychological Inventory are very much alike except on the Sociability, Tolerance and Psychological-mindedness scales which showed significant differences in favor of the bilingual group. In each scale, the multilingual male means are the more or slightly higher than the bilingual male means with the exception of the Dominance scale.

Trends of the female groups. The multilingual and bilingual female means on the California Psychological Inventory are very similar as the multilingual and bilingual

male means. In examining Figure II it is apparent that the same scales fall radically below the high school means for the female groups as did for the male population of this study. In addition, the female groups appear to be less tolerant and have less capacity for status than the male groups.

In comparing the over-all profile elevation of the unilingual and bilingual female means to the national high school female mean it is obvious that, in general, this population falls below and is more deviant than the national population. It would seem that the unilingual and bilingual means on the Capacity for status, Sense of well-being, Responsibility, Socialization, Tolerance, Communality, and Intellectual efficiency scales may be significantly lower than the national high school female means.

The means for the unilingual and bilingual females on the eighteen scales of the California Psychological Inventory are even more alike than the means for the unilingual and bilingual males; and there is no significant difference in the female means of this population.

Validity of the trends. Psychological testing is, in itself, a somewhat threatening situation to the subject; therefore, an attempt, on the part of the subject, may be made to present a particular impression, good or bad, or to prevent the illumination of some particular portion of the personality. In order to detect cases of dissimulation and

faking, test constructionists incorporate a validity score or scores into their particular test. This validity score is based on subtlities wherein the items' relationship to any particular trait or behavior is not obvious to inspection.

On the California Psychological Inventory three particular scales aid in the detection of those subjects who have deliberately exaggerated or distorted their responses--the Good impression scale, the Sense of well-being scale, and the Communality scale. An exaggerated attempt, on the part of the subject, to appear in an advantageous light results in a high score on the Good impression scale. Good impression scores which are just above average denote a favorable attitude and a sincere effort to adapt or adjust; while very high scores may imply test faking. The Sense of well-being scale, when the score is very low, infers the possibility of unwarranted exaggeration of personal distress or conscious faking. A measure of the subject's accuracy and conscientiousness in answering the test items is measured by comparing the Communality score with the general range or level of the other seventeen scales' scores. If the Communality score falls very low in comparison to these other scales, the possibility of random or illogical responses is very high.[103]

In checking on the validity factors for the populations

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[103] Gough, California Psychological Inventory Manual, p. 19.

faking, test constructionists incorporate a validity score or scores into their particular test. This validity score is based on aspirations wherein the items' relationship to any particular trait or behavior is not obvious to inspection.

On the California Psychological Inventory three particular scales aid in the detection of those subjects who have deliberately exaggerated or distorted their responses--the Good Impression scale, the Sense of well-being scale, and the Communality scale. An exaggerated attempt, on the part of the subject, to appear in an advantageous light results in a high score on the Good Impression scale. Good impression scores which are just above average denotes favorable attitude and a sincere effort to adapt or adjust; while very high scores may imply test faking. The Sense of well-being scale, when the score is very low, infers the possibility of unwarranted exaggeration of personal distress or conscious faking. A measure of the subject's accuracy and conscientiousness in answering the test items is measured by comparing the Communality score with the general range or level of the other seventeen scales' scores. If the Communality score falls very low in comparison to these other scales, the possibility of random or illogical responses is very high.[103]

In choosing on the validity factors for the popularizing

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[103] Gough, California Psychological Inventory Manual, p. 12.

presented in this study, the unilingual male group, bilingual male group, unilingual female group, and bilingual female group means all fell extremely low on the Sense of well-being scale and the Communality scale; but their Good impression scale was about average in comparison with the national mean for this scale. There is, then, some indications that perhaps these populations exaggerate their situation or that they are responding to the items in a haphazard manner; yet, the Good impression scale scores would lead one to believe that these students are making an honest attempt to adjust to their surroundings.

After investigating these validity factors, as they appeared on the groups comprising this study, there remained some question as to the actual validity of the data based on the California Psychological Inventory. A review of literature and the background of the subjects presented some interesting possibilities for explaining the somewhat irregular results gathered from the California Psychological Inventory. Various investigations of the personalities of depressed area populations indicate that a low Sense of well-being score and a low Communality score would be expected of subjects from a depressed area; therefore, the low Sense of well-being score and the low Communality score, in this situation, may not be a valid indicator of the validity of the subjects' responses. The review of the background of the subjects is suggestive of the possibility that these students

did answer the items in a random manner, but not as a deliberate attempt to confuse the results. Rather, it is possible that these students marked their answers in complete honesty, but that their point of reference unconsciously vacillated between the cultural expectations of the home and the cultural expectations of the school. For the above mentioned reasons, the scores obtained on this population were not discarded as being invalid; however, the probability of possible invalidity is not completely repudiated.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study was designed to explore the personality similarities and differences of unilingual and Spanish bilingual ninth grade students in a depressed area on the basis of the California Psychological Inventory. The unilingual and bilingual groups were subdivided into unilingual males, unilingual females, bilingual males and bilingual females for a more thorough investigation.

The total ninth grade population at Lincoln Junior High School was administered three tests, the California Psychological Inventory, The Lorge-Thorndike Verbal Intelligence Test, and The Lorge-Thorndike Nonverbal Intelligence Test. From this population, ninety-one subjects were selected on the basis of a controlled random sample. These ninety-one subjects were then divided into the four groups on the basis of data gathered in home calls made by the research team. No attempt was made to equate the four groups in socio-economic status or school achievement.

Analysis of variance was the statistical method used to determine whether or not significant differences were present among the means of the groups on any of the eighteen scales of the California Psychological Inventory. In application of the analysis to the data, a null hypothesis was proposed which stated that no significant difference exists

in the means of the groups.

The results of the statistical analysis present a semi-consistent pattern in the personality similarities found among the groups. There was no significant difference found between the unilingual females and bilingual females; however, a significant difference at the .05 level of confidence appeared on three of the scales for the male groups. These differences were found on the Sociability, Tolerance and Psychological-mindedness scales and were in favor of the unilingual male group. Thus, the null hypothesis that no significant difference exists in the means of the female groups on all eighteen scales of the California Psychological Inventory and for the remaining fifteen scales for the male groups was accepted.

The major conclusion of this study is that it would appear that there is relatively little personality differences between depressed area unilingual and Spanish bilingual students in this specific locality. In examining the data, it would seem that the female Spanish bilingual and the female unilinguals tend to be more realistic in their relationship to the culture than the male populations. However, it is necessary to qualify these conclusions. In the first place, this study was conducted in only one area. A second consideration is the mixtures of cultures within the unilingual and bilingual populations. It would be impossible, in a sample population of this size, to evaluate the Negro and various Indian influences in the culture.

in the means of the groups.

The results of the statistical analysis present a semi-consistent pattern in the personality stratification found among the groups. There was no significant difference found between the unilingual Spanish and bilingual Samoans; however, a significant difference at the .05 level of confidence appeared on three of the scales for the male groups. These differences were found on the Sociability, Tolerance and Psychological-mindedness scales and were in favor of the unilingual male group. Thus, the null hypothesis that no significant difference exists in the means of the female groups on all eighteen scales of the California Psychological Inventory and for the remaining fifteen scales for the male groups was accepted.

The major conclusion of this study is that it would appear that there is relatively little personality difference between depressed area unilingual and Spanish bilingual students in this specific locality. In examining the data, it would seem that the female Spanish bilingual and the female unilingualS tend to be more realistic in their relationship to the culture than the male populations. However, it is necessary to qualify these conclusions. In the first place, this study was conducted in only one area. A second consideration is the mixture of cultures within the unilingual and bilingual populations. It would be impossible, in a sample population of this size, to evaluate the degree and various Indian influences in the culture.

The results of this study suggest the need for further studies in the area of personality differences between unilingual and bilingual students in connection with their socio-economic status, intelligence and school achievement. Any number of factors could be considered; however, the writer would like to suggest the following implications for further study:

1. Dominance may be seen as the role played by the middle class; and, therefore, the depressed area bilingual may identify with the middle class through dominance traits.

2. The female bilingual student seems to have a higher degree of upward mobility than the male bilingual student.

3. It would also seem that the female bilingual student has more upward mobility than the unilingual female student in this mixed culture situation.

4. The students in this population, especially the bilingual student, may be responding to many of the items on the California Psychological Inventory as they perceive the middle-class school authorities would have them respond.

5. The intellectual efficiency scale could be a check or validity score on Achievement via conformance and Achievement via independence.

6. In this study, unilingual boys are just average in dominance tendencies, while bilingual boys, bilingual girls and unilingual girls are somewhat above average in

dominance traits. Perhaps the unilingual boys are seeing dominance through the eyes of the major culture and not as a trait of this middle-class culture which the bilingual boys, bilingual girls and unilingual girls may feel is imposed upon them by the middle class.

7. There may be a cultural conflict in the responses for the bilingual groups. An example would be item number 260 of the California Psychological Inventory which states "I always try to do at least a little better than is expected of me."[104] It would be interesting, and perhaps very pertinent, to know whether such items are answered in terms of what is expected by peers, parents, or by the imposed middle-class culture.

8. A separate standardization of the norms for the Spanish bilingual students, including a much larger sample in population numbers and geographic areas, might provide additional evidence of the effect of the semantic differential mentioned herein.

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[104]Harrison G. Gough, California Psychological Inventory, (Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc., 1956), p. 6.

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APPENDIX A

GUIDANCE SERVICES DEPARTMENT
Lincoln Guidance Research Project

June 10, 1960

TO: Dr. Charles R. Spain, Superintendent; Dr. Stanley W. Caplan, Coordinator, Guidance Services Department; and Robert Evans, Principal, Lincoln Junior High School

FROM: David Segel and Ronald A. Ruble

RE: Annual Report of Progress for the Lincoln Guidance Research Project

This report contains a summary of all work initiated as a part of the Lincoln Guidance Research Project for the school year 1959-1960.. In order that this report be as complete as possible, copies of all previous reports are appended.

The research team was requested to develop a research design which would bring to light implications for changes in the educational program at Lincoln Junior High School. It was thought that possibly some changes in the educational program would help the school to meet the needs of the students more fully.

The first year of the Lincoln Project was spent primarily in planning and gathering data pertinent to the problem. In order that the summary report of the team's activities may be more easily understood, we have divided this report into five main sections.

I. The Research Design and the Experimental Hypotheses

II. Methodology of Selection of the Experimental Sample Groups

III. Progress in Gethering Data
- A. The Study of the Eighth Grade Students
- B. The Study of the Ninth Grade Studets
  - 1. The Home Visitation Study
  - 2. The Behavior Rating Study
- C. The Follow-up Study of Students Who Have Graduated from Lincoln Junior High School

IV. Proposed Plans and Time Schedule for the School Year 1960-1961

V. Proposals for Experimental Work for the School Year 1961-1962

David Segel

Ronald A. Ruble

I. THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND THE EXPERIMENTAL HYPOTHESES

The research design and the experimental hypotheses were developed upon the following bases:

1. The problem presented for study by the Superintendent of Schools, Charles R. Spain, and the Coordinator of the Guidance Services Department, Stanley W. Caplan

2. Observation of guidance programs in junior high schools in similar cities

3. Study of the extant literature on the subject of adaptation of the junior high school program to meet the needs of the students

4. A preliminary study of several factors, such as retention, school grades, test results and behavior problems in Lincoln Junior High School as compared to these same factors in the Albuquerque junior high schools as a whole

These bases and the actual research design, experimental hypotheses, and the general procedures to be followed were submitted for approval on March 1, 1960. The full report is attached to this summary as Appendix 1, on page seven.

II. METHODOLOGY OF SELECTION OF THE EXPERIMENTAL SAMPLE GROUPS

Since our original plans had called for the gathering of data to take no more than the present school year, the research team felt that it could not gather complete data on all eighth and ninth grade students at Lincoln Junior High School. For this reason, a method of selection of an experimental sample group was developed.

All of the students attending Lincoln Junior High School were administered the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test (both verbal and non-verbal scales). The total intelligence quotient (IQ) scores for all students in a given grade were then arranged in a frequency distribution. The research team then selected every third child on both the eighth and ninth grade distributions. A total of eighty-two (82) eighth grade and seventy-eight (78) ninth grade students were chosen in this manner.

Since the research team had established a minimum desirable sample size of one hundred (100), it was then necessary to select every even numbered pupil from the names remaining on the frequency distributions. In this way, a total sample of 141 ninth grade and 153 eighth grade students were selected.

I. THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND THE EXPERIMENTAL HYPOTHESES

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Since the research team had established a minimum desirable sample size of one hundred (100), it was then necessary to select every seventh numbered child from the mean remaining on the frequency distributions. In this way, a total sample of 182 ninth grade and 159 eighth grade students were selected.

In order that the available data might be processed more easily, the research team added one further criterion for selection at this point. Certain of the test scores were required of all students in each sample group.[1] This criterion reduced the size of the ninth grade group to 106, and the eighth grade group was reduced to a total of 109 students. These groups, then were used for all studies which the research team initiated.

The selection of these groups was done on an arbitrary basis which we felt would insure the selection of a random sample. It would appear that the method of selection would also insure the fact that the IQ distribution of the sample groups would be directly comparable to the IQ distributions of the respective classes.

III. PROGRESS IN GATHERING THE DATA

A. Study of the Eighth Grade Students. The eighth grade students were studied through data concerning achievement test results, aptitude test results, grades received in various subject matter areas, and teacher ratings of student behavior. These data were collected, coded, cut into International Business Machines (IBM) cards, and processed by a computer for a correlational analysis from which possible adjustmnt of curriculum and guidance procedures may be elicited.[2]

B. Study of the Ninth Grade Students. The data gathered for both the eighth and ninth grades were similar. Achievement test results, multiple aptitude test results, general intelligence test scores, behavior ratings by teachers and counselors, and information concerning behavior and discipline within the homes were collected, coded, and cut into IBM cards.

The actual processing of the data has not yet been accomplished, however, due to lack of time. It is anticipated that the actual processing may be done during the summer of this year in order that the correlational analysis may be initiated during the fall of 1960.

1. The Home Visitation Study. The preliminary report concerning the program of home visitation carried on with the families of ninth grade students has already been submitted on June 1, 1960. A copy of this report appears in Appendix 2, page eighteen.

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[1] Eighth grade: California Achievement Test, California Test of Mental Maturity. Ninth grade: Iowa Tests of Educational Development, Multiple Aptitude Test, California Psychological Inventory.

[2] Sample IBM cards and coding keys appear in Appendix 4, page thirty-seven.

2. The Behavior Rating Study. All teachers and counselors at Lincoln Junior High School were requested to rate the behavior of a selected number of their pupils in terms of several criteria listed on the behavior rating sheets.[3] The use of these forms was explained to the professional staff of Lincoln Junior High School at a meeting held on the morning of February 23, 1960. The staff members were requested to complete the forms and return them by no later than 3:30 P.M. the same day. It was further requested that they not discuss their ratings with any other members of the staff, for it was explained that this might have some influence on the ratings which they were to make. The counselors were requested to identify a larger number of pupils than the teachers were, for they would have had contact with more children on a basis which would make selection relatively easy.

As the form indicates, the professional staff was requested to rate their students in terms of both aggressive and withdrawn behavior. It was felt that the teachers and the counselors would be able to recognize children whose behavior conformed to the indicated symptoms rather than children whose behavior deviated from normal in other ways.

When all of the forms were turned in, the ratings made by the teachers and the counselors were combined and fitted into a code having a range of ten points.[4] Agreement between the teachers and the counselors as to the behavior of any given child appeared to be quite high.

C. The Follow-up Study of Students Who Have Graduated from Lincoln Junior High School. The group selected for this portion of the study differs to some degree from the other experimental groups. Since a number of the students in this group had taken different intelligence tests, a directly comparable measure for purposes of selection was unavailable. Thus, unless the research team decided to study a large number of these students, it would be difficult to be certain that the group was statistically comparable to all graduates. This procedure would be quite difficult.

Therefore, it was decided to choose a random sample from three previous graduating classes. The classes of 1959, 1958, and 1956 were selected. These students would be in the tenth and eleventh grades, and the 1956 graduates would have graduated from high school in June, 1959. Alphabetical lists were prepared of the students in each of these graduating classes. The actual selection of the experimental groups was

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[3] The exact number of students to be identified and the symptoms used in their identification appear in Appendix 3, page thirty-four.

[4] A complete description of the code appears in Appendix 4, page thirty-seven.

done by applying a table of random numbers to the lists.[5] One third of the students in each class were selected for study. The following number of students (by classes) is being studied:

Class of 1959 (Present 10th Grade):	61
Class of 1958 (Present 11th Grade):	96
Class of 1956 (June, 1959 Graduates):	73

The information gathered about these students closely parallels the information gathered about the present eighth and ninth grade students. However, collection of behavior ratings by teachers and counselors was impossible, due to the fact that these children are now in high school and the small number of children in any given class would make such a study difficult and of questionable value.

Presently, information is still being compiled. Cumulative record cards were made out for each of the students in the sample group, and the information on the cards is now being coded. Although the majority of Lincoln Junior High School students have gone to Albuquerque High School, a small number of students have gone to other Albuquerque high schools or have moved to other cities. Information concerning this relatively small group has been difficult to pursue.

At times, too, this section of the study has had to be set aside while the energies of the team were directed toward the completion of some other phase of the study. This has unquestionably slowed down the completion of this work. At present a limited amount of work is being done with this portion of the study. It is anticipated that this work will be completed by the latter part of September, 1960.

IV. PROPOSED PLANS AND TIME SCHEDULE FOR THE SCHOOL YEAR 1960-1961

Proposed Plans. The statistical analysis of the data gathered will be completed and applied to the known facts to determine if any or all of the hypotheses communicated in the March 1, 1960 report are valid. The determined validity or invalidity of these hypotheses will then guide the preparation of detailed conclusions regarding the educational program for Lincoln Junior High School.

During this same year, it is anticipated that certain preliminary experimental approaches will be made towards adapting the program at Lincoln Junior High School to meet the needs of its students more fully. These approaches will be based upon some of the hypotheses which have been developed.

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[5] John Gray Peatman, Descriptive and Sampling Statistics, (New York: Harper and Brothers), 1957, pp. 544-545.

Time Schedule for 1960-1961. A report of the principal findings of the total study and recommendations for action will be completed by January 31, 1961. This is done so that planning for the school program may be completed in time for the 1961-1962 school year.

In addition to this, studies of specific hypotheses or problems will be made. These results will be made available as they are completed. Some of the specific studies planned are:

1. The efficiency of different types of tests in measuring basic aptitudes useful in guidance

2. The relationship of aggressive and withdrawn behavior to delinquency and adjustment in school

3. The relationship of types of discipline within the home to behavior in school and to delinquency

4. The relationship of types of discipline within the home to school achievement

5. Factors in the junior high school which are indicative of success in senior high school

It is understood that all of the plans which are submitted at this time are subject to the approval of the Superintendent of Schools and the Coordinator of the Guidance Services Department.

V. PROPOSALS FOR EXPERIMENTAL WORK FOR THE SCHOOL YEAR 1961-1962

The research team has given some thought to the general progress of the Lincoln Project through the third year. We feel that some of the ideas suggested below could well be followed up during the third year to the benefit of the students. It is presently our opinion that the third year of the project may be well spent in implementation of an educational program based upon the results of the first two years of study. We believe that a strong program would probably include the following features:

1. Improved educational and vocational guidance procedures

2. Improved adaptation of the subject matter in the so-called solid areas for varying ability groups

3. Continued evaluation of expanding subject matter offerings

4. An experimental multi-disciplinary mental health program which would promote home and school cooperation (this would require some kind of financial aid). As time passes, we hope to make more concrete suggestions concerning this program.

APPENDIX I

March 1, 1960 Progress Report

GUIDANCE SERVICES DEPARTMENT
Lincoln Guidance Research Project

March 1, 1960

TO: Dr. Charles R. Spain, Superintendent; Dr. Stanley W. Caplan, Coordinator, Guidance Services Department; and Robert Evans, Principal, Lincoln Junior High School

FROM: David Segel and Ronald A. Ruble

RE: Second Report on the Lincoln Guidance Research Project

This report is divided into eight sections:

1. The general framework of the study
2. Description of preliminary work
3. Data gathered or to be gathered during the period from January 1, 1960 to June 15, 1960
4. Status hypotheses: factual situations which we hope to prove or disprove
5. Action hypotheses: changes suggested at Lincoln Junior High School arising out of the status hypotheses and further analysis
6. The rationale for the action hypotheses
7. Time schedule for 1959-1960 and 1960-1961
8. Appendix: Detailed time schedule for period from January 1 to June 15, 1960.

David Segel

Ronald A. Ruble

GUIDANCE SERVICES DEPARTMENT
Lincoln Guidance Research Project

March 1, 1960

TO: Dr. Charles E. Spain, Superintendent; Dr. Stanley W. Coplan, Coordinator, Guidance Services Department; and Robert Evans, Principal, Lincoln Junior High School

FROM: David Sogel and Donald A. Rahle

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8. Appendix: Detailed time schedule for period from January 1 to June 15, 1960.

David Sogel

Donald A. Rahle

1. General Framework of the Study

It is our understanding that the general intent of the study is concerned with several broad areas:

A. An investigation of the educational offerings of Lincoln Junior High School.

B. An investigation of the nature of the school population which will include, of necessity, such areas as

a. The home environment of the school population

b. The abilities and aptitudes of this population

c. The educational achievement of the school population

d. The educational achievement of students who have graduated from Lincoln Junior High School, and

e. The present situation of former Lincoln Junior High School students who have left school.

It was assumed that the information which was made available from this study would prove of value in the formulation of certain changes in the school program.

2. Description of Preliminary Work

A workable plan for finding some of the pertinent data concerning the above noted areas has been evolved. This plan was based upon two months'

A. Analysis of literature on the subject of inquiry (with special emphasis upon literature concerned with the relationship between pupil frustration, achievement and school adjustment) and

B. Observation of the efforts of other school systems to adapt their programs in schools with populations similar to the one found at Lincoln Junior High School. The research team was especially interested in efforts made by these systems concerned with achievement and holding power.

This preliminary survey led to the formation of details for gathering the data and to the formation of certain hypotheses which we feel might be proved - or possibly disproved - by an analysis of the data. It is expected that the major portion of the plan will be carried out during the period from January to June, 1960.

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This preliminary survey led to the formation of details for gathering the data and to the formation of certain hypotheses which we feel might be proved - or possibly disproved - by an analysis of the data. It is expected that the major portion of the plan will be carried out during the months from January to June, 1960.

3. The Data to be Gathered

Briefly, the information to be gathered includes:

A. Home environment

a. Socio-economic status of the family

b. Attitude of the parents toward their children (this is specifically concerned with the types of discipline used in the home, attitudes toward school, etc.)

B. School Environment

a. Achievement, aptitudes and general scholastic level of the students

b. Pupil marks in subject areas

c. Attendance data

d. Teacher rating of pupil behavior (concerned with the identification of aggressive and withdrawn children in the classroom)

e. Data concerning norm-violating (delinquent) behavior (We will be concerned with both legally delinquent behavior and behavior which is contrary to the tenets of contemporary society but which does not break the law. The second type of behavior mentioned may be accepted within the cultural milleu of the Lincoln community)

C. After leaving Lincoln Junior High School

a. School attendance patterns

b. Present situation of former pupils (e.g. left town, idle, married, etc.)

c. Grades received in subject areas while in attendance at both junior and senior high schools

4. Status Hypotheses

A. A large proportion of Lincoln Junior High School students leave school before or at the time of their graduation from the ninth grade. Therefore, it is our hypothesis that, in

3. The Data to be Gathered

Briefly, the information to be gathered includes:

A. Home environment

a. Socio-economic status of the family

b. Attitude of the parents toward their children (this is specifically concerned with the types of discipline used in the home, attitudes toward school, etc.)

B. School Environment

a. Achievement, aptitude and general scholastic level of the students

b. Pupil marks in subject areas

c. Attendance data

d. Teacher rating of pupil behavior (concerned with the identification of aggressive and withdrawn children in the classroom)

e. Data concerning norm-violating (delinquent) behavior (We will be concerned with both basically delinquent behavior and behavior which is contrary to the trends of contemporary society but which does not break the law. The second type of behavior mentioned may be accepted within the national milieu of the Israeli community)

C. After Leaving Israeli Junior High School

a. School attendance patterns

b. Present attitudes of former pupils (e.g. left town, idle, married, etc.)

c. Trends received in subject areas which is attributed as both junior and senior high school

4. Status Hypothesis

A. A large proportion of Israeli Junior High School students leave school before completing the 10th grade (Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem, 1968).

the future, while there will be proportionally more pupils continuing on through the high school, in general the pattern of early school leaving is likely to continue.

B. Lincoln Junior High School students are achieving satisfactory work in fundamental subjects, considering their level of verbal intelligence.

C. The general ability of a substantial number of pupils is higher than that revealed by our general level intelligence tests, especially the verbal portions.

D. A large number of the pupils at Lincoln Junior High School are frustrated. We would classify them as follows:

a. Successfully aspiring lower class youngsters who have the will and the capacity to lift their status.

b. Aspiring but frustrated lower class youngsters whose reasonable aspiriations and potential interests are thwarted by obstacles that seem almost insurmountable.

c. Aspiring but frustrated youngsters whose aspirations exceed their realistic potential.

d. Youngsters who have little potential and apparently few frustrations.

E. A number of students in Lincoln Junior High School are looking for firm direction from adults, and if they find only weak direction or none, they will become aggressive. This seems to partially relieve their tensions, but overt aggressive acts also disrupt the school and society.

5. Action Hypotheses

A. It would seem that there is a need for a more intensive program of assessment of different aptitudes through measures for use in guidance. This guidance work should be separated into two categories:

a. Aid to teachers in their program of instruction

b. Aid to students through counselors - individually and by means of group guidance

the future, while them will be proportionally more pupils continuing on through the high school, in general the pattern of early school leaving is likely to continue.

B. Lincoln Junior High School students are achieving satisfactory work in fundamental subjects, considering their level of verbal intelligence.

C. The general ability of a substantial number of pupils is higher than that revealed by our general level intelligence tests, especially the verbal portions.

D. A large number of the pupils at Lincoln Junior High School are frustrated. We would classify them as follows:

a. Successfully aspiring lower class youngsters who have the will and the capacity to lift their status.

b. Aspiring but frustrated lower class youngsters whose reasonable aspirations and potential interests are thwarted by obstacles that seem almost insurmountable.

c. Aspiring but frustrated youngsters whose aspirations exceed their realistic potential.

d. Youngsters who have little potential and apparently few frustrations.

E. A number of students in Lincoln Junior High School are looking for firm direction from adults, and if they find only weak direction or none, they will become aggressive. This seems to partially relieve their tensions, but overt aggressive acts also disrupt the school and society.

5. Action Hypotheses

A. It would seem that there is a need for a more intensive program of assessment of different aptitudes through measures for use in guidance. This guidance work should be separated into two categories:

a. Aid to teachers in their process of instruction

b. Aid to students through counselors - individually and by means of group guidance

B. It is therefore assumed that there exists a need for a curriculum of greater breadth and diversity than that which presently exists at Lincoln Junior High School.

C. If Lincoln Junior High School is to be the terminal point of education for many students, it seems imperative that the curriculum aims should be shifted to aid the specific areas of aptitude strengths.

D. The counseling and guidance of these students should place more emphasis upon adjusting the school environment to aid the adjustment of students who aspire to success but are frustrated by seemingly insurmountable obstacles.

E. It is hypothesized that the overall administration of the school and the instruction within the classroom should not follow basically democratic procedures. As the children are able to accept responsibility, however, democratic procedures should be introduced commensurate with the student's progress.

6. The Rationale for the Action Hypotheses

A. The assessment of aptitudes. The counselor should be responsible for the assessment of these aptitudes, for he is trained in this particular field. Counselors should not be primarily concerned with the actual instruction in the classroom, for this is the work of the principal, department heads and supervisors of instruction.

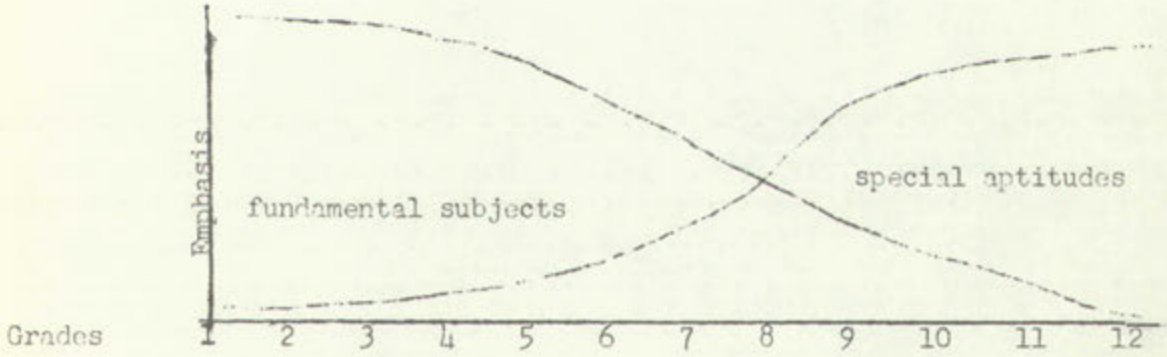
Counseling work, on the other hand, although it is administratively under the principal, has to do with psychological and sociological approaches which are educational only in the broadest sense. The counselor is a consultant to the principal in this specialized field. It would seem that although committees of teachers and administrators should be consulted in developing an achievement testing program, other areas of testing might better be planned wholly by the Coordinator of Guidance Services and his staff in conjunction with school counselors and interested teachers.

B. Need for a broader and more diversified program. The needs of the pupils would seem to make this imperative. For example, most students might well make good use of courses in industrial arts and home making. In terms of student potential, some students would very possibly need further, more intensive work in fundamental subject areas. Others

might be challenged by more difficult work in other subjects. It appears that more electives are needed to take care of pupil differences.

At the end of the seventh grade or not later that the beginning of the eighth, the whole program for the student should be examined by the counselor and a conference with the student and perhaps the parents might be arranged.

C. Terminal education in preference to fundamental subjects. This point of change can be gradual or sharp. It is related to the overall potential of the student and his school leaving proneness. If this hypothesis is correct, this would seem to be of utmost importance to Lincoln Junior High School. A diagrammatic picture of the hypothesis follows:



It would be interesting to investigate the possibility of the establishment of a committee of business leaders from the community, union leaders, guidance and curriculum supervisors to implement the reality of training for work in this community, especially if work experience is to be developed as a part of this plan.

D. Adjusting the curriculum to aid students frustrated by seemingly insurmountable environmental obstacles. One type of frustration, previously described, is that which is generated within the individual primarily from his own feelings of inadequacy. This individual is in conflict with himself. This is the most common form of frustration, and it is the type which psychologists have rightly contended is the most serious.

The other type of frustration occurs usually as a result of conflict with environment. This type is thought to be the most common in the lower socio-economic classes. Methods of diagnosis of this type of frustration and means of treatment have not been developed to the point of reliability.

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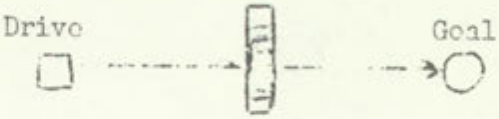
The following diagram of characteristics is an attempt to simplify this dichotomous classification.

TYPE I.	TYPE II.
Conflict within the individual or non-social behavior.	Conflict with the environment or norm-violating behavior.
Symptoms	Symptoms
Described as neurotic or pre-psychotic. Usually withdrawn. Usually not of the criminal type. Often truant.	Described as aggressive toward teachers, school, other pupils, property, etc. "Acting out" type. Not neurotic but sometimes is criminally inclined.
Formation of Frustration	
Self Concept	Environment
	
If not helped leads to withdrawal	If not helped leads to aggression against environment
Solution of Frustration	
Self Concept	Environment
	
Overcoming frustration. By understanding himself he can attain goal thereby adjusting to his environment.	Overcomes frustration by changing environment so that he can attain his goal or a substitute goal. Environment is adjusted to student.
About 75% of serious behavior cases in the middle and upper socio-economic classes are of this type. Teachers often do not recognize this type.	About 75% of serious behavior cases in the lower socio-economic classes of society are of this type. Teachers recognize this type fairly easily.

This concern with adjusting the school environment for these cases would then follow. This can not be done, however, without a curriculum which allows for this type of adjustment. Many other facets of the environment of these problem cases can not be reached through the school.

This problem is two-fold. First a reliable method for the identification of both types of frustration must be developed. This method of identification should also allow the counselor to distinguish between both types of frustration. The above diagram can serve as a basis for the beginning of this study. Secondly, a method for the treatment of the norm-violating, frustrated pupils should be evolved. All of the hypotheses have a bearing on this problem. An exploratory study of this area will be implemented in 1960-1961.

E. Concerning lack of democratic orientation in administration and instruction. This is in sharp contrast to the present national theory of school administration and instruction. Yet a seeming majority of the children in this community need firm direction. Assuming the validity of this statement, it would appear that children would respond to a relatively authoritarian approach. To introduce these children to a warm, democratic classroom without adequate preparation would create chaos. Democracy at Lincoln Junior High School must be introduced gradually during the entire three years that the student is in school.

Perhaps a main channel through which democratic activities may be introduced will come to light as the curriculum is further adjusted to meet individual needs. Extracurricular activities, homeroom guidance programs and classroom projects would appear to offer excellent possibilities.

7. Time Schedule

A. Period I. The period from January 1 to June 15, 1960 will be required for gathering data and processing it for machine computation, developing the design for treatment of the data and the statistical computations following the design. We are on schedule as of March 1. The appendix shows our schedule for January 1 to June 15, 1960.

B. Period II. During the period from September 1, 1960 to June 15, 1961.

a. The data gathered and treated in Period I will be analyzed, and compared closely with the results of other research studies and adaptations made by other school systems;

b. The results will be related to the major hypotheses of the study as set down in sections four and five of this paper;

c. controlled experimentation concerning the instructional program will be developed and implemented with the aid of appropriate school personnel;

d. modifications of the guidance program will be developed and implemented on an experimental basis;

e. One or more reports will be made giving the more important findings and recommended practical applications in a readable form for educators and laymen; and

f. technical articles on pertinent phases of the study may be developed for the information of professional groups.

The reports and articles discussed above will be offered subject to the approval of the Superintendent of Schools and the Coordinator of the Guidance Services Department.

APPENDIX II

June 1, 1960 Home Visitation Report

GUIDANCE SERVICES DEPARTMENT
Lincoln Guidance Research Project

June 1, 1960

TO: Dr. Charles R. Spain, Superintendent; Dr. Stanley W. Caplan, Coordinator, Guidance Services Department; and Robert Evans, Principal, Lincoln Junior High School

FROM: David Segel and Ronald A. Ruble

RE: Home Visitation in the Lincoln Junior High School Community

The home visitation program which was carried out as a part of the Lincoln Guidance Research Project was completed on May 10, 1960. The following is a brief report concerning the procedures used, the methodology of the interviews, interviewer reception in the homes, some general observations concerning homes and families in the Lincoln Junior High School community, and several preliminary bits of data which were easily gathered from the questionnaire check sheets.

This is not a final report on the home visitation program. The additional data is to be coded onto IBM cards and correlations between it and other data must be computed before valid conclusions may be drawn.

David Segel

Ronald A. Ruble

The research team was interested in obtaining information concerning the methods of discipline used within homes in the Lincoln Junior High School community. In addition to this, it was anticipated that information concerning the behavior of children in this community might also be gathered.

There were two main reasons for gathering this information: (1) the information would be helpful in terms of substantiating or disproving the hypothesis advanced in the team's March Report to the Superintendent concerning the child's need for firm, consistent discipline, and (2) information concerning the behavior of the children would be of definite value, for quite often the child's attitudes at home color his response to the school situation.

It was necessary that the research team first delimit the aspects to be studied through home visitation. After a careful study, several areas of enquiry seemed to meet the specifications established:

1. The type of discipline used within the home (i.e. democratic, autocratic, or laissez-faire)
2. The mobility of sample families
3. Family size
4. Occupations of the Parents
5. The predominant language used within the home
6. Parental acceptance and/or rejection of the child
7. The number of television sets, radios, and automobiles owned by these families (for use as an indication of the socio-economic status of the family)

The group of families to be studied had already been selected. The original selection of ninth grade children was done on an arbitrary basis which would seem to insure random selection of a group, and it would also insure that the intelligence quotient distribution of the sample group would be almost identical to the overall intelligence quotient distribution of all ninth grade students.

All of the ninth grade students were administered the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests (both verbal and non-verbal scales). These scores were then arranged into a frequency distribution. The research team then selected every third child on this distribution. Seventy-eight students were selected in this manner.

Since the research team had decided to attempt to gather at least one hundred names for the sample group, it was then necessary to select all of the even numbered students from the remaining names. When this was done, there were one hundred forty-one names on the sample list.

A second criterion was then added. In order that the statistical work which was anticipated could be considered valid, it was necessary that relatively complete information be gathered on most of the students. For this reason, the team went through the available school information concerning each of the sample students, and those cases which did not contain certain test information (such as the Iowa Tests of Educational

Development) were eliminated from the sample group.

The addition of the second criterion reduced the size of the group to one hundred six. These, then were the children whose homes the research team planned to visit.

The research team then found it necessary to design a questionnaire for use by interviewers which would probe the above areas. Fortunately a recent study by Bandura and Walters[1] furnished a number of questions which were quite helpful for a study of this kind. A number of questions used in the study, however, seemed unsuitable for a study sponsored by the Albuquerque Public Schools, for they dealt with such emotionally loaded topics as sexual experience and early toilet training. A total of nine questions were adapted from the forty-two used in this study.

Two questions were added to the others by the research team. One question concerned the size of the family and the ages of the children, while the other concerned the occupations of both the mother and the father.

In the study by Bandura and Walters, the responses to the questions were scored on a number of five point scales. The research team adapted a number of these scales and added two items to the scales to allow space to write the answers to the two additional questions. In addition, one other scale was included concerning the socio-economic status of the family.[2]

The questionnaire was written out in English, and a number of copies were made for the interviewers. In addition to this, a Spanish translation of the questionnaire was made. This was done because it was anticipated that a number of parents might be better able to express themselves in Spanish.

In order that the families might not be unduly alarmed by the interviewer's visit, a preliminary letter, signed by the Superintendent of Schools and the Lincoln Junior High School Principal, was written, and it was sent out to each of the families to be interviewed. The letter was written in English only, and it was written as simply as possible. The letter first described the project briefly, indicated that an interviewer would call upon the family on a specified date (in the morning or the afternoon), assured the family that the information gathered in the interviews would be entirely confidential, and gave the parent the opportunity to change the time of the interview should the time set be inconvenient.

Previous to the actual visitation, a meeting of the interviewers was called. Assignment of specific families to interview was made, considering the time each interviewer could donate to the interview

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[1]Albert Bandura and Richard H. Walters, Adolescent Aggression, (The Ronald Press Company, New York), 1959.

[2]Copies of all questionnaires, scales, and letters may be found in the appendix.

process. The questionnaire and the check sheet were carefully discussed, and an attempt was made to establish communality of marking various items. In an attempt to establish this consistency of scoring, one interview was role played, with the interviewers taking part, and all attempting to score the various answers as they were given.

During the actual interviews, a number of questions concerning the most acceptable method of marking the check sheets came up. Each time this occurred an attempt was made to establish one method of scoring, and the method was communicated to all interviewers.

Three members of the Lincoln Junior High School staff and one member of the Guidance Services Department staff took part in the interviews. The interviewers were John Baca, counselor; Benjamin Esparza, Special Education teacher; and Ronald Ruble, Special Assistant for the project--all from Lincoln Junior High School--and Adolfo Velasquez, Consultant, from the Guidance Services Department.

All of the personnel directly involved in the interviews have had considerable training in guidance, and it was felt that the interviews could be considered to be reliable. In addition to the people noted above, three other people joined the interviewers during the course of the interviews as observers. These were, David Segal, Project Director; Lola Haynie, Counselor, Lincoln Junior High School; and Mrs. Beverly Dodge, Project Secretary.

INTERVIEWERS' IMPRESSIONS OF THE HOME VISITATIONS

It would seem that all the interviewers agreed that the survey proved to be quite successful. In most cases the interviewers were eagerly received by the parents, and quite often, the parents volunteered information which had not been requested in their eagerness to be of assistance.

It was also noticed that some of the parents were apprehensive about the proposed visitation. Generally, after a brief conversation, the parents felt enough at ease to explain that they had thought that their child was possibly in trouble with the school in some way or another. It would seem that a majority of the contacts many parents in this area have had with the school have been under these relatively unfortunate circumstances.[3]

The interviewers seemed to feel that in most cases, the parents made a very definite effort to impress or please the interviewer. In many cases, they were quick to assure the interviewer that their child

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[3]One interviewer related that he had talked with a parent who had told that she and her husband had been sure that their boy was in trouble at school. For this reason, they both had talked to him the previous night, and had, through their insistance that he was in trouble, reduced him to tears.

was well behaved, that he did his homework every night and then he was in bed each night no later than nine o'clock. In light of the known school behavior and attitude of some of the children, it would seem unlikely that these conditions could exist within the home. In other cases, such behavior might well be expected. In essence, though, it would appear that most parents painted a better picture of their children's behavior than one might be led to expect.

All of the interviewers felt that the questions asked within the interview situation were difficult for a number of the parents to answer. Although the interviewers attempted to alleviate this situation to some extent, by talking with the parents in either English or Spanish, depending upon the parents' ability to express himself, it would appear that the parents in the Lincoln Junior High School community did not know or were not able to communicate their aspirational level for their children to the interviewers.

One interviewer commented:

> There did not seem to be a very clear understanding of what performance could be expected from a child and an almost complete disregard for knowledge of a child's potential. Aims and goals were often unrealistic and nebulous and obviously not clearly defined. Generally there was little evidence of efforts to define them. Most parents had given little thought to a child's choice of a career. Success in choosing an occupation seemed to consist in merely finding a . . .steady job. . .

Almost all of the children in the survey sample seemed to be well accepted within the home. In some cases, although the child's behavior in school and in the community was anti-social to a degree, the parents were not rejecting of their child. There seemed to be few demands upon the child within the family unit, outside of a few simple chores, such as emptying the wastebasket, cleaning his room, etc. The parents, in the main, seemed to have developed a comprehensive system of rules and regulations for the children, and it is felt that the general framework and presentation of these rules is authoritarian. However, parental enforcement of these rules was quite permissive. The parents seemed disinclined to keep after a child to do something, preferring to do it themselves rather than keep nagging.

Housing in the Lincoln Junior High School community was generally sub-standard. Although the interviewers did visit a number of homes which would meet and perhaps even surpass middle class standards, they also found a number of poorly built, poorly maintained homes.

Almost all of the homes visited lacked adequate floor space. In a number of cases, the interviewers noticed beds placed in obviously inappropriate but obviously necessary locations, such as a front porch or a living room.

Perhaps the most noticeable feature of the entire home visitation program, though, was the apparent lack of home-school communication. A number of parents expressed a desire for more adequate and more

comprehensive communication, but it was also the feeling of the interviewers that these expressions of interest in communication were possibly quite superficial. It was conceivable that the parents were interested only if the school were to assume the task of coordinating and channeling such information to them. The parents, perhaps, would not go too far out of their way to garner the desired information.

It must be realized that this could be an opinion which does not allow credit where credit is due. The interviewers all have expressed a desire that the matter of home-school communication be carefully investigated for possibilities in the Lincoln Junior High School community.

PRELIMINARY RESULTS OF THE HOME VISITATIONS

Number of Homes Visited. The interviewers were able to speak to the parents of ninety-four out of one hundred six children in the sample group. Contact was not made with the remaining twelve families due to a number of factors: parents out of town, parents ill, parents purposely avoiding the interviewers (in some cases), etc.

Size of Family. The interviewers asked each parent interviewed to list the number of children and their ages. From this information, the Research Team was able to compute mean family size: 7.33 (including children and both parents).

Mobility of the Families in the Sample. This was determined, primarily by implication. The parents were asked to list the schools their child had attended within the last five years. The following are the resultant percentages:

68 % of the families stated that their child had been in two schools (elementary and junior high school),
24% of the families stated that their child had been in three schools,
7% of the families stated that their child had been in four schools, and
1% of the families stated that their child had been in six or more schools during the last five years.

A brief perusal of the Questionnaire Check Sheets would seem to indicate that about 92% of the sample families have lived in the same neighborhood, if not the same house, for at least the last five years. Eight percent of these families have moved about to some extent within this same period of time.

With Whom the Child Lives. This information was gathered both through interviews and school records.

74% of the children in the sample group live with both natural parents,
4% of the children in the sample group live with their mother and a step-father,

16% of the children in the sample group live with their mothers only,
3% of the children in the sample group live with their grandparents,
3% of the children in the sample group live with a married sibling.

Language Spoken Within the Home: The interviewers' judgment was the final authority in this item. The decision of the interviewers was based upon their own experience in working with people similar to those living within the Lincoln Junior High School community, and their own estimation of the individual's ability to express himself well in English or in Spanish.

62% of the parents interviewed apparently spoke Spanish predominantly
38% of the parents interviewed apparently spoke English predominantly.

Percentage of Families Receiving Help from Pensions, or Welfare. In many cases, the interviewers were able to elicit this information in the course of an interview. In some cases, however, it seemed inadvisable to ask such questions. In these cases, the research team was able to get outside assistance in determining whether or not the family was receiving pension or welfare help. Twenty-eight percent of the families listed in the sample receive such help.

Number of Cars, Television Sets and Radios Owned in the Community. Ninety-three percent of the families interviewed owned television sets. Ninety-seven percent of the families interviewed owned a car. Ninety-nine percent of these families owned a radio.

SUMMARY

It would seem inadvisable to attempt to draw any definite conclusions from the information immediately available. Although a number of the facts presented are quite interesting in terms of some thoughts which the research team and others had held, any attempt to draw direct conclusions which would be valid from the limited data immediately available would be inappropriate.

At present, the research team is coding other data gathered during these interviews. At a later date, it is hoped that several implications for changes in the Lincoln Junior High School program may be elicited from fuller data.

LINCOLN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Albuquerque, New Mexico

Dear

We are trying to learn a number of things about the students who go to Lincoln Junior High School. We are doing this to help find different areas in the school program (such as classes, etc.) which might be changed to help more students to be successful in school. Because our staff is small, we can't talk to all the students in Lincoln, so we have chosen a small number of students who we feel are like most of the students here.

We would like to get some information about how these students get along at home, for this seems to be closely connected to their school progress. If it is possible, we would like to talk to you about _____ An interviewer will be in your area on _____ _____ in the _____

We assure you that the information which is gathered will be kept strictly secret. Only the members of the interview team (David Segel, John Baca, and Ron Ruble) will see or make use of it.

We would appreciate your help very much. If the time we have set is not convenient, please telephone us at Chapel 7-2859 between 9:00 A.M. and 4:30 P.M., and we will try to change this for you. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Charles R. Spain, Superintendent

Robert Evans, Principal

HOME VISITATION QUESTIONNAIRE

1. How many children are there in your family?
   a. How many of your children are in school?
   b. What are the ages of _____'s brother(s) and/or sister(s)?

2. What school or schools has _____ attended in the last five years?
   a. How have you felt about _____'s progress in school during this period of time? What have you said to him/her?
   b. Considering _____'s ability, are you satisfied with how he/she is doing in his/her schoolwork?
   c. Have you expressed this feeling to him/her?
   d. How far would you like _____ to go with his/her schooling?
   e. What kind of job would you like him/her to get?
   f. Does _____ know what you expect of him/her?

3. What kind of work does _____'s father (step-father, etc.) do? Is he employed at present? Do you work? What kind of work do you do? Are you working at present?

4. We'd like to get some idea of the sort of things that _____ is allowed to do and the sort of things that he/she isn't allowed to do. What are some of the rules you have for him/her?
   a. How about going out at night?
   b. Does he/she have to check out or be in at a certain time?
   c. Do you expect _____ to let you know what he/she has been doing?
   d. Are there any things you forbid _____ from doing when he/she is with his/her friends? Places you forbid him/her from going?
   e. Are there any of _____'s friends with whom you have discouraged him/her from associating?
   f. (IF OLD ENOUGH) Is _____ allowed to use the family car?
   g. How about smoking and drinking, how do you feel about these?
   h. How about using bad language (swearing)?
   i. Can _____ use the radio and TV as freely as he/she likes?
   j. Are there times when _____ has to do his/her homework?
   k. Are there times when he/she has to keep from being noisy around the house?

5. Some mothers/fathers expect their children to obey immediately when they tell their child to do something. Others don't think that it's terribly important for a child to obey right away. How do you feel about this?

6. If _____ doesn't do what you ask, do you ever drop the subject, or do you always see that he/she does it?

7. (IF NOT AN ONLY CHILD) How well would you say that _____ gets along with his/her brother(s) and/or sister(s)?
   a. How do you handle things when they quarrel?
   b. Suppose _____ strikes his/her brother/sister, what do you do?
   c. How do you deal with it if _____ is unpleasant to them in

other ways, what do you say to him/her?

d. How do their troubles usually start?

e. Who do you think is usually to blame?

8. Has _____ ever complained that a teacher or another adult was being unfair to him/her?

a. (IF YES) What did you do? Say?
(IF NO) Suppose this happened, what would you do? Say?

b. Have you ever encouraged him/her to stand up for himself/herself against an adult?

c. What would you do if you discovered that _____ was giving a teacher a hard time? What would you say?

9. Some youngsters play hooky from school; how about _____?

a. (IF YES) How did you find out about this? What did you say?
(IF NO) Suppose _____ wanted to stay home from school, what would you do? Say?

10. Do you think that _____ has been especially difficult or easy to bring up compared to other children?
(IF NOT AN ONLY CHILD) Do you think that _____ has been especially difficult or easy to bring up compared to his/her brother(s) and/or sister(s)?

11. How do you feel _____ behaves compared with other children?
(IF NOT AN ONLY CHILD) How do you feel _____ behaves compared with his/her brother(s) and/or sister(s)?

a. Do you feel that there are any reasons for this?

HOME VISITATION QUESTIONNAIRE CHECK SHEET

1. Number of children in the family (Q. 1)? _____
   _____a. How many in school?
   _____b. Ages of brothers and sisters? _____

2. Level of school achievement desired of child by parent (Q. 2).
   _____a. Unimportant
   _____b. Expects high school graduation.
   _____c. Expects child to go to college (no specification).
   _____d. Expects child to go to college with selective entrance requirements and/or graduate school (include school teaching here).
   _____e. Expects child to go to college with selective entrance requirements and graduate school (include school teaching here if a prestige school).

3. Pressure placed upon child for school achievement (Q. 2).
   _____a. No pressure placed upon child under any conditions.
   _____b. No pressure becuase of satisfactory work. Would apply if grades drop.
   _____c. Mild pressure for child to work up to expectations.
   _____d. Moderate pressure for work up to expectation level.
   _____e. Strong or constant pressure. Demands that the child do better than necessary to meet ultimate expectations.

4. Employment of parents (Q. 3).
   _____a. Father _____ Presently employed? _____
   _____b. Mother _____ Presently employed? _____

5. Restrictions placed upon child outside of home (Q. 4, a-f).
   _____a. No restrictions whatsoever.
   _____b. Few restrictions. Must let parent know if unusually late, etc.
   _____c. Moderate restrictions. Limit on staying out late, though it varies. Expect to know where child is and with whom. Some restrictions on choice of friends and activities.
   _____d. Strict. Limited latitude for freedom of choice. Some limits on choice of friends and activities.
   _____e. Strict rules, rigidly enforced.

6. Restrictions placed upon child inside of home (Q. 4, g-k).
   _____a. No restrictions unless child's behavior interferes with others.
   _____b. Few restrictions. Limited in minor ways, only.
   _____c. Moderate restriction. Limits set, but there is some latitude.
   _____d. Strict rules in some areas. Limitations in other areas with slight latitude allowed.
   _____e. Strict rules, rigidly enforced.

Questionnaire Check Sheet - Page 2

7. Demands for obedience (Q. 5).
_____a. Does not expect obedience. States that this can not be expected of a child of this age.
_____b. Expects some obedience, but will speak several times. Immediate obedience not expected. Noncompliance tolerated.
_____c. Will tolerate delay under certain circumstances, others not.
_____d. Obedience expected, delay tolerated, and compliance enforced.
_____e. Instant obedience expected. Noncompliance not tolerated.

8. Parental consistency of demands. (Q. 6).
_____a. Very often drops subject.
_____b. Sometimes follows through, but more often drops subject.
_____c. Sometimes drops subject but more often follows through.
_____d. Usually carries through. Occasionally drops subject.
_____e. Practically alwasy carries through. Often makes strong effort.

9. Permissiveness for aggression toward siblings (Q. 7).
_____a. Not at all permissive. All conflicts stopped by parents.
_____b. Usually interferes. May ignore mild disputes.
_____c. Interferes if someone gets hurt or very upset.
_____d. Would restrain only in an emergency.
_____e. Never interferes. Fighting natural. Lets them fight it out.

10. Punitiveness for aggression toward siblings (Q. 7).
_____a. Has never punished and would not do so.
_____b. Has not punished because of no incidents. Would if aggression shown.
_____c. Mild punishment for aggression (scoldings or reprimands).
_____d. Moderate punishment. Possible deprivations of privileges and threats of more severe punishment.
_____e, Severe punishment which may include physical punishment. Parent may get emotionally involved.

11. Permissiveness for aggression toward other adults (Q. 8,9).
_____a. Not at all permissive. Child must respect elders.
_____b. Generally not permissive. Would discourage direct aggression but verbal expression is tolerated.
_____c. Somewhat permissive. Would not interfere unless child was disruptive, insolent or flagrantly defiant.
_____d. Would interfere as a last resort.
_____e. Would never interfere. Not my business.

12. Punitiveness for aggression toward other adults (Q. 8,9).
_____a. Has never punished and would not do so.
_____b. Not punished because of no incident. Would if it occurs.
_____c. Mild punishment for aggression (scoldings and reprimands).
_____d. Moderate punishment. Deprivation of privileges and threats of more severe punishment.
_____e. Severe punishment, including physical. Parent may get emotionally involved.

Questionnaire Check Sheet - Page 3

13. Acceptance-rejection of the child (Whole interview).
_____a. Complete rejection. All comments about child are negative.
_____b. Strong rejection. Most comments negative, some positive.
_____c. Some rejection. Parent ambivalent. More positive.
_____d. Slight rejection. Attitude similar to "e" with reservations.
_____e. No rejection evident. Accepts child for what he/she is.

14. Hostility toward the child (Whole interview).
_____a. Uniformly favorable comments.
_____b. Generally favorable comments with reservations.
_____c. Equally favorable and unfavorable comments.
_____d. Generally unfavorable comments with a few favorable ones.
_____e. Uniformly unfavorable.

15. Socio-economic status (Individual observation).
_____a. Does the family have a television set?
_____b. Does the family have a radio?
_____c. Does the family have a car?
Make _____
Model _____

16. Language spoken in home (Individual observation).
_____

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Cuántos niños hay en su familia?
   a. Cuántos niños tiene en la escuela?
   b. Cuáles son las edades de los (el o la) hermano(s) y/o hermana(s) de _____?

2. Cuáles escuelas ha attendido _____ durante los últimos conco años?
   a. Cómo ha progresado _____ en la escuela durante estos cinco años?
   b. Considerando la abilidad de _____ está Ud. satisfecho con el progreso que ha hecho él en la escuela?
   c. Qué ha espresado Ud. a él como se siente Ud?
   d. Cuánto quiere Ud. que avance él en sus estudios?
   e. Qué clase de trabajo quisiera Ud. que él hiciera?
   f. Sabe _____ lo que Ud. espera de él?

3. En qué trabaja el padre (o padrastro) de _____? Está trabajando él ahora? Trabaja Ud? En qué trabaja Ud? Está trabajando Ud. ahora?

4. Nos puede decir lo que permiten a _____ que haga y cosas que no permiten que haga? Nos puede dar unas cuántas reglas que le han puesto a él?
   a. Cómo se siente Ud. de que él salge de noche?
   b. Le pide permiso de Ud. y tiene que estar en casa a tal hora?
   c. Espera Ud. que él le diga lo que ha hecho?
   d. Qué hay cosas que le prohibe que haga cuando está en companía de sus amigos?
   e. Tiene amigos _____ con quienes Ud. quisiera que no se juntara?
   f. (IF OLD ENOUGH) Le dejan usar el carro?
   g. Cómo se sienten Uds. sobre la cuestión de fumar y tomar?
   h. Cómo se sienten tocante el uso de malas palabras?
   i. Permiten Uds. que tenga él el uso del televisión o el radio como él quiere?
   j. Tiene tiempo fijo él para hacer sus estudios en casa?
   k. A veces lo tienen que callar?

5. Hay madres y padres que esperan que sus hijos les obedescan inmediatemente cuando les hablan. Otros padres no creen que es de gran importancia que los hijos obedescan inmediatemente cuando los padres hablan. Qué es su opinión sobre esta problema? Me puede decir cómo se siente su esposa (esposo) sobre esta cuestión?

6. Si _____ no hace lo que Ud. quiere, cuál de estas cosas hace Ud? Lo olvida o lo hace que haga lo que Ud. manda?

7. (IF NOT AN ONLY CHILD) A su parecer, cómo la lleva con su(s) hermano(s) y/o hermana(s)?
   a. Qué hace Ud. cuando están peleando?
   b. Cuando él le pega a su hermano (hermana) que hace Ud?
   c. Si _____ no la lleva con sus hermanos que le dice Ud? Qué hace Ud?

d. Cuál es la razón porque no la llevan bién?
e. Quién tiene la culpa cuando no la llevan bién?

8. En algún tiempo le ha dicho _____ que un maestro, una maestra o otra persona no la lleva bién con él?
a. (IF YES) En este caso que hizo Ud? Qué le dijo Ud?
(IF NO) En caso que esto pasara, que haría o diría Ud?
b. En algún tiempo le ha dicho Ud. que se oponga contra un adulto?
c. Que acción tomára Ud. si le diría que el se porta mal con un maestro?

9. Hay unos muchachos (muchachas) que faltan a la escuela por gusto. Lo hace _____?
a. (IF YES) Cómo se dió cuenta si faltó por gusto? Qué le dijo Ud?
(IF NO) Si el quisiera quedarse en casa por gusto, qué haría Ud? Qué le diría Ud?

10. Ha tenido mucho trabajo en criar a _____ o se le ha hecho fácil comparándolo a otros muchachos?
(IF NOT AN ONLY CHILD) Ha tenido mucho trabajo en criar a _____ o se le ha hecho fácil comparándolo a su(s) hermano(s) y/o hermana(s)?

11. Como se porta él comparándolo a otros muchachos?
(IF NOT AN ONLY CHILD) Como se porta él comparándolo con su(s) hermano(s) y/o hermana(s)?
a. Tiene alguna razón de portarse cómo se porta?

APPENDIX B

TABLE II-A

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF DOMINANCE SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1483.096		
Between Groups	1	29.179	29.179	.923
Within Groups	46	1453.917	31.607	

TABLE II-B

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF CAPACITY FOR STATUS SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	770.041		
Between Groups	1	54.062	54.062	3.473
Within Groups	46	715.979	15.565	

TABLE II-A

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF DOMINANCE SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1423.095		
Between Groups	1	29.179	29.179	.925
Within Groups	46	1453.917	31.607	

TABLE II-B

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF CAPACITY FOR STATUS SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	770.941		
Between Groups	1	64.082	64.082	3.473
Within Groups	46	716.979	15.585	

TABLE II-C

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SOCIAL PRESENCE SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	876.322		
Between Groups	1	2.405	2.405	.127
Within Groups	46	873.917	18.998	

TABLE II-D

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	528.265		
Between Groups	1	1.265	1.265	.110
Within Groups	46	527.000	11.457	

TABLE II-C

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SOCIAL PRESTIGE SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	876.322		
Between Groups	1	2.405	2.405	.127
Within Groups	46	873.917	18.998	

TABLE II-D

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	528.325		
Between Groups	1	1.325	1.325	.110
Within Groups	46	527.000	11.457	

TABLE II-E

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SENSE OF WELL-BEING SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	2654.080		
Between Groups	1	32.101	32.101	.563
Within Groups	46	2622.979	57.021	

TABLE II-F

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF RESPONSIBILITY SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1108.573		
Between Groups	1	60.906	60.906	2.674
Within Groups	46	1047.667	22.775	

TABLE II-E

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SENSE OF WELL-BEING SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	2564.080		
Between Groups	1	32.101	32.101	.580
Within Groups	46	2532.979	57.081	

TABLE II-F

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF RESPONSIBILITY SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1108.575		
Between Groups	1	60.900	60.900	2.574
Within Groups	46	1047.675	22.775	

TABLE II-G

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SOCIALIZATION SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	2368.827		
Between Groups	1	105.577	105.577	2.146
Within Groups	46	2263.250	49.201	

TABLE II-H

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SELF-CONTROL SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1650.146		
Between Groups	1	96.167	96.167	2.847
Within Groups	46	1553.979	33.782	

TABLE II-A

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SOCIALIZATION SCORES ON MEEK MAZE

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	2865.937		
Between Groups	1	103.537	103.537	[illegible]
Within Groups	46	2762.400	60.052	

TABLE II-B

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SELF-CONTROL SCORES ON MEEK MAZE

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1800.1[illegible]		
Between Groups	1	86.160	86.160	[illegible]
Within Groups	46	1683.977	[illegible]	

TABLE II-I

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF GOOD IMPRESSION SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1215.293		
Between Groups	1	27.814	27.814	1.077
Within Groups	46	1187.479	25.815	

TABLE II-J

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF COMMUNALITY SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	2331.017		
Between Groups	1	.038	.038	.001
Within Groups	46	2330.979	50.673	

TABLE II-1

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF GOOD IMPRESSION SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1215.293		
Between Groups	1	27.814	27.814	1.077
Within Groups	46	1187.479	25.818	

TABLE II-2

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF CONFORMALITY SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	2351.017		
Between Groups	1	.038	.038	.001
Within Groups	46	2330.979	50.675	

TABLE II-K

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF ACHIEVEMENT VIA CONFORMANCE SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1098.446		
Between Groups	1	33.467	33.467	1.446
Within Groups	46	1064.979	23.152	

TABLE II-L

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF ACHIEVEMENT VIA INDEPENDENCE SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	810.001		
Between Groups	1	20.084	20.084	1.70
Within Groups	46	789.917	17.172	

TABLE II-M

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF INTELLECTUAL EFFICIENCY SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variance	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	2064.529		
Between Groups	1	64.550	64.550	1.485
Within Groups	46	1999.979	43.478	

TABLE II-N

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF FLEXIBILITY SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1136.157		
Between Groups	1	.345	.345	.014
Within Groups	46	1135.812	24.692	

TABLE II-M

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF INTELLECTUAL EFFICIENCY SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variance	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	2064.889		
Between Groups	1	64.860	64.860	1.488
Within Groups	46	1999.979	43.478	

TABLE II-N

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF FLEXIBILITY SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	1134.157		
Between Groups	1	.345	.345	.014
Within Groups	46	1133.812	24.652	

TABLE II-O

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF FEMININITY SCORES OF MALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	47	439.321		
Between Groups	1	6.842	6.842	.728
Within Groups	46	432.479	9.402	

TABLE III

MEANS OF MALE GROUPS

ON THE CALIFORNIA PSYCHOLOGICAL INVENTORY

Scale	Unilinguals		Bilinguals	
	Raw Score Means	Mean Standard Scores	Raw Score Means	Mean Standard Scores
Dominance	23.571	44	25.780	48
Capacity for status	15.714	41	12.707	33
Sociability	23.571	49	19.098	39
Social presence	29.000	40	29.634	42
Self-acceptance	17.143	44	16.683	44
Sense of well-being	22.000	11	19.683	6
Responsibility	25.143	38	21.951	32
Socialization	33.714	45	29.512	38
Self-control	27.571	46	23.561	41
Tolerance	17.286	38	12.878	29
Good impression	18.571	48	16.415	43

TABLE III

MEANS OF MALE GROUPS

ON THE CALIFORNIA PSYCHOLOGICAL INVENTORY

Scale	Unfinnegals		Billingsgate	
	Raw Score Means	Mean Standard Scores	Raw Score Means	Mean Standard Scores
Dominance	23.571	44	25.750	48
Capacity for status	15.714	41	12.707	33
Sociability	23.571	49	19.099	39
Social presence	29.000	40	29.654	42
Self-acceptance	17.143	44	18.585	44
Sense of well-being	22.000	11	19.088	6
Responsibility	25.143	38	21.951	32
Socialization	23.714	48	29.812	53
Self-control	27.571	46	23.881	41
Tolerance	17.286	33	12.878	29
Good impression	15.571	48	16.415	45

TABLE III (continued)

MEANS OF MALE GROUPS

ON THE CALIFORNIA PSYCHOLOGICAL INVENTORY

Scale	Unilinguals		Bilinguals	
	Raw Score Means	Mean Standard Scores	Raw Score Means	Mean Standard Scores
Communality	13.286	4	13.366	4
Achievement via Conformance	22.000	38	19.634	33
Achievement via Independence	13.857	39	12.024	34
Intellectual efficiency	25.286	19	22.000	13
Psychological-mindedness	11.100	50	8.537	43
Flexibility	6.143	41	5.902	41
Femininity	15.857	49	16.927	52

TABLE IV-A

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF DOMINANCE SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	1353.489		
Between Groups	1	14.373	14.373	.440
Within Groups	41	1339.116	32.661	

TABLE IV-B

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF CAPACITY FOR STATUS SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	710.536		
Between Groups	1	1.559	1.559	.090
Within Groups	41	708.977	17.292	

TABLE IV-A

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF DURATION SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	1885.180		
Between Groups	1	14.375	14.375	.445
Within Groups	41	1836.115	32.401	

TABLE IV-B

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF CAPACITY FOR STATUS SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	710.586		
Between Groups	1	1.559	1.559	.088
Within Groups	41	708.027	17.292	

TABLE IV-C

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SOCIABILITY SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	723.968		
Between Groups	1	.898	.898	.051
Within Groups	41	723.070	17.636	

TABLE IV-D

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SOCIAL PRESENCE SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	1337.959		
Between Groups	1	2.099	2.099	.064
Within Groups	41	1335.860	32.582	

TABLE IV-C

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SOCIABILITY SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	723.968		
Between Groups	1	.998	.998	.021
Within Groups	41	722.970	17.634	

TABLE IV-D

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SOCIAL TEASERS SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	1257.066		
Between Groups	1	2.099	2.099	.064
Within Groups	41	1254.967	32.623	

TABLE IV-E

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	466.152		
Between Groups	1	3.733	3.733	.331
Within Groups	41	462.419	11.279	

TABLE IV-F

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SENSE OF WELL-BEING SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	2966.730		
Between Groups	1	19.056	19.056	.265
Within Groups	41	2947.674	71.894	

TABLE IV-G

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF RESPONSIBILITY SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	928.959		
Between Groups	1	9.099	9.099	.406
Within Groups	41	919.860	22.436	

TABLE IV-H

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SOCIALIZATION SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	1704.539		
Between Groups	1	27.748	27.748	.679
Within Groups	41	1676.791	40.897	

TABLE IV-6

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF RESPONSIBILITY SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	928.929		
Between Groups	1	9.095	9.095	.408
Within Groups	41	919.830	22.436	

TABLE IV-7

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SOCIALIZATION SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	1704.829		
Between Groups	1	27.748	27.748	.679
Within Groups	41	1676.971	40.897	

TABLE IV-I

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SELF-CONTROL SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Totals	42	2127.606		
Between Groups	1	47.094	47.094	.928
Within Groups	41	2080.512	50.744	

TABLE IV-J

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF TOLERANCE SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	1258.925		
Between Groups	1	16.227	16.227	.535
Within Groups	41	1242.698	30.310	

TABLE IV-1

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF SELF-CONTROL SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Totals	42	2127.000		
Between Groups	1	47.094	47.094	.938
Within Groups	41	2079.912	50.729	

TABLE IV-2

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF TOLERANCE SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	1288.952		
Between Groups	1	16.227	16.227	.322
Within Groups	41	1272.725	50.610	

TABLE IV-K

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF GOOD IMPRESSION SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	1281.522		
Between Groups	1	8.452	8.452	.272
Within Groups	41	1273.070	31.050	

TABLE IV-L

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF COMMUNALITY SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	1937.102		
Between Groups	1	23.242	23.242	.498
Within Groups	41	1913.860	46.680	

TABLE IV-E

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF GOOD IMPRESSION SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	1291.622		
Between Groups	1	4.162	8.162	.272
Within Groups	41	1279.070	31.050	

TABLE IV-D

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF COMMUNALITY SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	1937.102		
Between Groups	1	23.242	23.242	.494
Within Groups	41	1913.860	46.680	

TABLE IV-M

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF ACHIEVEMENT VIA CONFORMANCE SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	764.896		
Between Groups	1	20.105	20.105	1.107
Within Groups	41	744.791	18.166	

TABLE IV-N

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF ACHIEVEMENT VIA INDEPENDENCE SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	829.386		
Between Groups	1	.270	.270	.013
Within Groups	41	829.116	20.222	

TABLE IV-N

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF ACHIEVEMENT VIA CONFORMANCE SCORES OF FEMALE SUBJECTS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	764.680		
Between Groups	1	20.105	20.105	1.107
Within Groups	41	744.771	18.165	

TABLE IV-O

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF INTELLECTUAL EFFICIENCY SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	3188.095		
Between Groups	1	.467	.467	.006
Within Groups	41	3187.628	77.747	

TABLE IV-P

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF PSYCHOLOGICAL-MINDEDNESS SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	607.773		
Between Groups	1	.006	.006	.0004
Within Groups	41	607.767	14.824	

TABLE IV-Q

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF FLEXIBILITY SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	688.781		
Between Groups	1	2.153	2.153	.013
Within Groups	41	686.628	16.747	

TABLE IV-R

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF FEMININITY SCORES OF FEMALE GROUPS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Total	42	539.481		
Between Groups	1	.969	.969	.074
Within Groups	41	538.512	13.134	

TABLE V

MEANS OF FEMALE GROUPS

ON THE CALIFORNIA PSYCHOLOGICAL INVENTORY

Scale	Unilingual		Bilingual	
	Raw Score Means	Mean Standard Scores	Raw Score Means	Mean Standard Scores
Dominance	26.00	50	24.514	47
Capacity for status	11.625	28	12.114	28
Sociability	19.00	38	18.629	38
Social presence	27.625	39	27.057	37
Self-acceptance	16.500	42	17.257	42
Sense of well-being	20.375	10	22.806	14
Responsibility	25.125	35	23.943	33
Socialization	32.250	36	34.314	40
Self-control	22.625	38	25.314	40
Tolerance	11.250	22	12.829	27
Good impression	14.375	40	15.514	43

TABLE V

MEANS OF FEMALE GROUPS

ON THE CALIFORNIA PSYCHOLOGICAL INVENTORY

Scale	Unilingual		Bilingual	
	Raw Score Means	Mean Standard Scores	Raw Score Means	Mean Standard Scores
Dominance	26.00	50	24.514	47
Capacity for status	11.625	59	12.114	58
Sociability	19.00	58	18.629	56
Social presence	27.625	59	27.057	57
Self-acceptance	16.500	42	17.257	42
Sense of well-being	20.375	10	22.606	14
Responsibility	26.125	56	23.943	53
Socialization	32.250	56	34.371	40
Self-control	32.625	58	35.314	40
Tolerance	11.250	52	12.829	27
Good impression	14.375	40	12.514	45

TABLE V (continued)

MEANS OF FEMALE GROUPS

ON THE CALIFORNIA PSYCHOLOGICAL INVENTORY

Scale	Unilingual		Bilingual	
	Raw Score Means	Mean Standard Scores	Raw Score Means	Mean Standard Scores
Communality	16.625	10	18.514	19
Achievement via Conformance	22.500	38	20.743	34
Achievement via Independence	12.625	35	12.829	35
Intellectual efficiency	22.875	17	23.143	17
Psychological-mindedness	8.625	43	8.657	43
Flexibility	5.625	41	6.200	41
Femininity	24.500	56	24.114	53

TABLE VI

MEANS FOR THE LORGE-THORNDIKE INTELLIGENCE TESTS

	Verbal	Non-verbal
Bilingual Groups		
Males	84.780	89.512
Females	86.229	87.143
Unilingual Groups		
Males	90.857	92.286
Females	87.500	90.750

IMPORTANT!

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