

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND ACHIEVEMENT  
MOTIVATION IN FEMALE HOME ECONOMICS FRESHMEN

by

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS . . . . .	11
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	iv
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE . . . . .	3
Origin of Achievement Motivation	
Characteristics of Students High n Achievement	
and Low n Achievement	
Relationship of Achievement Motivation and	
Future Goals	
III. METHODOLOGY . . . . .	27
Subjects	
Instruments	
Procedures	
IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION . . . . .	35
Results	
Discussion	
V. SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH . . . . .	51
Summary	
Implications and Suggestions for Research	
REFERENCES . . . . .	55
APPENDIX . . . . .	65

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Differences of Females with a High and Low n Achievement on the Family Relations Scales . . . . .	36
2. Statistical Correlations of Each Scale in the Family Relations Questionnaire with the Last Scale Concerning Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests of Females with a High n Achievement . . . . .	38
3. Statistical Correlations of Each Scale in the Family Relations Questionnaire with the Last Scale Concerning Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests of Females with a Low n Achievement . . . . .	39

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Greatly increased numbers of students have sought admission to colleges and universities, throughout the nation, during this decade. Present facilities of most of our colleges and universities have not permitted the admission of all students who have applied. This has posed the crucial question: Who shall be eligible to attend college?

In the past, colleges and universities have relied upon scholastic aptitude examinations as a basis for successful admission. Lang, Sferra, and Seymour (1962) suggested that there were other factors, not directly related to the intelligent quotient that determined success in college. These factors were related to the psychological needs of the student. Murray (1938) defined one of these psychological needs as the need to accomplish something difficult; to master or organize; a desire to attain high standards; to excel one's self and to enhance self-ego by the successful exercise of one's talents. Murray labeled this variable the need for achievement.

Under-achievement and over-achievement have been of interest to psychologists, counselors, and researchers in the area of family and child development. Many of these investigators have expressed the need for more conclusive research on achievement motivation. Much of the research conducted thus far has been contradictory, and the results have been

limited. Most of the research has been conducted with male subjects with little conclusive achievement motivation research attempted with female subjects. In the research done, investigators have agreed that females' achievement motivation has a completely different source than the males' achievement motivation. Most of the achievement research conducted with males did not yield the same results as did the same research conducted with females.

Other limiting factors found in the research on achievement motivation have been vague definitions used by the investigators to determine under- and over-achievement. The subjects used have been representative of very limited or unusual populations, because of the time and resources on the part of the investigators. Some investigators have used grades and grade point averages; others have used personality tests to determine achievement motivation. Because of the many different definitions and methods used to study achievement motivation, the results have been debatable and inconclusive. A study relating performance on a particular motivation criterion (such as an attitude test) with other factors in the life experience of females seemed needed.

It was because of the above expressed needs for more conclusive research on the achievement motives of females that the author chose to investigate achievement motivation in females. This research was proposed to meet the following objectives: (1) to investigate the relationships between the past family environment and the degree of achievement motivation in the female freshmen home economics students; (2) to investigate the relationship between past family environment and the future goals and career aspirations of female freshmen home economics students.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Students who scored high on college entrance examinations or general aptitude tests often exhibited promise of being above average students in college. However, these students did not always perform as predicted by the entrance examinations. Some students with average intelligent quotients have excelled in college. Sanford (1962) suggested that a high intelligent quotient did not always indicate the scholastic success of the student. He recognized that factors other than the intelligent quotient entered into academic success. What motivated some students to excel to their fullest capacities and others to be satisfied with mediocracy, or even less? This has been a central concern for the study of achievement motivation.

Sanford (1962) has encouraged the use of personality tests to measure the nonintellectual criteria involved, along with the aptitude tests for college selection. However, many colleges and universities have continued to use only the traditional aptitude tests and high school grades to predict the success of a student.

#### Origin of Achievement Motivation

Many researchers have indicated that parents play a significant role in the early formation of their children's attitudes, values, and



goals. McClelland et al. (1953) stated,

All motives are learned, ... they develop out of repeated affective experiences connected with certain types of situations and types of behavior. In the case of achievement motivation, the situations should involve 'standards of excellence,' presumably imposed upon the child by the culture, or more particularly by the parents as representatives of the culture. The behavior should involve either 'competition' with those standards of excellence or attempts to meet them which, if successful, produce a positive affect or, if unsuccessful, a negative affect. It follows that those cultures or families which stress 'competition with standards of excellence' or which insist that the child be able to perform certain tasks well by himself ... such cultures or families should produce children with high achievement motivation (McClelland, 1953, p. 275).

Research studies have indicated that family environment and achievement motivation could be tested in three different ways: (1) by asking students of known differences in achievement motivation to describe their parents and their upbringing, (2) by relating objective measures of parents behavior to achievement motivation, and (3) by studying intensively a few individuals with high and low n Achievement. (This terminology - n Achievement - developed by Murray, 1938: read n Achievement as "achievement motivation" or "need for achievement.") The study reported in this thesis used the first technique.

Winterbottom (1953), McClelland et al. (1953), Strodbeck (1958), Gordan (1959), Rosen (1961), Pierce (1961), and Helm (1965) found independence training closely related to achievement training in the young child. Independence training was defined as the training of the child to become self-reliant in situations where he competed with standards of excellence. Parents who emphasized independence training gave their children freedom to solve their own problems and make their own decisions.



The freedom given was limited to some degree depending upon the children's ages. Along with this privilege the children were forced to accept the responsibility for the success or failure of their actions. McClelland et al. (1953) found that the age at which such independence training was started and the severity or strictness of its emphasis correlated very significantly with n Achievement scores.

Winterbottom stated, in her classic study (1953) of independence training, that the mothers of sons with a high n Achievement differed from the mothers of sons with low n Achievement. While the number of demands made by mothers of sons with high and low n Achievement did not differ, the mothers of sons with high n Achievement expected their sons to have mastered 60 percent of the listed demands by the age of seven. The mothers of sons with low n Achievement only expected their sons to have met 33 percent of the demands by the age of seven. The demands of the mothers of the low n Achievement sons emphasized mastery of "care-taker" jobs, such as dressing and eating, that freed the mother of doing them. The demands emphasized by the mothers of high n Achievement sons seemed to relate more to the welfare of the child, such as learning his way around the neighborhood. Mothers of sons of high n Achievement imposed less restrictions upon their sons than mothers of sons with low n Achievement. These parents urged the child to master a skill early, restricted him until he learned it, and then let him alone. Their restrictions tended to come after the demands, and then ceased all together. The mothers of sons low in n Achievement made many restrictions which increased with the child's age rather than decreased. One restriction which

showed the most significant difference between the two groups of mothers as to type of restrictions enforced was the "not playing with children his parents did not know or of whom his parents disapproved of." Significantly more mothers of low n Achievement sons checked this item. Adorno et al. (1950) argued that high authoritarianism was the product of a strict home environment where conventional moral standards were stressed. Mothers of low n Achievement sons seemed to have attitudes typical of such homes. These mothers did not want their children playing with strange children and were more apt to have restrictive attitudes favoring the development of sons with low n Achievement or "anti-democratic" attitudes. This type of protective family has encouraged dependencies, prejudices, etc. Helm (1965) found high n Achievement females were significantly less ethnocentric and exhibited fewer tendencies toward anti-democratic thought than did low n Achievement females. Mothers of sons high in n Achievement represented individualistic, democratic, and developmental families stressing early independent achievement. Duvall (1962) reported that the child's n Achievement developed in the family situation in which the mother used democratic principles in disciplining the child and in the case of boys stressed independent achievement at an early age.

What portion of the results, concerning independence training, stated above would be true for females, is debatable. Lowell (McClelland et al., 1953) found the reverse true for females. However, Lowell stated that more extensive research was needed to confirm these conclusions. McClelland believed achievement motivation, for females, was more complicated than for males.

In working with nursery school children and their mothers, Crandall, Preston, and Rabson (1960) found children high in n Achievement were less dependent on adults for help and emotional support. This behavior was found to be consistent at home as well as at school. Mothers who frequently rewarded achievement efforts were less nurturant, but no more or less affectionate than others. They found that direct material rewards of achievement efforts and approval given to the child were more predictive of the child's achievement behavior than maternal affection or independence training.

Shaw and McCuen (1960) studied the level at which academic high achievement became noticeable and discovered the subsequent pattern of achievement in school. Both Fringle and Gooch (1965) and Shaw and McCuen (1960) maintained that under-achievement was related to the basic personality matrix of the individual. If this were true, then such behavior should be seen during the early elementary school years. The sample Shaw and McCuen used was ninth and tenth graders with high I. Q's. Grades were used as the achievement criterion. During the first five grades in school, females with low n Achievement received higher grades than the females high in n Achievement. In the sixth grade the females high in n Achievement started to excel scholastically passing the females low in n Achievement. Females with high n Achievement continued to excel academically through high school. The time of this abrupt change in academic achievement left much speculation, as it coincided with the commencement of puberty. Shaw and McCuen (1960) hypothesized that the females did not display their self-directing tendencies until they

approached adolescence. In the same research conducted with males, the high n Achievement males received better grades through elementary and high school than males of low n Achievement. From this study, it was evident achievement patterns differ for each sex. Achievement motivation was found to begin in the early years when the family environment played a vital part in the personality development of the child.

Henderson, Long, and Ziller (1965) showed that retarded readers in the elementary school were characterized by a high degree of dependency on peers and adults. They were very close to their mothers, rather than their fathers. Kimball (1952) reported that children low in n Achievement often had negative relationships with their fathers. Other studies (Hoffman, 1961; Adorno, 1950; and Kitterman, 1965) have indicated that the father played an important role in the development of the personality of both his daughters and sons.

McClelland et al. (1953) suggested that parents of children low in n Achievement did not demand a high level of performance from their children. Shaw and Dutton (1962) found parents of children low in n Achievement had more negative attitudes toward their children than did parents of children high in n Achievement. They found mothers of females low in n Achievement more dependent, dominant, and in need of respect and dependency of their children. They seemed to fear their own hostile impulses and could not tolerate the aggressive behavior of their children. Mothers of low n Achievement males appeared more seclusive and withdrew from discussing any sexual matters. Fathers of females low in n Achievement suppressed any discussion of matters concerning sex, avoided

expressing affection, and seemed dissatisfied with his role of husband and father. Fathers of males low in Achievement also suppressed any discussion of sex with their sons and tended to be irresponsible in regards to the family welfare.

Centi (1965) discovered the values in the homes of children low in Achievement were directly contrary to the values of the school, and nullified what the school was trying to foster in the children. Little value was placed on the academic success in the homes of these children. Gowan (1965) diagnosed the basic causes of low achievement motivation as: (1) disagreement between parents over methods of rearing the child, (2) transference of problems of parents to the child, (3) overanxiety of overprotectiveness on the part of the parents, (4) fears of parents regarding the child's health or safety, (5) divorces or separations of the parents, and (6) parents' failure to prepare the child for the birth of a new baby. He concluded that the parents were the most important agents in influencing the child's value system.

Gowan (1965) indicated that students low in Achievement were predominantly males, whose parents took little part in church activities and had fewer books in their homes. They had less often received private lessons and had expressed a desire for choosing a vocation for working away from the parental family. The pattern of the parents emerged as one of indifference and rejection as interpreted by the students low in Achievement. He seemed to have trouble budgeting time, participating in social interaction, and adjusting to the societal structure.



Katkovsky, Preston, and Crandall (1964) studied parents' attitudes and their behavior with their children in achievement situations. The parents' own achievement values, expectancies, standards, and feelings of satisfactions in intellectual and artistic areas were frequently associated with their behavior with their daughters and in the physical-skills and mechanical areas with their sons. The fathers seemed to express their own achievement attitudes in their behavior with their daughters, while mothers seemed to express their achievement attitudes into the behavior with their sons.

Rosen (1961) studied family size and achievement motivation. He found boys from the large families (five or more children) tended to have lower achievement motivation than those of small (one to two children) and medium (three to four children) families. The small family (primarily found at the middle class level) has been described as a planning unit driven by ambition. Considerable attention was given to each child's progress in a small family since its limited size gave parents more time to devote to each child. Life in many small families seemed to be organized around the plans for the child's development and future orientation. Rosen said whenever parents were ambitious for themselves and their children, one would expect to find much emphasis upon standards of excellence, high achievement, and intense parental involvement in the child's performance. Early independence training and participation in family decisions characterized the small democratic family. An intensely pushy mother appeared to promote the development of achievement motivation in males, whereas an authoritarian father inhibits the development of achievement

motivation in sons. As the family increased in size, better family organization and a higher degree of discipline were required. This was probably why the head of a large family was often authoritarian. Rosen believed the large family was more likely to value responsibility above personal achievement, conformity above self-expression, cooperation and obedience above individualism. Keeping the family harmony was important. Each child tended to become functionally specialized so he could perform his role in the family division of labor. The child was expected to be self-reliant in areas of self-caretaking rather than in situations where he would have to compete with standards of excellence. Landis (1965) stated that a large family hinders a young female teenager's development with peers in social relationships. She seemed to lack the ability to form friendships with peers.

Rosen (1961) found that there was no statistical significance between achievement motivation and birth order. He found birth order related to family size and social class. In small middle class families, the effect of ordinal position seemed unimportant. As the size of the family increased, the achievement scores for the oldest child in middle class family became higher than for the youngest child. In the lower class family, the reverse was true; the youngest child had a higher achievement score than the oldest. This was explained by the fact that the oldest child was probably expected to be a parent-surrogate and had to submerge his own ideas and ambitions.

Sampson (1962) found a significant tendency for first born persons to have higher Achievement than later born persons. There was a slight



(non-significant) indication that this relationship was stronger for females than for males. First born females seemed to be more resistant to social influence and showed more independence and resistance to influence than first born males. Sampson interpreted his results as suggesting the first born female was involved in rearing of later born siblings, and that this involvement gave her more training in independence at an earlier age than the first born male. This independence training for the first born female led to high n Achievement. The young female was introduced to her adult role at an earlier age than a young male. "Helping mother" was more a part of the females' later role than it was a part of the males' later adult role. The males later responsibility originated in an occupational role in which he was too young to form responsible behavior patterns. Koch (1955) reported first born females were more responsible and rated higher in leadership than first born males. Parents seemed to expect greater responsibility at an earlier age for females, applied greater pressures to the female to show it, and expressed greater approval when she exhibited such responsible, independent behavior.

Watson (1965) did not find ordinal position or number of siblings significantly related to academic achievement. However, these demographic factors and their effects were complicated, interconnected, and interdependent upon one another and difficult to assess individually.

Rosen (1961) reported effects of mothers' ages upon the children's achievement motivation. Sons of young mothers (about 34 years old) had higher n Achievement than sons of older mothers (45 years old) only when

the family size was small. As the size of the family increased, particularly in the lower class, the sons of young mothers dropped rapidly and were surpassed by sons of older mothers in n Achievement.

In studies with high school males Morrow and Wilson (1961) reported that parents of high n Achievement males engaged in more sharing activities, ideas, and confidences with their children; were more approving and trusting; were more affectionate and encouraging with respect to achievement; were less restrictive and severe; and enjoyed more acceptance of parental standards by their youngsters than parents of sons with low n Achievement. They discovered that high family morale fostered academic achievement. Positive attitudes toward teachers and school and interest in intellectual activities were found to be predominant in males with a high n Achievement.

Kelly, North, and Zingle (1965) reported that the effects of broken homes and academic achievement depended upon the child's year in school at the time of the marital separation and the sex of the remaining parent. Children in grades one through three at the time of the parental separation were the poorest achievers, and as mentioned earlier, father-absent homes were linked with poor achievement. No significant differences existed between male and female children. Rolcik (1965) found a significant relationship between scholastic achievement and parental interest in happy-complete homes over unhappy-complete or broken homes.

Swift (1966) commented that the most critical misconception found in research studies was the assumption that parental perceptions of what

they did to a child were adequate representations of what was done to the child by the parents. Human interaction was more subtle than that. Children have quickly absorbed the real culture of their families through watching what their parents do rather than by what their parents say to do. This only reflected one aspect of the complex parent-child relationship where misunderstandings could originate in research. How children perceived their parents' actions and how their parents really acted toward them have differed a great deal. Understanding the whole area of family and child development had been an essential criterion for the background of any investigator studying children. The lack of basic knowledge of children's reactions and methods of operating has limited the results of many research studies.

It possibly was because of the above reasons that many research studies have had contradictory conclusions. A good example was the comparison of a study done by Drew (1957) and Fraser (1959) as reported by Swift (1966). Drews discovered the attitudes of mothers of children with high n Achievement were more authoritarian and restrictive than mothers of children with low n Achievement. Parents of children with high n Achievement seemed to have more punitive attitudes with respect to childrearing. In contrast, Fraser's research implied that friendliness and spontaneity of a lenient democratic atmosphere provided the best family environment for achievement motivation. Also contradictory, was McClelland's et al. (1953) study that showed college students who saw their parents as distant, unfriendly, severe, and unsuccessful were high in n Achievement. When he conducted the same study with high school

boys, the results were reversed. High n Achievement college boys tended to perceive their fathers as unfriendly and unhelpful. High school boys with high n Achievement judged their fathers as friendly and successful. Past studies referred to in this section reflected the correlations of high n Achievement motivation and a good relationship with the father.

The contradictory studies cited above were examples of studies that contained limited results. To understand how this happened, one must look at the variables that were involved. In evaluating the influence of the environment upon the child, many intervening variables were present. This was why one must look at the entire environment instead of one section of it. Although the research studies reported data on one or two variables, it was inevitable that other variables were influencing their results. This was emphasized by Swift (1966) when he considered it impossible to study only one section of the child's environment without considering the remainder. He stated that a family situation was not the same thing as a laboratory situation where a single stimulus could be produced, giving results purely reflecting its influence. However, in a family life situation, a stimulus, deriving its meaning from its context, could be misrepresented when seen alone. Every phase of a child's environment influenced a part of his personality. Yet all these factors were interdependent and too complex to definitely separate.

Rosen (1961) found social class was related to achievement motivation. Douvan (1956) concluded that the pattern of achievement motivation a child developed depended on the class subculture in which he was

trained. She saw the middle class child as one being urged to attain individual achievement, compared to peers by his parents, and as one was taught to respond to symbolic as well as material rewards. The child developed strong desires for accomplishment. Middle class families were oriented toward status striving and upward mobility. To achieve this, parents stressed planning and achievement for themselves and their children. They asserted demands for individual success earlier and more regularly than did parents in the working class. The working class child was not pressed for individual attainment as early or as consistently, and his motivation to succeed in a given task was more related to material rewards such success gave. In an experiment Douvan found achievement striving of working class students dropped significantly when material rewards were absent at the same time motivation of the middle class child remained high.

Rosen (1959) examined the differences in motivation, values, and aspirations of six racial and ethnic groups. The high n Achievers were more characteristic of Greeks, Jews, and white Protestant (Presbyterians and Quakers) than of Italians, French-Canadians and Negroes. The ethnic differences persisted even when social class was controlled.

Strodtbeck (1958) compared achievement motivation of Jewish and Italian families. More n Achievement was found in the Jewish families than the Italian families. The Jewish children were reared in a democratic family with emphasis upon early independence training. The Italian children were from authoritarian families without any emphasis upon independence training. Jewish families held higher educational values



and occupational goals for their children than the Italians did.

The achievement need was found by many to be quite complex in makeup. Factors involved in studying the "need" should be reviewed, separated, turned over and reversed. Research studies that divided their sample population, observed different variables separately, together, and in combinations were more likely to find meaningful and consistent results. Measuring one variable under one condition was found meaningless and controversial.

Characteristics of Students High n Achievement  
and Low n Achievement

Smith (1965) used interviews to study college freshmen boys. The students with low n Achievement felt their parents pressured them for grades, while students with high n Achievement felt they had applied their own pressures. More students with high n Achievement were Protestant and expressly more religious than were students with low n Achievement. Students with low n Achievement were more negative and hostile in their attitudes toward authority than were students high in n Achievement. Students high in n Achievement participated in a greater variety of extra-curricular activities, possessed more hobbies, and were more active in fraternity affairs. (Diener, 1957, found students with high n Achievement lived in residence halls and students with low n Achievement lived in fraternity house.) In contrast, male students with low n Achievement were more interested in athletics, "getting a degree," and girls. Students with high n Achievement believed grades were important;

students low in n Achievement thought grades were overemphasized. Students with high n Achievement described school as a place to learn for the sake of knowledge, while students with low n Achievement considered school as a means to a job and monetary rewards.

Morrow and Wilson (1961b) found similar results in high school males. Students with low n Achievement described themselves as restless, impulsive, and irresponsible, and as belonging to a clique with negative attitudes toward school, achievement, and authority. They were restless, excitement-seeking teens. They tended to date more, get along better with girls, and received greater satisfaction in relationships with girl than males with high n Achievement.

Powell and Jourard (1963) found college sophomore students with low n Achievement showing a significant correlation between measures of security and measures of closeness of their relationship to parents. These authors termed this immaturity. Students with high n Achievement showed a significant correlation between measures of security and closeness of their relationship to friends of same or opposite sex.

Merrill and Murphy (1959) studying college students found that personality traits measured by Edwards Personal Preference Schedule indicated that students high in n Achievement were more dominant and less autonomous, more deferent, and less exhibitionistic. They found these high n Achieving students less affiliative, less concerned about change, and more enduring in need-press terms than students low in n Achievement.



Gebhart and Hoyt (1958) found high achievers scored significantly higher than low achievers on the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) on achievement, order, intraception, and consistency and scored significantly lower on nurturance, affiliation and change. Krug (1959) used the EPPS to compare scores of students high and low in n Achievement. He found students with high n Achievement scored significantly higher on achievement, order, and endurance, and significantly lower on affiliation and heterosexuality. These two studies gave us fairly consistent results.

Most research in the area of achievement motivation has been conducted with male subjects. It is debatable what characteristics would carry-over for females. McClelland et al. (1953), Field (1951), Morrison (1954), and Atkinson (1958) agreed that females' achievement goal had a base greatly different from that of males.

Veroff, Wilcox, and Atkinson (1953) used TAT stories with female students. The mean n Achievement scores were sufficiently high under both "Relaxed" and "Achievement Orientation" conditions to suggest high achievement motivation in females at all times. Males n Achievement scores were low under "Relaxed" conditions and rose significantly under "Achievement Orientated" conditions. Females gave greater achievement-related response to pictures containing male characters than to pictures containing female characters.

Sanford (1962) stated that female with a high n Achievement usually had one or the other of parents who was highly educated or placed high value upon scholarly attainments, and held high hopes and

expectations for the daughter. There seemed to be an early, close involvement with parents and early and persistent awkwardness in social relations with peers. The drive toward academic achievement had more than one source; its determination was complex and it seemed that early relations with parents had a problematic aspect. Special tensions were generated and early emotional drives were channeled into the scholarship motive. Yet this channelization could not have occurred had not one or both of the parents represented intellectual values.

Field (1951) stated that females' achievement scores were correlated with social acceptance and men's were correlated with leadership capacity and intelligence. However, Morrison (1954) found females of high n Achievement did not date as frequently as those of low n Achievement. He reported achievement motivation in females was generally related to affiliation and social acceptance per se, as had been believed. However, he found n Achievement more specifically related to office-holding and status positions in heterosexual relations. His results indicated that the nature of goals of female achievement motivation was related to competition with standards of excellence different from male goals.

#### Relationship of Achievement Motivation and Future Goals

Many researchers have agreed that the socialization of American women for adult roles, especially of women who have gone to college, involved basic discontinuities and contradictions. Simpson and Simpson (1961) explained that from early childhood, until the end of college,

females and males have competed for equal success in school. Therefore, it was to be expected that many females would be drawn toward the world of work, just as males were drawn to it, as a permanent life vocation. Yet, marriage and childrearing were emphasized as a "woman's true vocation." Occupational competition in the outside world was viewed as a masculine activity, and females who competed directly with males for occupational success were regarded with a mixture of hostility and amused disdain. A career female, if she were married, was condemned for being an unsatisfactory wife and mother. If she were unmarried, it was automatically assumed that she could not find a husband, and this was what was left for her to do. Sixteen or more school years were spent in developing her intellectual capacities and interests, all in vain.

For many college females this conflict, between a career and marriage, has been a real problem. Simpson and Simpson (1961) stated if all female undergraduates could choose, 90 per cent would prefer marriage to a career. This study indicated that women, in general, preferred marriage over a career (without marriage). But is that all? Many college women were not content to look forward to a life of a homemaker and nothing else. For women with interests in careers and marriage, graduation from college posed difficult problems. Landis (1965) commented that extensive education and occupational success reduced a female's chances of marriage. Unmarried career females were subjected to severe frustrations and feelings of inferiority by society. Therefore, it was easy to see why many females avoided jobs and occupations

that would reduce their chances of meeting and marrying eligible males.

Frieden (1963) stated that many homemakers expressed to her feelings of emptiness, discontentment, incompleteness, restlessness, or boredom. Many young mothers settled in lovely homes with healthy families questioned, "Who am I." These females felt their homes and families were important to them but they wanted and needed other satisfactions of accomplishment outside the home.

Udry (1966) presented three alternatives for married females. The first was for the female to settle for the traditional sex role of dependency and motherhood, that would make the least conflicting demands upon her. The second alternative was the combination of an instrumental role in the world outside with a sex role within the family. These women were most likely to have the most active, exciting, and demanding life. This decision did mean conflicting responsibilities, roles, duties, and a more complicated self-concept. For the educated female a third option was suggested that was easier to manage than both a career and domesticity together, and more interesting and challenging than a lifetime as a full-time homemaker. Conflicting roles when played one after another in sequence can be complementary. After motherhood many females returned to professional jobs. However it was not easy as in most fields the females were out-of-date after ten years absence and needed educational refurbishing in order to obtain their former level of jobs again. Sometimes this presented too large a challenge to comfortably secure females satisfied with the routine household tasks.

Simpson and Simpson (1961) summed up their research study by stating career-females in choosing an occupation were usually influenced by the nature of the work tasks as outlets for exercising their abilities and possibilities of combining a given occupation with family life. The non-career females gave more importance to extrinsic occupational rewards while career females considered intrinsic features important. Career females were more likely than non-career females to rank occupational models among people who had most influenced their occupational choices, and less likely to accord high influence rank to relatives and peers. It was concluded that career females had a rather special set of values and influences different than the non-career female whose values were those of security and conformity.

Wiel (1961) investigated the factors that permitted a satisfactory arrangement in relation to a female's performance in more than one role. Such factors were found to encourage a married female to enter the occupational sphere: (1) When her husband's attitude toward her outside employment was positive. (2) When she performed in an occupation before marriage which required high educational achievement or specialized training. (3) When the female continued to work after marriage. (4) When the female had achieved high professional level or had had specialized training. (5) When her husband accepted an obligation for child care and household chores. (6) When children were of school age. Differential availability of employment, the high socio-economic background of the family, the wife's work experience before marriage, debts of the family unit, and plans to purchase big items showed little

or no relationship to planned or actual work participation.

Landis (1965) stated that women did not work for economic reasons as 40 percent of their earnings usually went for taxes. Employment brought social contacts, a chance to use skills and capacities, a sense of work satisfaction, a chance to dress-up and have their hair done at the beauty parlor. Employment gave a female a feeling of accomplishment. Females were seeking status and independence as a person. Even the lower status jobs gave some women an outlet for energies and a chance to get out of the house. However, satisfaction and fulfillment were not as great in these jobs as in the high status and educational level jobs.

Hoyt and Kennedy (1958) studied the interest and personality correlates of career-motivated and homemaking-motivated college females. They found homemaking-oriented females scored significantly higher on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank in 8 scales: Buyer, Housewife, Elementary teacher, Office worker, Stenographer, Secretary, Business Education teacher, Home Economics teacher, and Dietician. Career-oriented females exceeded homemaking oriented females in 6 scales: Artist, Author, Librarian, Psychologist, Physical Education teacher, and Physician. Personality differences on the EPPS were found on five scales. The homemaking group scored high on heterosexuality and succorance. The career-oriented group scored higher on achievement, intraception, and endurance.

Parents influenced children's future goals and aspirations. Shore and Leiman (1965) found parents of children high in Achievement encouraged



specific goals requiring academic training; parents of children low in Achievement related to indecision or goals requiring little academic training. Parents of the children with high Achievement saw assets and liabilities in terms of academic abilities; parents of children with low Achievement saw assets and liabilities in terms of personality traits and social ability. Demos (1965) also found students low in Achievement thinking personality, knowing the right people, and the ability to persuade as being instrumental for success in a chosen field. The students with high Achievement rated knowledge of the facts and theories as important for success in a particular field.

Matthews and Tiedeman (1962) and Morrison (1951) reported college-going females have parents with more relaxed attitudes toward time of dating and marriage than did parents of those not aspiring to go to college.

Sattler and Neuringer (1965) found females low in Achievement were more realistic in setting aspiration levels than males low in Achievement. These females were more ambivalent about their aims, while the males were hostile and negativistic toward socially prescribed academic goals.

Mead (1949) stated that men need to find reassurance in achievement to build up their egos. She reported that cultures frequently phrase achievement as something women do not or cannot do. This statement could be quite debatable.

Achievement motivation originated in the personality maturation of an individual, influenced by her innate ability and a complexity of



environmental factors. The family environment has been found to contribute the most influence to achievement motivation and future goals and career aspirations.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

This research study was designed to investigate the relationship between family environment and the degree of achievement motivation in female freshmen Home Economics students at Kansas State University. The goals and aspirations of the female students were correlated with their family background. A personality test and questionnaire on family relations were given to determine the results presented in this paper.

#### Subjects

The target population was comprised of 116 female freshmen Home Economics students. The selected population was derived from an original population of 205 freshmen, sophomore, and junior female Home Economics students enrolled in seven sections of the Human Relations course at Kansas State University, Fall semester 1966-67.

All 205 female Home Economics students in the original population were administered the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS). The EPPS tests of the 116 freshmen female Home Economics students in the target population were separately classified and machine scored. After scores of all the target populations were placed on a continuum, with respect to the Achievement variable in the EPPS, the sample population was selected. The sample population of home economics freshmen used in

this research study, was comprised of all high and low n Achievement students in the target population.

High and low n Achievement students were determined by their EPPS Achievement variable score. All students who had an n Achievement score at or above the 85th percentile were classified as high achievers, and all students who had a n Achievement score at or below the 16th percentile were classified as low achievers. This procedure for n Achievement determination was suggested in the EPPS Manual based on national norms (Edwards, 1959, p. 15). The sample population was comprised of 22 low n Achievement and 10 high n Achievement students.

### Instruments

#### Edwards Personal Preference Schedule

The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) is a personality test, designed primarily as an instrument for research and counseling purposes, to provide quick and convenient measures of a number of relatively independent normal personality variables. The variables measured were adapted from those first defined and named by H. A. Murray and others (1938). Each variable was defined on the EPPS profile sheet provided by the Kansas State University Counseling Center. A copy can be found in the Appendix. The Achievement variable was defined in terms the need to be known as an authority on something, to accomplish something of significance, to be able to do things better than others.

The reliability of the variables in the EPPS was assessed by Edwards using the split-Half reliability coefficient or the coefficient of internal consistency. These coefficients were obtained by correlating the rows and columns scores for each variable in over 1509 subjects in the college sample. The internal consistency coefficients, corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula, was .74 for the Achievement variable (Edwards, 1959, p. 19). Several tests were conducted for validity giving a positive indication.

The EPPS took 50 to 60 minutes to administer to each class. The directions used were those given in the manual. The author administered the test to all seven classes. The results were machine-scored by the National Computer Systems of Minneapolis, Minnesota.

The EPPS differed from many other personality inventories as it did not measure such traits as emotional stability, anxiety, adjustment, and neuroticism. The kinds of questions and the names of the personality variables on some other tests could have caused some students some anxiety and confusion. For research and counseling purposes, where it was desirable to report back scores to the subjects as was done in this study, such inventories would have presented definite problems. These connotations were less likely to be attached to variables in the EPPS.

Gebhart and Hoyt (1958) and Krug (1959) have studied the usefulness of the EPPS in understanding special problems of over- and under-achievement in college. Goodstein and Heibrun (1962) believed the EPPS was more predictive for college students than for high school students. Gebhart and Hoyt (1958) found over-achievers received significantly (at .001

level) higher scores on the Achievement variable than under-achievers. Over-achievers were students who received higher grades than were predicted for them, and under-achievers received grades lower than were predicted. Krug (1959) stated for the purposes of selection, the EPPS and certain evidences of past performance were functionally equivalent. Bachman (1964), Demos and Spolyar (1961), and Lunneborg and Lunneborg (1966) indicated the Edwards n Achievement scale did not significantly predict academic performance. However, academic performance did not always indicate n Achievement in an individual. Froehlich and Mayo (1963) commented that no instrument measures the same variable as another, particularly in the area of achievement motivation. Melikian (1958) compared Edwards' test and McClelland's measure of n Achievement. McClelland used imaginative stories evoked by two TAT cards and two pictures designed by him and his associates. No significant correlation was found between the EPPS and McClelland's methods of measuring n Achievement. This proved the complexity of the n Achievement.

The EPPS was used in this achievement motivation research study because: (1) it was recommended by the Counseling Center at Kansas State University; (2) it gave a complete profile on each individual's personality as a whole and suggest possibilities for more research on personality; (3) it was easy to interpret the results to a group; (4) the results had no negative effects causing concern to the students; (5) it was easy to administer, and (6) it could be machine-scored.

### The Family Relations Questionnaire

The Family Relations Questionnaire used in this study was adapted from a questionnaire used by Morrow and Wilson (1961a) in their 1955-57 study of bright high- and under-achieving high school boys on the Portland, Oregon, Gifted Child Project. They adapted their questionnaire from A. W. Brown, reported in Havighurst and Taba (1949).

The questionnaire contained sixteen scales with six items each in which the respondent indicated for each item the extent to which it applied to his relationship with his parents. The author of this study used only fifteen of the sixteen original scales. The original sixteenth scale (Orderliness and Regularity at Home) was omitted because it was considered inappropriate for the sample population used in this study and was not found significant in Morrow and Wilson's study (1961a) using this questionnaire. The new sixteenth scale was constructed by the author of the research reported in this thesis. The scale was added to compare the future goals, aspirations, and career-interests of females with a high and low n Achievement. All six items of each scale appeared in sequence in the questionnaire, and the sixteen scales followed each other without a break in the questionnaire and without indication of scale titles. The scale titles, given below and in the Appendix, indicated what each scale was intended to measure. All titles were stated in the positive direction. Items in the questionnaire expressing a "negative" situation or attitude were scored in a direction opposite to that of "positively" stated items. Each item had four levels of



weighted answers. Each item could be answered (1) not at all, (2) sometimes, (3) often, or (4) very often.

The scales were--

1. Family sharing of recreation.
2. Parental approval.
3. Parents' sympathetic encouragement of achievement.
4. Lack of parental overprotection.
5. Family sharing of ideas and confidences.
6. Parental affection.
7. Lack of parental restrictiveness as to activities.
8. Family sharing in decision-making.
9. Daughters' acceptance of parental standards.
10. Lack of parental over-insistence on achievement.
11. Daughters' affection for parents.
12. Lack of severity of parental discipline.
13. Parental trust in daughter.
14. Parental harmony.
15. Parental approval of peer activities.
16. Future goals, aspirations, and career interests of daughters.

The last scale had to do with the females' self image and role orientation. The item reflected their attitudes toward their future roles; ambitions, and goals in life. Their risk-taking ability was included in one item to reflect achievement motivation (Katona, 1960, pp. 86-91). The majority of the scales had reliabilities of about .80



or higher. Since the sixteenth scale was constructed by the author, no reliability was available. A pre-test was conducted to test for readability. The questionnaires were coded to prevent direct identification of the individuals involved.

#### Procedures

The EPPS was administered to the seven sections of the Human Relations course Fall semester, 1966-67, at Kansas State University. The EPPS was given by the author with the consent of the instructors involved. A pilot study was conducted earlier with students not involved in this study. After taking the EPPS the students signed up for group interpretation sessions at which time they were given the profile containing the results of the EPPS. Dr. Carroll Kennedy from the Counseling Center and the author met with the interested students on January 17 and 18, 1967, to return the test profiles and interpret the results. During this period the ten minute Family Relations Questionnaire was administered to every student.

From the total population of 205 students, only 116 students qualified as freshmen, female Home Economics students. From the 116 students, two groups were selected on the basis of their EPPS scores of n Achievement. The students with scores below the 16th percentile comprised the low n Achievement group. The students with scores above 85th percentile comprised the high n Achievement group. This was one standard deviation above and below the mean (Edwards, 1959, p. 15). There were 22 students in the low n Achievement group and 10 students

in the high n Achievement group. Approximately 50 percent of the students in these two groups were present at the interpretations sessions. The remaining students in the high and low n Achievement groups were contacted individually by the author and given the Family Relations Questionnaire.

A Chi-square analysis was computed for each scale on the questionnaire to see if the two groups answered the respective scale questions significantly different. A Correlation Coefficient was used between the 16th scale concerning future goals and aspiration and each of the first 15 scales concerning family environment. A Chi-square analysis was computed on the biographical information included with the questionnaire.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### Results

Chi-square analyses were computed to see if a significant difference existed between the family environments of females with a high and low n Achievement. The first fifteen scales in the Family Relations Questionnaire attempted to measure the areas of family environment and family relations. The last scale on the questionnaire, constructed by the author, attempted to measure future goals, aspirations, and career interests of each subject. Table 1 shows the results of this analysis. There were three statistically differences and a few trends. Scale five was significant at the .10 level. Scales seven and sixteen were significant at the .05 level.

Statistically significant differences at .05 level of confidence were recorded between females with a high and low n Achievement for scales seven and sixteen. Scale seven represented the lack of parental restrictiveness as to the activities of their daughters. The parents of females with a high n Achievement allowed their daughters to make their own decisions concerning general activities and family group activities significantly more often than did parents of females with a low n Achievement.

TABLE 1  
 DIFFERENCES OF FEMALES WITH A HIGH AND LOW N ACHIEVEMENT  
 ON THE FAMILY RELATIONS SCALES

Scale	Median	Percent Highs (N=10)	Above Median Lows (N=22)	Chi-Square Value
1	16	70	59	.276
2	19	70	55	1.66
3	16	60	73	.276
4	22	60	50	.276
5	15	40	64	3.219*
6	17.5	50	50	.057
7	18	100	50	4.22**
8	15	50	64	.057
9	18	60	55	.276
10	20.5	40	55	1.005
11	18.5	50	50	.057
12	19	60	73	1.005
13	20	80	55	1.66
14	18	60	55	.276
15	21	70	59	1.66
16	18	80	41	4.22**

\*Significant at .10 level,  $\chi^2 > 2.706$ , N=32.

\*\*Significant at .05 level,  $\chi^2 > 3.84$ , N=32.

Scale sixteen represented the future goals, aspirations, and career interests of these females. There was a significant difference between females high and low in n Achievement on this scale. Females with a high n Achievement had significantly higher aspirations and more career interests than females low in n Achievement.

A less marked but significant difference at the .10 level existed for scale five. This scale emphasized detailed personal communication between parents and their daughters. Females with a low n Achievement discussed significantly more often this type of information than did females with a high n Achievement.

The statistician compensated for the small sample in his analysis, but the results might have had more definite trends if the sample populations were larger.

A Correlation Coefficient was used to examine the relationship of each of the first fifteen Family Relations scales with the last scale concerning the future goals, aspirations, and career interests of these females. Table 2 illustrates the results of the correlations for females with a high n Achievement.

The only significant correlation found was between scale fifteen and scale sixteen. Females with a high n Achievement showed a negative correlation between Parental Approval of Peer Activities Scale and the Future Goals and Aspirations Scale. The students with high aspirations and goals responded that parental approval of their activities was not given in general.

TABLE 2

STATISTICAL CORRELATIONS OF EACH SCALE IN THE FAMILY RELATIONS  
QUESTIONNAIRE WITH THE LAST SCALE CONCERNING FUTURE GOALS,  
ASPIRATIONS, AND CAREER INTERESTS OF FEMALES  
WITH A HIGH N ACHIEVEMENT

Relationship of Scales			Statistical Correlations (r)
1	to	16	-.435
2	to	16	+.069
3	to	16	-.054
4	to	16	-.216
5	to	16	+.408
6	to	16	+.179
7	to	16	-.469
8	to	16	+.500
9	to	16	+.058
10	to	16	-.463
11	to	16	+.191
12	to	16	-.486
13	to	16	-.587
14	to	16	-.404
15	to	16	-.659*
Total average	to	16	-.233

\*Significant at .05 level,  $r > .632$ ,  $N=10$ .



TABLE 3

STATISTICAL CORRELATIONS OF EACH SCALE IN THE FAMILY RELATIONS  
QUESTIONNAIRE WITH THE LAST SCALE CONCERNING FUTURE GOALS,  
ASPIRATIONS, AND CAREER INTERESTS OF FEMALES  
WITH A LOW N ACHIEVEMENT

Relationship of Scales			Statistical Correlations (r)
1	to	16	-.120
2	to	16	-.269
3	to	16	+.322
4	to	16	-.058
5	to	16	+.244
6	to	16	+.155
7	to	16	+.094
8	to	16	+.113
9	to	16	+.065
10	to	16	-.038
11	to	16	-.171
12	to	16	+.154
13	to	16	-.103
14	to	16	-.185
15	to	16	-.130
Total average	to	16	-.011

\*Significant at .05 level,  $r > .423$ ,  $N=22$ .

The correlations between the Family Relations scales and the future goals, aspirations, and career interests of females with a low n Achievement are shown in Table 3. No significant correlations were observed.

No significant differences were found between high and low n Achieving participants in relation to their ordinal position, size of hometown, size of high school graduating class, rank in high school graduating class, fathers' educational level, fathers' employment, and mothers' educational level, and mothers' employment status.

#### Discussion

Data presented in Table 1 indicated that the family environment of females with high n Achievement is appreciably different from that of females with a low n Achievement. Only two family environment scales showed statistically significant difference at the .05 level; however, several scales showed trends that merit discussion. Statistical correlations, between the Family Relations scales (scales 1 through 15) and the last scale (16) concerning future goals and aspirations of the respondents, yielded only one significant correlation for high n Achievement females and no significant correlations for the low n Achievement females. Further analysis of the data indicated that several trends were present.

### Scale 1: Family Sharing of Recreation

No significant difference was recorded between high and low n Achievement females for this scale (Table 1). A trend existed for females with a high n Achievement in Table 2. A negative trend was found when correlating Sharing of Family Recreation Scale with Future Goals and Aspirations Scale.

### Scale 2: Parental Approval

No significant difference was recorded between the high and low n Achievement females for this scale (Table 1). This scale included parental approval of their daughters' actions, behavior, and development as a person. As shown in Table 1, high n Achieving females tended to receive more of this type of approval from their parents than low n Achieving females.

The correlation in Table 3 reflected a very slight trend for the low n Achievement subjects. The negative correlation showed that a low score for the Parental Approval Scale seemed to correlate with a high score for the Future Goals and Aspirations Scale. Perhaps, when parental approval was not given so easily, the respondents had to strive harder to receive approval, and they began to experience satisfaction and gain more confidence in themselves. It could be that these students looked to a job for satisfaction and approval when they did not get it from their parents.

### Scale 3: Parents' Sympathetic Encouragement of Achievement

No statistically significant difference was reported between the high and low achieving respondents for this scale (Table 1). In correlating this scale with future goals and aspirations (Tables 2 and 3), low n Achieving females with parents who did encourage achievement during the school years tended to have high goals and aspirations.

### Scale 4: Lack of Parental Overprotection

No significant difference was found between females high and low in n Achievement for this scale (Table 1). No trends were found in Tables 2 and 3. The correlations with future goals and aspirations were quite small for both achievement groups. The correlations for each group were in the negative direction.

### Scale 5: Family Sharing of Ideas and Confidences

A statistically significant difference at the .10 level was reported between high and low n Achieving females for this scale (Table 1). The scale centered around communication between parents and daughter about minor daily routines and activities and about serious intellectual, political, and religious subjects. The actual content of the questions in the questionnaire for this scale were not the typical questions one would think about when reading the title scale. Because of the unusual questions in the questionnaire for this scale, the results were somewhat contradictory. Table 1 showed that females low in n Achievement communicated more on the matters stated above with their parents than females

high in n Achievement. It could be that females low in n Achievement were more dependent upon their parents for political, religious, and cultural values; and therefore, discussed these more often than the high n Achieving females who were more independent and formulated their own values based upon personal experience. High n Achieving females would have been bored in relating all their routine daily activities to their parents and probably felt it was only their own concern. They also may not have had time to spend conversing on these things with parents. Whereas, low n Achieving females with a very close attachment to their parents could have felt more secure in relating everything to their parents for approval or disapproval. Low n Achieving females might depend more on their parents in making decisions for them than high n Achieving females.

Powell and Jourard (1963) found a significant correlation between immaturity and a very close relationship between a student and one parent. The mature student had a similar closeness with peers, instead of parents. Students with a high n Achievement seemed to be able to handle their own problems and seeked advice from peers. Smith (1965) found college freshmen with a high n Achievement were more mature than those with a low n Achievement.

In correlating this scale with Future Goals and Aspirations Scale, a somewhat different picture emerged. A positive trend was found in Table 2. The high n Achievers who did discuss their ideas and activities with their parents seemed to have higher goals and aspirations for the future. This scale needs further investigation and revision. The

validity was questionable to the investigator of this study.

#### Scale 6: Parental Affection

No significant difference was cited between the two groups of high and low n Achievement females for this scale (Table 1). No trends were present in Tables 2 and 3. Research has shown parental warmth, concern, and affection were important in fostering a need for approval and achievement for one's own personal satisfactions. Parental affection can be expressed in various ways resulting in different effects upon different daughters. More research should be done in this area to clarify the term "affection."

#### Scale 7: Lack of Parental Restrictiveness as to Activities

A statistically significant difference at the .05 level existed between females high and low in n Achievement for this scale (Table 1). Daughters high in n Achievement received significantly higher scores on Lack of Parental Restrictiveness as to Activities Scale than daughters low in n Achievement. Parents of females with high n Achievement seemed to give their daughters more opportunities to make decisions concerning their own activities. This coincided with the results and conclusion in scale five, as these parents seemed more concerned that their children develop independence and an ability to take care of themselves.

In Table 2, a negative trend was present for participants high in n Achievement. The Lack of Parental Restrictiveness as to Activities Scale showed a negative correlation with the Future Goals and Aspirations



Scale. This area might also be investigated further to see the value and effects of parental restrictiveness.

#### Scale 8: Family Sharing in Decision-Making

No significant difference was reported between high and low n Achievement females for this scale (Table 1). This scale included parents allowing their daughters to help in family decision-making and personal decision-making. This scale seemed to suggest the type of family as being either democratic or authoritarian in nature.

A trend was found in Table 2. For females high in n Achievement, a positive correlation existed between Family Sharing in Decision-making Scale and Future Goals, and Aspirations Scale. Females from a democratic family with decision-making powers had high future goals and aspirations. The experience in helping with family decisions may have had an influence upon the decisions of these females concerning their own future goals, family, and career interests.

#### Scale 9: Daughter's Acceptance of Parental Standards

No significant difference was reported between the two achievement groups on this scale (Table 1). This scale was concerned with the daughters acceptance of the parents ideas, beliefs, opinions, and philosophy of life. No trends were present in correlating this scale with the future goals and aspirations of the participants.

**Scale 10: Lack of Parental Over-Insistence on Achievement**

No statistically significant difference was found between high and low n Achievement females (Table 1). In Table 2 a trend existed showing that Parental Over-insistence on Achievement Scale correlated positively with Future Goals and Aspirations Scale in the case of high n Achievement subjects. There was no such trend for low n Achievement subjects. McClelland et al. (1953) suggested that parents of children low in n Achievement did not demand a high level of performance from their children.

**Scale 11: Daughter's Affection for Parents**

No significant difference existed between females high and low in n Achievement for this scale (Table 1). There were no trends in correlating this scale with Future Goals and Aspirations Scale. It may be that freshmen in college were a little too sophisticated to answer these questions for this scale realistically. To many, showing affection to parents was a sign of dependence, that peers tended to criticize.

**Scale 12: Lack of Severity in Parental Discipline**

No significant difference was found between high and low n Achievement females on this scale (Table 1). The questions in the questionnaire for this scale were slightly juvenile in nature and may have influenced the respondents' answers. In Table 2 a trend was found. For females high in n Achievement Lack of Severe Parental Discipline Scale seemed to correlate negatively with Future Goals and Aspirations Scale. Perhaps,

this suggests that parents who were stricter and more firm with daughters had daughters high in n Achievement. Research supporting these data was done by Drews and Teahan (1965). They reported that attitudes of mothers of children with high n Achievement were more authoritarian and restrictive than mothers of children with low n Achievement.

#### Scale 13: Parental Trust in Daughter

No significant difference was found between the high and low n Achieving females in this scale (Table 1). A trend did show females high in n Achievement reported more parental trust than females low in n Achievement. Perhaps, parents of females high in n Achievement were able to trust their daughters enough to give them the independence they wanted. It may be that trust also had a psychological effect upon the individual, giving her confidence in herself as a person.

An unusual trend was found in Table 2. For high n Achieving students, Parental Trust in Daughter Scale correlated in the negative direction with Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests Scale. However, it could be a sense of trust does have an affect upon different areas of personality development which indirectly could affect the achievement drive. This scale needs more research.

#### Scale 14: Parental Harmony

No significant difference existed between the two achievement orientated groups for this scale (Table 1). This scale title was a little misleading in that the questions within this scale characterized a very

limited definition of "harmony." Two individual parents can have differences of opinions at times, but could still have a harmonious marriage. Parents may not show affection to each other openly, but still could have a harmonious marriage. The fact that parents stay home a great deal does not always mean they do not have a harmonious relationship. These aspects could have accounted for the lack of any significant difference on this scale for the two achievement groups.

There was a slight negative trend in Table 2, according to the original definition of harmony, as indicated in the questionnaire. Parental harmony seemed to correlate negatively with high goals and aspirations of females with a high n Achievement. However, these results were questionable, because of the limited definition of "harmony."

#### Scale 15: Parental Approval of Peer Activity

No significant difference was recorded between participants with a high and low n Achievement for this scale (Table 1). There was a trend for high n Achieving daughters to have more parental approval of peer activities than low n Achieving daughters.

A statistically significant negative correlation existed between this scale and the Future Goals and Aspirations Scale for females with a high n Achievement (Table 2). Evidently, parental approval of peer activity was not important in encouraging high goals and aspirations. This might mean these females had enough confidence in their own opinions. Winterbottom (1952) discovered a correlation between independence training and achievement training. Independence training encouraged youngsters

early to find their own friends and to rely more upon themselves and less upon the family. Crandall, Preston, and Robson (1960) reported that students with a high n Achievement tended to share their activities with peers rather than with their family.

#### Scale 16: Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests

A statistically significant difference at the .05 level was found between females high and low in n Achievement on this scale (Table 1). Females high in n Achievement had significantly higher future goals, aspirations, and career interests than the females with a low n Achievement. Hoyt and Kennedy (1958) found career-motivated college females scored significantly higher on the Edwards n Achievement variable than the homemaking-motivated college females. Achievement motivations seemed to have an effect on whether a female has career interests or not.

A statistically significant correlation existed between scales fifteen and sixteen for high n Achieving females as stated above. This was the only significant correlation among the fifteen Family Relations scales when correlated with the last scale on future goals and aspirations.

#### Classification Information

Information was recorded regarding ordinal position of respondents, size of hometown, size of high school graduating class, rank in high school graduating class, educational level and occupation of the father,

and the education level and occupation of the mother. There was a trend for females with a high n Achievement to have parents with more formal education than parents of females low in n Achievement. Analysis of the educational level of the fathers showed a stronger trend in this direction than the analysis of the educational level of the mothers. Katkovsky, Preston, Crandall (1964) found fathers tended to communicate their own achievement attitudes in their behavior with their daughters, and mothers to their sons. This seemed to be true in this research.

The original Family Relations Questionnaire was used by Morrow and Wilson (1961a). They reported the family relations of 96 high school males with an equal number of high and low n Achievers. The results indicated that high n Achievers' parents reportedly engaged in more sharing of activities, ideas and confidences; were more approving, trusting, and affectionate; encouraged achievement; were less restrictive and severe; and enjoyed more acceptance of parental standards by their youngsters. The study reported in this thesis used the same basic questionnaire, but received different results. However, no comparisons could be made of the results, because of the population difference between males and females, and the differences in educational level and maturity of high school males in contrast with college females.



## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH

#### Summary

The purpose of this study was 1) to investigate the relationships between past family environment and the degree of achievement motivation in the female home economics freshmen; and 2) to investigate the relationship between past family environment and the future goals and career aspirations of female freshmen home economics students. The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule was used as the achievement criterion to determine the two groups of high and low n Achieving subjects. A Family Relations Questionnaire was given the two groups of females. A Chi-square analysis was computed to see if the response of the two groups to the Family Relations Scales in the questionnaire were significantly different. There were three significant differences between the two groups on Scales Five, Seven, and Sixteen. Several trends were indicated.

Freshmen with a high n Achievement scored significantly higher on the Lack of Parental Restrictiveness as to Activities Scale and higher on the Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests Scale than freshmen with a low n Achievement. Several trends were found. Freshmen with a high n Achievement tended to score higher on the Parental Approval Scale, Parental Trust Scale, and Parental Approval as to Peer Activities Scale. Freshmen with a low n Achievement had significantly higher score on

Family Sharing of Ideas and Confidences Scale than did freshmen high in n Achievement.

A correlation coefficient was computed between each of the Family Relations Scales and the last scale on the questionnaire concerning future goals and career aspirations. Only one significant relationship and several trends were found.

For females with a high n Achievement, a significantly negative relationship existed between the Parental Approval of Peer Activities Scale and the Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests Scale. Other negative trends were found for the Family Sharing of Recreation Scale, Lack of Parental Restrictiveness as to Activities Scale, Lack of Parental Over-insistence upon Achievement Scale, Lack of Severity of Discipline Scale, Parental Trust in Daughters Scale, and Parental Harmony Scale in relation with Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests Scale. These trends seemed to suggest that parents who were strict and held high standards for their daughters had high n Achievement daughters. Parental Sharing of Ideas and Confidences Scale and Family Sharing in Decision-making Scale correlated in the positive direction with Futurs Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests Scale for subject high in n Achievement. These trends seemed to imply that daughters high in n Achievement were reared in democratic families more often than Daughters with a low n Achievement.

For females low in n Achievement, there were no significant correlations and only a few trends. Parents' Sympathetic Encouragement of Achievement Scale seemed to correlate positively with Future Goals,

Aspirations, and Career Interests Scale. This might mean that the higher the standards parents set for their daughters, the higher the daughters' aspirational level. Parental Approval Scale correlated negatively with Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests Scale.

Achievement motivation has its base in personality development. In college, students with different achievement motivations have different personalities that respond differently to a constant variable. This partly explained some of the contradictions found in various trends reported in this research study. Females with a high n Achievement reacted differently to particular parental behaviours than females with a low n Achievement.

#### Implications and Suggestions for Research

Since the sample population was small and drawn from a particular category of people, the findings of this study were limited somewhat. This study needs replication with a larger and more varied group of subjects to test the results reported in this thesis. The criterion measure used has only face validity, however, this is true for most instruments. Other instruments could be used and results compared. Achievement motivation at different intellectual levels could be explored. The Family Relations Questionnaire could also be revised so it would be more realistic for the age group and sex involved.

Using the data collected for this study, many other analyses could be used. One could obtain a high and a low group from each of the remaining fifteen EPPS variables and see if these two groups

answered the Family Relations Questionnaire differently. Definite trends in personality variables could be studied from the complete profile of the EPPS scores. Certain personality patterns could be investigated.

A follow-up study could be conducted with the same sample used in this study to see what really happened to these people during their four years of college life. Have any dropped out of school? How many have intentions of entering careers other than homemaking? Who? Each scale in the Family Relations Questionnaire could be expanded in depth with interviews or with a more detail questionnaire on one particular area of the family environment.

There definitely is a great need for more research in the area of achievement motivation in females. It is necessary to gain greater insight in the part the family plays in shaping a child's personality and all of its many facets.

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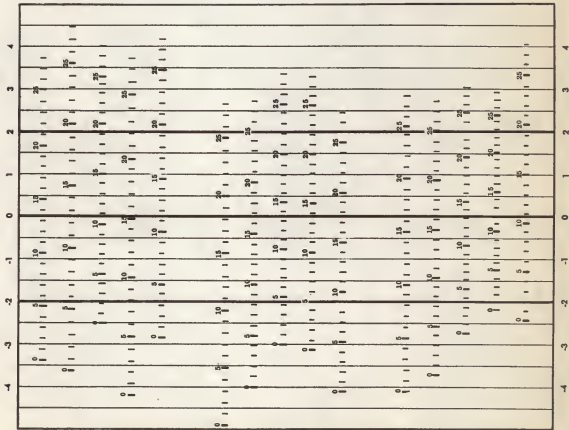
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**APPENDIX**

Edwards Personal Preference Schedule  
 Student Counseling Center  
 Kansas State College

**F**



NEED DEFINITION LIST

- To compete with others for honors, to be known as a leader or an authority on something, to accomplish something of significance.
- To get suggestions from others, to follow the leadership of others, to do what is expected of you.
- To plan and organize things, to like order, to aim for perfection in detail.
- To be the center of attention, to make an impression, to have an audience.
- To be free to do what you want, to defy convention, to be resentful of authority.
- To make many friends, to be with people rather than alone, to do things with friends rather than alone.
- To analyze oneself or other people, to understand why people behave as they do, to be curious about the "why" of things.
- To want encouragement, to have others interested in your problems, to receive affection, understanding, or sympathy from others.
- To dominate others, to be a leader, to influence others, to make decisions.
- To accept blame when things go wrong, to feel guilty when one does something wrong, to be unsure of oneself, to be self-critical.
- To encourage others, to be helpful to others, to be affectionate toward others, to sympathize with others.
- To do new and different things, to enjoy variety, to participate in new fads, to travel.
- To persist, to keep at a task until it is completed, to put in long hours of uninterrupted work.
- To date, to be interested in the opposite sex, to engage in social activities with the opposite sex.
- To be critical of others, to attack contrary points of view, to blow off steam, to tell others what one thinks of them.

## SCALES OF FAMILY RELATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Family sharing of recreation.
2. Parental approval.
3. Parents' sympathetic encouragement of achievement.
4. Lack of parental overprotection.
5. Family sharing of ideas and confidences.
6. Parental affection.
7. Lack of parental restrictiveness as to activities.
8. Family sharing in decision-making.
9. Daughters' acceptance of parental standards.
10. Lack of parental over-insistence on achievement.
11. Daughters' affection for parents.
12. Lack of severity of parental discipline.
13. Parental trust in daughter.
14. Parental harmony.
15. Parental approval of peer activities.
16. Future goals, aspirations, and career interest of daughters.

Code \_\_\_\_\_

## GENERAL INFORMATION

## 1. Classification Data:

a. Age \_\_\_\_\_ Ages of brothers \_\_\_\_\_

Ages of sisters \_\_\_\_\_

b. Are both of your parents living together at home? \_\_\_\_\_  
yes or no

## 2. Your home is located in a

\_\_\_\_\_ rural area

\_\_\_\_\_ city area

## 3. The size of your high school graduating class was

\_\_\_\_\_ less than 25 students

\_\_\_\_\_ between 26 and 150 students

\_\_\_\_\_ more than 151 students

## 4. Your high school graduating rank was

\_\_\_\_\_ in the upper one-fourth

\_\_\_\_\_ in the upper one-half

\_\_\_\_\_ in the lower one-half

## 5. Your father's occupation:

\_\_\_\_\_ farmer

\_\_\_\_\_ blue collar worker (employed laborer)

\_\_\_\_\_ white collar (office worker)

\_\_\_\_\_ white collar-self employed

\_\_\_\_\_ professional

Give job title \_\_\_\_\_

## 5a. Your mother's occupation:

\_\_\_\_\_ full-time homemaker

\_\_\_\_\_ employed part-time

\_\_\_\_\_ employed full-time

Give job title if employed \_\_\_\_\_

## 6. Your father's education:

\_\_\_\_\_ grade school

\_\_\_\_\_ some high school

\_\_\_\_\_ high school graduate

\_\_\_\_\_ some college

\_\_\_\_\_ college degree

## 6a. Your mother's education:

\_\_\_\_\_ grade school

\_\_\_\_\_ some high school

\_\_\_\_\_ high school graduate

\_\_\_\_\_ some college

\_\_\_\_\_ college degree



## FAMILY RELATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

	Not At All	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
1. Did you go to the movies with your parents when you were younger?	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Did you go to games (football, baseball, etc.) with one or both parents when you were younger?	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Does your family have good times together at home?	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Did either of your parents work with you on any hobbies or projects when you were in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Did you and your family go on picnics or outings or trips together when you were younger?	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. Is it enjoyable to spend evenings with your family group when you go home?	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. Are both of your parents fair in their criticism of you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Do you worry about what either of your parents think of you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. Does someone at home "pick" on you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. Does either parent ever seem to wish that you were a different sort of person?	_____	_____	_____	_____
11. Are both of your parents inclined to think well of you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
12. Does either parent ever seem irritated with you without cause?	_____	_____	_____	_____
13. Do your parents sympathetically encourage you to do well in school?	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Not At All</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Often</u>	<u>Very Often</u>
14. Do your parents inspire you to want to develop your abilities?	_____	_____	_____	_____
15. Does your parents' interest in worthwhile books make you want to read them?	_____	_____	_____	_____
16. Did your parents understandingly encourage you to take part in high school affairs?	_____	_____	_____	_____
17. Do your parents help to stimulate your interest in such areas as art, music, science, or politics?	_____	_____	_____	_____
18. Do your parents stimulate you to think things out for yourself?	_____	_____	_____	_____
19. Did your parents try to protect you too much against difficulties or dangers?	_____	_____	_____	_____
20. Do your parents try to baby you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
21. Did your parents insist on taking over and settling any difficulties you have had with friends or adults (teachers).	_____	_____	_____	_____
22. Do your parents worry too much about your physical health?	_____	_____	_____	_____
23. Do your parents try to do everything for you when you let them?	_____	_____	_____	_____
24. Do your parents try to take over and solve your problems for you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
25. Do your folks discuss family problems with you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
26. Did you talk to your parents about your activities in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Not</u> <u>At All</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Often</u>	<u>Very</u> <u>Often</u>
27. Do your parents discuss their work and activities with you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
28. Do you and your parents have serious discussions about religious, philosophical, political, or social questions?	_____	_____	_____	_____
29. Do you and your parents have serious intellectual discussions about subjects such as art, music, literature, or science?	_____	_____	_____	_____
30. Did you talk to your parents about your problems and worries when you were in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____
31. Do your parents show an interest in things that concern you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
32. Do your parents show pleasure at what you do?	_____	_____	_____	_____
33. Do your parents openly show affection for you by word or actions?	_____	_____	_____	_____
34. Do your parents enjoy spending time with you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
35. Do your parents do little things to show affection and consideration for you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
36. How often do your parents praise you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
37. Were your parents particular about what boys or girls you associated with in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____
38. Did your parents give you a great deal of freedom while you were in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Not At All</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Often</u>	<u>Very Often</u>
39. Did your parents give unreasonable commands which they insisted that you carry out?	_____	_____	_____	_____
40. Did your parents let you decide important things for yourself when you were in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____
41. Do your parents insist that you do things their way?	_____	_____	_____	_____
42. Did your parents try to direct your activities while you were in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____
43. Did your parents take your wishes into consideration when they planned a family trip or vacation?	_____	_____	_____	_____
44. Did your parents let you help decide everyday family policies, rules and ways of living when you were in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____
45. Did your folks let you help make important family decisions when you were in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____
46. Does your family talk over future family plans together?	_____	_____	_____	_____
47. Does everyone in your family living at home have a say about how your house is decorated and what furniture to buy?	_____	_____	_____	_____
48. If the main breadwinner in your family has a chance to take a job in another state, how much say would the rest of the family have in deciding whether to take it?	_____	_____	_____	_____
49. Have you ever disliked doing what your parents tell you do do?	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Not At All</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Often</u>	<u>Very Often</u>
50. Do you agree with your parent's ideas about life?	_____	_____	_____	_____
51. Do you try out suggestions that your parents make?	_____	_____	_____	_____
52. Do you feel rebellious around your family?	_____	_____	_____	_____
53. Do your parents seem old-fashioned in their ideas about how young people should act and dress?	_____	_____	_____	_____
54. Do you feel that you behave the way your parents want you to?	_____	_____	_____	_____
55. Do your parents expect too much of you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
56. Did your parents insist that you choose a certain type of vocation?	_____	_____	_____	_____
57. Were your parents always after you to work hard to become a success?	_____	_____	_____	_____
58. Did your parents keep after you to become an important person in high school affairs?	_____	_____	_____	_____
59. Did your parents keep after you to read more or to read certain things, whether you wanted to or not?	_____	_____	_____	_____
60. Were your parents always trying to get you to study harder in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____
61. Do you feel happy and contented when at home with your family?	_____	_____	_____	_____
62. Do you like to do extra little things to please the members of your family?	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Not At All</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Often</u>	<u>Very Often</u>
63. Would you like to be the same kind of parent that your parents have been?	_____	_____	_____	_____
64. Do you consider yourself very close to your parents?	_____	_____	_____	_____
65. Were your parents good friends and pals to you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
66. Do you admire your parents?	_____	_____	_____	_____
67. How often did your parents scold you during your high school years?	_____	_____	_____	_____
68. Did your parents insist that you obey them immediately when they told you to do something?	_____	_____	_____	_____
69. Did your parents use physical punishment to make you behave while in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____
70. Did the way your parents act depend so much on their mood that you were not sure what to expect?	_____	_____	_____	_____
71. How often did your parents punish you during your high school years?	_____	_____	_____	_____
72. Did your parents punish you severely for misbehavior or disobedience when in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____
73. How much did your parents insist that you explain as to where you were going and what you were doing when you were not at home?	_____	_____	_____	_____
74. How confident do your parents seem to be that you will behave properly away from home?	_____	_____	_____	_____



	<u>Not At All</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Often</u>	<u>Very Often</u>
75. Do your parents believe that you tell the truth?	_____	_____	_____	_____
76. Do your parents seem to have confidence in your judgment?	_____	_____	_____	_____
77. How much freedom were you given to spend your money as you please in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____
78. Do your parents ever seem to mistrust you?	_____	_____	_____	_____
79. Do your parents agree about how the house is to run?	_____	_____	_____	_____
80. Do your parents ever go places by themselves?	_____	_____	_____	_____
81. Do your parents agree with each other in their general ideas about life?	_____	_____	_____	_____
82. Do your parents openly show affection or consideration for each other?	_____	_____	_____	_____
83. Do your parents agree about what you are allowed to do?	_____	_____	_____	_____
84. Are your parents cheerful and happy when together?	_____	_____	_____	_____
85. Did your parents object to some of your activities with your friends and acquaintances while in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____
86. Did your parents like for you to bring your friends into your home when in high school?	_____	_____	_____	_____
87. Did your parents approve of your friends in school?	_____	_____	_____	_____

- |   | <u>Not</u>    |                  |                   | <u>Very</u>  |
|---|---------------|------------------|-------------------|--------------|
|   | <u>At All</u> | <u>Sometimes</u> | <u>Often</u>      | <u>Often</u> |
| 88. Did your parents approve of your going to dances and parties you wanted to when in high school?                           | _____         | _____            | _____             | _____        |
| 89. Do your parents irritate you by teasing you about your interest in the opposite sex?                                      | _____         | _____            | _____             | _____        |
| 90. Did your parents mind your going to extracurricular club meetings in high school?   | _____         | _____            | _____             | _____        |
|   |               |                  | <u>Moderately</u> |              |
|   | <u>No</u>     | <u>Sometimes</u> | <u>Yes</u>        | <u>Yes</u>   |
| 91. Do you feel a college degree is important for a girl?   | _____         | _____            | _____             | _____        |
| 92. Do you feel that women should be career-minded?   | _____         | _____            | _____             | _____        |
| 93. Do you feel women should compete with men for jobs?   | _____         | _____            | _____             | _____        |
| 94. If you met that very special boy when you were a sophomore in college, would you finish college first and then marry him? | _____         | _____            | _____             | _____        |
| 95. Could you with children combine a career and a marriage successfully?   | _____         | _____            | _____             | _____        |
| 96. In a job would you prefer an interesting job with less security over a secure uninteresting job?                          | _____         | _____            | _____             | _____        |

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND ACHIEVEMENT  
MOTIVATION IN FEMALE HOME ECONOMICS FRESHMEN

by

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B. S., Western Illinois University, 1965

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S THESIS

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Department of Family and Child Development

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Manhattan, Kansas

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The purpose of this study was 1) to investigate the relationships between past family environment and the degree of achievement motivation in female home economics freshmen; and 2) to investigate the relationship between past family environment and the future goals, aspirations, and career interests in female home economics freshmen.

The target population of 116 female home economics freshmen was derived from an original population of 205 students enrolled in the seven sections of the Human Relations course at Kansas State University, Fall semester 1966-67. The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule was used as the achievement criterion to determine the two sample groups of subjects high and low in n Achievement. Ten qualified as high n Achievement females and twenty-two qualified as low n Achievement females. A Family Relations Questionnaire was given to the two groups of females. A Chi-square analysis was used to determine if the two groups were significantly different in their responses to the Family Relations Questionnaire.

Three significant differences were found and a few trends. Freshmen with a high n Achievement scored significantly higher on Lack of Parental Restrictiveness as to Activities Scale and higher on the Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests Scale than freshmen with a low n Achievement. Freshmen with a high n Achievement tended to score higher on the Parental Approval Scale, Parental Trust Scale, and Parental Approval As to Peer Activities Scale. Freshmen with a low n Achievement had a significantly higher score on the Family Sharing of Ideas and Confidences Scale than did freshmen high in n Achievement.

A correlation coefficient was computed between each of the Family Relations Scales and the last scale on the questionnaire concerning future goals and career aspirations. Only one significant relationship and several trends were found.

For females high in *n* Achievement, a significantly negative relationship existed between the Parental Approval of Peer Activities Scale and the Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests Scale. Other negative trends were found for the Family Sharing of Recreation Scale, Lack of Parental Restrictiveness as to Activities Scale, Lack of Parental Over-insistence upon Achievement Scale, Lack of Severity of Discipline Scale, Parental Trust in Daughters Scale, and Parental Harmony Scale in relation with Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests Scale. These trends seemed to suggest that parents who were strict and held high standards for their daughters had high *n* Achievement daughters. Parental Sharing of Ideas and Confidences Scale and Family Sharing in Decision-making Scale correlated in the positive direction with Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests Scale for subjects high in *n* Achievement. These trends seemed to imply that daughters high in *n* Achievement were reared in democratic families more often than daughters with a low *n* Achievement.

For females low in *n* Achievement, there were no significant correlations and only a few trends. Parents' Sympathetic Encouragement of Achievement Scale seemed to correlate positively with Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests Scale. This might mean that the higher the standards parents set for their daughters, the higher the

aspirational level of the daughters. Parental Approval Scale correlated negatively with Future Goals, Aspirations, and Career Interests Scale.

A great need for more research in the area of achievement motivation in females is evident. Implications and suggestions for future research in this area were presented.